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Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- | | |
|--|-----|
| Connecting Twenty-first Century Skills and World Language Practices: A Case Study with Teachers of Critical Need Languages
<i>Marjorie Hall Haley, Sherry L. Steeley, and Maryam Salahshoor</i> | 865 |
| Careful Reading versus Expeditious Reading: Investigating the Construct Validity of a Multiple-choice Reading Test
<i>Godefroid B. Katalayi and Sivakumar Sivasubramaniam</i> | 877 |
| A Field-independent View of Field-independence
<i>Antoine G. Khoury</i> | 885 |
| Semantic Functions of Passive Constructions in the Holy Qur'an
<i>Khalil Hassan Nofal</i> | 894 |
| The Language Question in the Teaching and Examination of 'A' Level Shona: A Case of Masvingo District in Zimbabwe
<i>Viriri Eunitah and Rubaya Clemence</i> | 903 |
| Court Interpreters View of Language Use in Subordinate Courts in Nyanza Province, Kenya
<i>Kenneth Odhiambo, Claris Kasamba Kavulani, and Peter Maina Matu</i> | 910 |
| A Survey on Ambiguity within the Framework of TG Grammar in College English Teaching
<i>Fangfang Ding</i> | 919 |
| Reflection on Feminism in <i>Jane Eyre</i>
<i>Haiyan Gao</i> | 926 |
| Interaction and Interactive English Teaching in the High School Level
<i>Mansoor Fahim and Ali Seidi</i> | 932 |
| The Strategies in C-E Translation of Public Sign—Based on the Study of Public Sign Translation of Qingdao
<i>Dongmeng Liu</i> | 938 |
| C-E Translation of Children's Literature from the Perspective of Relevance Theory
<i>Yushan Zhao and Yanwen Jiang</i> | 944 |
| Repair Strategies in EFL Classroom Talk
<i>Zahra Fotovatnia and Afrooz Dorri</i> | 950 |
-

The Effects of Tasks on the Learning of Lexical Bundles by Chinese EFL Learners <i>Zhongqin Cao</i>	957
Discussion on the Relationship between Language and Culture <i>Junyu Chen</i>	963
The Effect of Methodology on Learning Vocabulary and Communication Skills in Iranian Young Learners: A Comparison between Audiolingual Method and Natural Approach <i>Afsaneh Rahimi Tehrani, Hossein Barati, and Manijeh Youhanaee</i>	968
Techniques of the Translation of Culture <i>Xiao Geng</i>	977
Review of Wolfgang Iser and His Reception Theory <i>Yanling Shi</i>	982
Determining the Difficulty Level of Listening Tasks <i>Zohre Mohamadi</i>	987
An Empirical Research on Negative Transfer in College Non-English Majors' Chinese-English Sentence Translation <i>Hui Ni</i>	995
Death Mask of Lucy <i>Dingming Wang and Dini Zhang</i>	1005
The Effects of Genre-based Instruction on ESP Learners' Reading Comprehension <i>Bahador Sadeghi, Mohammad Taghi Hassani, and Mohammad R. Hemmati</i>	1009
A Probe into the Profile of Tom Sawyer in <i>The Adventures of Tom Sawyer</i> <i>Shuqin Li</i>	1021
Analysis of the Myths, Photographs and Laws in <i>China Men</i> <i>Minglan Zhang and Fade Wang</i>	1026
From Frequency to Instructional Order: Insights from a Narrow-angle Corpus of Psychology RA Introductions <i>Massoud Yaghoubi-Notash and Massoumeh Janghi-Golezani</i>	1034
Translation of Verbal Anaphora in <i>The Art of War</i> <i>Yuan Tao</i>	1040
Grammar: From Experience to Language <i>Zhongxin Dai and Jun Liu</i>	1045
Globalization and Its Effect on the Novels Translated into Persian: A Postcolonial Approach <i>Niloufar Fallahshahrak and Bahloul Salmani</i>	1050
Research on the Application of Context Theory in Vocabulary Study <i>Xiaohui Xu</i>	1059
The Adjectives of Securities English Make a Difference <i>Guineng Mei</i>	1065
The Effects of Teaching Lexical Collocations on Speaking Ability of Iranian EFL Learners <i>Elahe Movahediyar Attar and Hamid Allami</i>	1070

Connecting Twenty-first Century Skills and World Language Practices: A Case Study with Teachers of Critical Need Languages

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Abstract—This mixed method study investigated 25 pre- and in-service teachers (12 Arabic and 13 Chinese) who attended a 2012 StarTalk Summer Institute (STSI). The current study took place over the course of two weeks followed by three fall workshops. Through a carefully designed sequence of blended learning activities, 25 pre- and in-service Chinese and Arabic teachers were offered multiple opportunities to explore and examine teaching in a learner-centered classroom utilizing 21st Century Skills. Data were gathered during the summer institute using on-line surveys, small group interviews, daily reflections, online discussion board threads on Ning (an online platform for people to create their own social networks), as well as materials created by the participants. The results of this study draw attention to some of the complexities that critical need language teachers face.

Index Terms—critical need languages, teacher development, 21st century skills

I. INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXT: THE NEED FOR CRITICAL LANGUAGE TEACHERS

During the last years of the 20th century and the first decade of the 21st Century, the importance of global understanding and intercultural communication in promoting national security, economic competitiveness, and social well-being has become increasingly evident. In order to face the challenges of the 21st Century and to effectively participate in today's globalized, knowledge-based economy, societies increasingly need individuals who can communicate globally and who are aware of the role of language and culture.

Two initiatives during the current decade have influenced language teaching in the United States. First, in January 2006, President George W. Bush introduced the "National Security Language Initiative" aimed at increasing the number of Americans learning world languages, particularly what the initiative referred to as "critical need" languages, including both Arabic and Chinese. Second, the Partnership for 21st Century Skills (P21) outlined the key elements of teaching and learning focused on student outcomes. This focus quickly revealed an urgent need to better prepare teachers of these languages with commensurate support and funding. In addition, President Obama has made the expansion of world language capacity a central element in the Departments of State and Defense, explicitly tying world language skills to the national interest and emphasizing increased cooperation and understanding around the globalized, interconnected world (Obama, 2008).

As a result of this attention and funding through the National Security Language Initiative (NSLI), district offerings and student enrollment in critical need languages has risen rapidly. Comparing data from December 2002 with data from November 2011, enrollment in Chinese has increased 65 percent and Arabic enrollment 125 percent, among world languages with the highest growth rates (Homeland Security and Governmental Affairs Subcommittee, 2012). However, this rapid growth of Arabic and Chinese programs has been hampered by the shortage of "highly qualified" teachers who can provide standards-based instruction. The gap between the increasing growth of Chinese and Arabic language programs in K-12 public and private schools and the shortage of "highly qualified" teachers in these languages is great (Hui, 2012). According to U.S. Department of Education (2008), the certification of teachers of Arabic and Chinese languages as well as the development of standards-based curriculum and materials lag behind that of more commonly taught languages, such as French and Spanish.

Providing educational support to critical need language teachers, such as Chinese and Arabic, has been particularly challenging. World language teachers, many of whom have been educated in a non-western educational setting, encounter many cultural, pedagogical, and linguistic challenges as they transition into U.S. schools. Many times the single critical need language teacher within a school or district teaches diverse groups of students with various cultural

and linguistic diversities but without the benefit of peer guidance and support. Another challenge critical need language teachers face is the lack of opportunities to access meaningful professional support; research has consistently shown that professional development, including mentoring and other forms of peer collaboration, has an important and positive effect on teacher effectiveness (Schrier, 1993).

In order to improve preparation of teachers in this critical need language area, a federally-funded initiative – StarTalk – was created and is administered by the National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) at the University of Maryland. StarTalk has offered more than 150 high-quality summer teacher training programs as well as student language learning programs in the critical need languages in 48 states and the District of Columbia both in K-16 settings and in heritage communities. It is expected that by the end of 2013, every state and territory in the United States will have at least one StarTalk program in one or more languages (Ingold & Wang, 2010).

At the same time, The Partnership for 21st (P21) Century Skills, a national organization that advocates for 21st Century readiness for every student, has developed tools to ensure that U.S. students develop skills in core academic subjects, including Social Studies, English, Math, Science, Geography, World Languages and the Arts. As the United States continues to compete in a global economy that demands innovation, P21 and its members provide tools and resources to help schools stay competitive by fusing reading, writing, and math and critical thinking and problem solving, communication, collaboration, and creativity and innovation. The 21st Century Skills Map (2011) was developed through a year-long collaborative process, spear-headed by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) and P21. The map reflects the efforts of hundreds of world language teachers and highlights the integration of World Languages and 21st Century Skills. The map provides concrete examples of how 21st Century Skills can be integrated into world languages.

Integrating these two policy areas of critical educational reform efforts, this case study focuses on the results of the StarTalk program's efforts to incorporate the 21st Century Skills into the program of study of a cohort of Chinese and Arabic teachers who completed an intensive set of workshops in Summer-Fall 2012.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE: CRITICAL NEED LANGUAGE TEACHER SUPPLY AND EDUCATION

The existing literature reveals that there is an urgent need for more professionals with higher levels of proficiency in critical need languages in numerous fields, including national security to economic areas to translation and interpreting. Among a number of variables that affect student opportunities to learn critical need languages, the most significant is certainly an adequate supply of highly knowledgeable teachers and high-quality instructional materials. However, elementary and secondary school administrators who want to offer such languages report difficulty finding trained teachers and needed materials (Brecht, Golonka, Rivers, & Hart, 2007). The problem of teacher shortage has been so severe that many school district representatives are traveling to China and to various Arabic-speaking countries to recruit teachers (Hall Haley & Ferro, 2011). In fact, the vast majority of pre-service and in-service Chinese teachers who are teaching in K-12 Chinese language classrooms in the U.S. were previously educated in mainland China or Taiwan (Hui, 2012). Similarly, heritage learners and "heritage schools" provide another source of prospective teachers of critical need languages.

According to Schrier (1993), expanding the prospective language teacher pool to include these newly identified groups of individuals can help meet the demands for more teachers in critical need languages. Native speakers of critical need languages who grew up and attended schools outside the United States can bring very desirable characteristics to the teaching environment if they are well prepared to teach native English speakers in a K-12 environment. For example, the native speaker has a linguistic competency in the target language as well as firsthand cultural knowledge to share.

Several scholars have investigated the challenges that critical need language teachers educated in non-Western countries face as they transition into Western schools, a context that is extremely different from the culture and educational system in their countries of origin. These challenges may include language barriers, culture shock, different perceptions and expectations of the roles of the teacher and students, communication with parents, different beliefs about teaching, different pedagogies and styles, classroom management and discipline, the role of learners and the importance of self-regulated instruction, standards-based curriculum development and assessment, and inclusion of students with special linguistic, ethnic, cultural, and cognitive needs (Hui, 2012). In an attempt to better understand these issues, McNamara and Lewis (2004) surveyed teachers who were trained in non-Western educational settings but were teaching in the United Kingdom (UK) in order to determine what they found to be the most challenging. Among those teachers, they mentioned the importance of appropriate classroom discipline and behavior management, excessive paperwork, the heavy workload, the different teaching methods, and lack of familiarity with the National Curriculum and assessment system. Furthermore, because teaching a language is not only about teaching the language itself (Valdes, 1986), particularly because in a multicultural classroom in which teachers and students come from varied backgrounds, both may approach situations with different cultural values and expectations about their roles, making efficient and effective cross-cultural communication highly important.

Further, world language teaching can be a lonely occupation (Hammadou & Bernhardt, 1987), but for the critical need language teacher it can mean total isolation. These teachers find themselves in an environment where they are faced with several immediate challenges without any peer support and guidance. This isolation is created by not only

the subject matter being taught but also by the instructional delivery of these languages. Most often these teachers are in a unique situation of introducing a new language in an environment with previously-established professional structures and performance standards expectations from the commonly taught languages such as French or Latin (Schrier, 1993).

Another challenge critical need language teachers face is the lack of opportunities to access to meaningful clinical experiences. Research has consistently shown that professional development, including mentoring and other forms of peer collaboration, has an important and positive effect on teacher effectiveness (Schrier, 1993). Due to the shortage of qualified and certified world language teachers in the U.S., critical need language teachers often lack adequate training.

Thus, because only a limited number of world language education programs provide certification in the critical need languages (Hui, 2012), this sudden attention to, and funding for, language learning opportunities in critical need languages have quickly revealed that innovative means must be devised to locate, provide appropriate training for, and to accommodate the needs of teachers of less commonly taught languages, particularly those who may have been educated outside the United States. The present study addresses teachers' need to critically discuss cultural differences and to learn and apply theories, methods, and strategies for learner-centered instruction (Hall Haley, 2001; Hall Haley and Ferro, 2011). In particular, the study examined the way in which teachers of Chinese and Arabic successfully address 21st Century Skills in the world language classroom and investigated the following research questions:

1. In what ways were the Arabic and Chinese teacher participants in the Summer-Fall Startalk workshops able to connect 21st Century Skills to standards-based instructional practices?
2. How did teacher participants learn to utilize technology applications to implement 21st Century Skills in today's world language classroom?

III. THE STUDY

In order to collect and analyze data that would shed light on these research questions, this study used a mixed method design that examined the perceptions of 25 pre- and in-service teachers (12 Arabic and 13 Chinese) who participated in five day-long professional development workshops at a 2012 StarTalk Summer Institute (STSI) and actively engaged in a weeklong online learning community that focused on learner-centered classrooms utilizing 21st Century skills. Through a carefully designed sequence of blended learning activities, these workshops provided participants with multiple opportunities to explore and reflect on the critical considerations that directly influence transitioning to teaching in a learner-centered classroom utilizing 21st Century skills.

Thanks in large part to two generous grants, one from the Freeman Foundation and the other from StarTalk, the world language licensure program in our university has been able to sponsor five summer institutes (SI) for Arabic and Chinese teachers. The fifth SI which took place in 2012, is the focus of the present study. This two-week institute, "GMU StarTalk: 21st Century Skills – Implications for Teaching Critical Need Languages," is a follow-up and continuation of research reported in "Bridging Instructional Gaps in Preparing to Teach Millennial Learners," (Hall Haley & Alsweel, 2012). The fifth SI focused on connecting critical need languages with the ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map (2011). Since many of the participants have returned for each year's workshops, however, we have structured the institutes so that they are both scaffolded for returning participants, and review core principles for new attendees. Previous years have focused on multiple intelligences in language learning, cooperative learning in language learning, ACTFL Standards and planning outcomes-based lessons, and bridging cultural differences in U.S. classrooms. Thus, while these familiar themes spiral through both the onsite and online sessions, the primary goal for the 2012 institute was for participants to increase their understanding of the integration of standards-based instruction and the 21st Century Skill Map and to develop culminating units that demonstrate that understanding.

Participants

Given the geographic location, the Startalk program examined by this case study was able to serve a large number of heritage speakers of Arabic and Chinese. The sample was purposeful in both the site and participant selection. Teacher participants completed an application for admission to the summer institute. Before the institute commenced, the researchers electronically corresponded with participants about the study to secure consent and conduct a pre-institute survey. The Program Director reviewed applications and decisions were made based on previous years of attendance, in-service or pre-service status, and an equal number of Arabic and Chinese teachers. The in-service teachers were from metro area public and private schools. Data were gathered on teachers' biographical and professional profiles, and their years of language teaching experiences. Of the 30 attendees, 25 teachers participated in the study. There were 22 females and 3 males. Participants' educational backgrounds varied widely. The demographics for the participants appear in Table 1.1. How many were new? How many returning?

TABLE 1.1**Participant Demographics: Pre-Institute Survey**

Characteristics	Arabic (12)	Chinese (13)
Gender		
Male	2	1
Female	10	12
Highest degree earned		
Associate degree	2	
Bachelor	9	1
Master	1	8
Doctorate		4
In-service with license	2	5
In-service with no license	10	8

Instructional Activities

A week before the 2012 Summer Institute, teachers engaged in a series of pre-institute readings, video viewings, and activities designed to introduce them to the 21st Century Skills, while giving them background information that would be useful during the face-to-face meetings. During week one of the institute teachers met for five days of professional development workshops focused on learner-centered approaches to language teaching as highly effective tools for addressing pedagogical issues inherent in critical need languages. The workshops provided teachers with hands-on training in the introduction and application of interactive approaches in language teaching and learning. Participants attended professional development workshops in the morning that included individual sessions for Arabic and Chinese. In the afternoon, teachers participated in a series of language specific group activities led by master teachers, paying particular attention to the three Communicative Modes (Interpersonal, Interpretive, and Presentational). During the last two days of Week One, teachers were able to apply theory to practice, working on-site with language learners in Chinese and Arabic who volunteered for a simulated children's camp. Questions: did they produce anything we can analyze as data? Do we have HSRB permission to analyze their work products?

Week Two offered online blended learning activities using Ning as the platform, allowing teachers to further their participation in a community of learners. The discussion topics focused on the 21st Century Skills Map, with a special focus on social and cross cultural skills, critical thinking and problem solving, leadership and responsibility, and media and technology literacy. Discussions and reflections focused on developing instructional activities based on the 21st Century Skills Map (2011). For a culminating project, participants either aligned their newly created lessons to construct a 21st Century Skills instructional packet or developed either an Integrated Performance Assessment (IPA) or a rubric for an IPA using the Skills Map.

Procedures

Pre- and in-service Arabic and Chinese teachers were recruited for the 2012 SI through a variety of channels including notices sent to local school departments and private schools with Arabic and/or Chinese language program. Pre-service teachers were recruited through our university where they were enrolled in a state-approved licensure program. There were 30 available seats in the institute.

Prior to the first day of the two-week institute, all 30 participants were sent an email that described the study, its purpose, and a link to SurveyMonkey (a private American company that enables users to create their own Web-based surveys) that contained the consent form and the pre-institute survey. Participation in the study was voluntary. To access the online pre-institute survey, the attendees had to first complete the online consent form. Completing the two online surveys took approximately 20 minutes each and participants were asked for permission to extract their responses from the discussion prompts and group interviews.

During the second week of the institute, the participants were required to engage in the online discussions. Each day the facilitator of the online portion of the institute posted several prompts to the Ning site that was developed specifically for the SI attendees. At the end of week two, the researchers extracted the responses to the online discussions that were posted.

On the last day of the 2012 SI, the 25 participants who consented to the study were emailed a link to the post-institute survey. The post-institute survey was also created using SurveyMonkey, utilizing the same design as the pre-institute survey. There were 25 participants who completed the survey.

Data Collection

A mixed method design was used to gather information about the perceptions of Chinese and Arabic teachers who participated in the 2012 SI concerning the connection between 21st Century Skills to standards-based instructional practices. Data were collected from multiple sources: teacher's profiles, surveys, semi-structured and open-ended interviews, and field notes. The researchers examined the surveys, interviews, and observation data for themes that appeared across responses. The research instruments included a pre-and post-survey completed on line using SurveyMonkey. The group interviews with the participants were conducted in English and audiotaped with the

participants' permission, ensuring their anonymity. The audio recordings were transcribed and then the data were coded and broken down by restricting them in new categories to allow themes to emerge.

Patton (2001) advocates the use of triangulation by stating "triangulation strengthens a study by combining methods. This can mean using several kinds of methods or data, including using both quantitative and qualitative approaches" (p. 247). Further, according to Johnson (1997), employing multiple methods such as observation, interviews and recordings will lead to more valid, reliable and diverse creation of realities. Member checking with other colleagues was employed to determine the accuracy of the qualitative findings. Most significantly, the final projects presented by participants were coded and analyzed to determine the extent to which they had been able to incorporate 21st century skills into standards-based lesson planning. Researchers then used these data to compare participant perceptions of abilities with their demonstrated performance-based assessments.

Instruments

Pre- and Post-Institute Surveys. We created the pre-and post-institute surveys (see Appendix A for the instruments) using Survey Monkey. Our pre-survey consisted of 18 questions and the post-survey consisted of 25 questions. The first eight questions on both the pre-survey and the post-survey were identical and focused on the collection of demographic data. The pre-institute survey also had five multiple choice questions and five open-ended questions which asked participants to share their perceptions and previous knowledge regarding the way teachers should connect 21st Century Skills to standard-based instructional practices.

The post-survey consisted of 5 multiple choice questions and 10 open-ended questions.

The multiple choice questions asked the participants to check the statements that best describe: their knowledge and understanding of the 21st Century Skills, learner-centered instructional practices, ACTFL Standards of Foreign Language Learning (the 5Cs), the 3 Communicative Modes (interpretive, interpersonal, and presentational), and rate their concerns regarding teaching students in the U.S. The first five open-ended questions on the post-survey were identical to the pre-survey.

Post-Teaching Simulation Group Interview. Teachers were asked to participate in a post-teaching group interview (See Appendix B) and share how they planned and designed the activities for their lessons; whether their activities were connected to the standards; whether they were able to incorporate 21st Century Skills in their lessons; how they used technology in their lesson; what worked well and what did not work well in their lesson; what would they do differently if they were to teach this lesson again; and what they learned about themselves as teachers and about the students in the United States.

Note: During the last two days of the Summer Institute the participants were to practice their newly acquired skills and participate in a two day formal teaching demonstration with volunteer students. However, due to a severe storm the last day was cancelled and the teachers only had one day of practice teaching with students.

Online Discussion Board – Ning. During week two of the SI, the participants engaged in online discussions by responding to daily discussion prompts posted by the facilitator on the social and networking platform of Ning (See Appendix C). There were a total of 13 prompts and teachers were asked to first view a short video clip regarding each topic and then answer 2-3 questions about the topic of that day. Discussion topics included: moving toward learner-centered instruction; applying standards and motivating students in a learner centered classroom; classroom management; millennial learners; cultural understanding of teacher roles; and personal and professional development answer the questions about the topic. In the next section we discuss the results of the research questions.

Culminating Projects

In addition to the intensive weeklong face-to-face workshops and practice teaching under the supervision of master teachers, the STARTALK SI included a week of online work in which participants synthesized and extended their learnings and teaching experiences. As a culminating project, participants developed either a unit plan or a performance-based assessment instrument integrating their learning on teaching methods from current and previous workshops, relevant technology resources, and the 21st Century Skills. These projects provided an important point of analysis, reflecting synthesis of participant learnings and intended applications to their real teaching environments based on all of their other learnings in the Summer Institute. These projects were coded using both etic – researcher-provided – codes related to the curriculum objectives and 21st century skills, and emic codes – those which arise naturally from examination of the data. Subsequently these comparatively analyzed against the results of participants reported knowledge gains to examine where there was a difference between belief and practice.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Research Question 1: In what ways do teachers connect 21st Century Skills to standards-based instructional practices?

Participant Self-Perception. The pre-institute survey showed that 35% of the participants knew something about how to connect 21st Century Skills to instructional practices and 46% were able to describe their knowledge and understanding of learner-centered instructional practices. Furthermore, over half (56%) of the teachers indicated that they had some knowledge and understanding of the Standards of Foreign Language Learning and the three Communicative Modes. The post-institute survey data revealed that the summer institute had a positive impact on the teachers' ability to plan activities that connect 21st Century Skills to learner-centered approaches to teaching and

learning. Of particular importance was the teachers participants' knowledge and understanding of the 21st Century skills, the Standards of Foreign Language Learning (The 5Cs), and knowledge and understanding of the three Communicative Modes (interpretive, interpersonal, presentational) in addressing students' needs. The post-survey showed that 81% of participants stated that they had heard of the 21st Century skills and felt that they were familiar with how to connect them to their standards-based instructional practices compared to 34.6% in the pre-institute survey data.

Analysis of post teaching group interviews revealed that for the majority of participants learning about how to connect the 21st Century Skills was a new concept. Teachers were eager to explore the 21st Century Skills Map and then make connections to align it to their daily teaching. When teachers did their practice teaching simulations with the children's camps, they had first-hand experiences of connecting theory to practice. We were pleasantly surprised to see the ease with which they handled this and implemented the Skills Map in creative and engaging activities.

One teacher commented, "I think our group was very successful. We stayed in the target language and did not use any English. And we were very careful about the language that we used. So one of the things in our PowerPoint showed a picture and we repeated the words over and over. We also used thumbs up and down before we asked the kids to say the words." Another teacher noted, "I am a new teacher so I feel like when you are planning something and when you are actually doing it, it is totally different. I have to think about every step and every sentence and about the flow of every activity. What I planned and what actually happened are very different." One teacher's response to the question, "What would you differently if you could teach this lesson again?" -- "If I had the chance to do the lesson again, I would like more time to rehearse before the class and maybe even work with the master teacher. I would have more control over the time. I also would like to design more activities where I can incorporate music."

In both the post-teaching group interview and the post-institute survey, teachers discussed the theories and techniques they applied from the SI to their micro-teaching demonstration. The teachers noted that their learner-centered activities were connected to the 21st Century Skills Map and they could incorporate cultural activities, foster collaboration, and provide thematic topics and global awareness in their lesson plans.

The following is a summary of the teachers' responses to question number one:

- We use them in creating our daily lesson plans
- 21st Century Skills help design effective Integrated Performance Assessments
- They allow us to use more technology and thereby relate more to our students
- We can include the P21 skills map for all our lessons
- P21 skills allow us to develop a stronger cultural awareness of the target language
- 21st Century Skills enable us to create appropriate formative assessments
- We can align the 21st Century Skills to the Three Communicative Modes of Communication
- P21 skills can be incorporated in all our activities
- They provide a new way to embed the National Standards
- We have more ways to use authentic materials with our students
- We can use formative assessments more effectively now
- The P21 skills and Communicative Modes allow us to teach using real life experiences
- They allow students to practice and demonstrate their understanding of the content being learned
- The colors used in the Skills Map make it easy for us to follow and implement into our daily lessons. It is a simple graphic organizer.

Table 2.1 outlines the results of the pre- and post-survey that addressed our first research question.

TABLE 2.1
PRE AND POST-SURVEY RESULTS

	I have heard of 21st Century Skills and am familiar with how to connect them to standards-based instructional practices		I have heard of 21st Century Skills but I am not sure how to connect them to standards-based instructional practices		I have never heard of the 21st Century Skills	
Check the statement that best describes your familiarity with 21st Century Skills	Pre-survey	Post-survey	Pre-survey	Post-survey	Pre-survey	Post-survey
	34.6%	81%	57.7%	14.3%	7.7%	4.8%

Performance Based Data: Analysis of Final Unit Plans

Text, coding, and analysis of participants' culminating projects revealed that over the course of the intensive Summer Institute experiences – weeklong workshops, practice teaching, and online synthesis and application, participants had in fact integrated 21st Century Skills into the conceptual framework used for their instructional planning.

Among the participants, the incorporation of 21st century skills focused primarily on communication, collaboration and culture, areas traditionally addressed by foreign language classrooms. However, a number of participants explicitly or implicitly incorporated important skills related to technology, critical media literacy, creativity, and leadership. A full presentation of skill areas addressed is presented in Table 2.2.

TABLE 2.2
21ST CENTURY SKILL AREAS ADDRESSED IN 2012 CULMINATING PROJECTS

		Arabic Teachers	Chinese Teachers
Information, Media and Technology Skills	Communication		100%
	Collaboration		100%
	Critical Thinking/Problem Solving		60%
	Creativity and Innovation		50%
	Information Literacy		50%
	Media Literacy		50%
	Technology Literacy		60%
Life and Career Skills	Flexibility and Adaptability		30%
	Initiative and Self-Direction		20%
	Social and Cross-Cultural Skills		100%
	Productivity and Accountability		30%
	Leadership and Responsibility		50%

It is interesting to note that the areas which are the newest yet most commonly experienced in U.S. foreign language teaching settings – communicative and collaborative approaches – were the most common 21st Century Skills addressed, along with social and cross cultural skills, which serve as an area of strong value added by these native speakers of Chinese and Arabic. The fact that the less familiar skills – and those newest in foreign language teaching settings – were less commonly addressed. These data seem to suggest that ongoing training in order to consolidate incorporation of 21st Century Skills into critical need language teaching would benefit in-service teachers of such languages.

Research Question 2: How do teacher participants utilize technology applications to implement 21st Century Skills in today's world language classroom?

In the pre-institute survey only 20% of the teachers said they use technology in their classrooms. While this is a small percentage, it is interesting to note that the teachers were comfortable and skillful at using the online platform, Ning. The online portion of the summer institute was specifically designed to allow participants to engage with their colleagues in both English and/or Chinese and Arabic. The data demonstrated that teachers were actively engaged in the discussions and that they particularly enjoyed the communication across languages and cultures. Conversation threads illustrated how teachers shared ideas about how to utilize technology applications to implement the 21st Century Skills. They also revealed that they were grateful for the opportunity to get feedback from the master teachers as well as the online instructor. The teachers commented on the wealth of ideas that were shared and how useful they found them.

While discussing their roles and participation in an online community of learners, the teachers revealed in the pre-institute survey how much they looked forward to connecting and learning from others as well as sharing, technology applications, lesson plans and resources. After using Ning during the summer institute, the participants felt that the online community was very helpful for getting feedback from peers, as well as building strong relationships with other teachers. However, many felt that Ning could sometimes be overwhelming.

When discussing how Ning impacted their teaching and ability to use of technology applications to connect to the 21st Century Skills, many believed that it could serve as a model for them to develop more student-centered instruction, using technology in the classroom and having an online form platform where students can stay connected. In their online discussions, teachers shared resources as well as continuously gave feedback to each other on materials and lesson plans posted both in the target language and English.

The teacher participants also identified the following technology tools as those they frequently use:

- YouTube
- SmartBoard
- PowerPoint
- Authentic videos
- Skype
- Critical thinking games
- Media literacy

Many of the teacher participants readily acknowledged that they feared going into classrooms where their students were more technologically savvy than they were. The notion of using technology applications to implement 21st Century Skills was both interesting and challenging and they were excited to learn about this topic.

Performance Based Data: Analysis of Final Unit Plans

Performance-based data show a dramatic contrast between reported incorporation of technology and actual intended implementation. Final projects from week 2 (presented in Table 2.3) reveal that the all of the teachers who submitted final projects were able to incorporate technology. However, their uses are limited, in the majority, to basic presentation of PowerPoint and video, both for students and teachers. Most notably, no one used blogging, audio blogging, or other authentic communication tools. This demonstrates that technology incorporation is a critical area for critical need language teachers in U.S. schools.

TABLE 2.3
TECHNOLOGY APPLICATIONS IN FINAL PROJECTS

Percentage using technology in applied teaching products	Arabic Teachers		Chinese Teachers	
	100%		100%	
Technology	Teacher-applications	Student-applications	Teacher-applications	Student-applications
PowerPoint	66%	33%	50%	10%
Wordle	-	33%	-	-
Webquest/internet	-	33%	-	20%
Video clips	-	-	30%	-
Video production	-	-	-	20%
Podcast	-	-	-	10%
Smartboard	-	-	10%	-

Implications and Limitations

One implication portrayed in this study indicates that multiple efforts and pathways need to be taken to provide professional development training for filling the paucity of critical need language teachers. A second implication inherent in this study is the need for recognition and acknowledgement that many challenges confront these teachers transitioning into teaching in U.S. schools. The ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map helps to better equip and prepare students for a global community. It is clear that the teacher participants grasped the salient ideas and concepts and quickly adapted them to connect to their instructional practices.

There are a few notable limitations when considering the results and implications of this study. First, the researchers opted to use open-ended questions on the pre- and post-institute surveys. Although this was done to provide the participants with complete autonomy in their responses, it may have limited the type of data collected. Also, it is quite possible that not all questions were understood and/or comprehensible as the surveys were entirely in English. A second limitation is that the researchers were not able to fully utilize a broad range of data sources. Further research should include classroom observations and follow-up interviews in order to clarify and extend one's understanding of the relationships that emerged from the data in this small-scale study. Third, the small sample size may not be representative of the larger population of teachers of critical need languages. Therefore, generalizing the findings from this study should be done so with caution.

V. CONCLUSION

This study is descriptive in nature, with its aim being to build upon our previous line of inquiry. Because the sample size is small, it is difficult to make generalizations. However, the study clearly demonstrates the multifaceted training requirements of critical need language teachers. The data collected in this fifth year of the GMU StarTalk summer institute adds to a much needed growing body of research. The study was designed as a continuation of on-going efforts to investigate filling the gap between supply and demand of critical need language teachers. Due to the urgent need to expand the teaching force in critical need languages, and the challenges of teaching Arabic and Chinese in U.S. schools, we must focus on developing new programs at all levels while increasing enrollments in existing programs. Integrating the 21st Century Skills Map into critical language teaching provides a significant step forward in seeking to develop U.S. students into highly skilled world citizens. It is our hope that this research may serve as a model for increasing the numbers of teachers in high need areas, such as Arabic and Chinese.

APPENDIX A PRE AND POST-SURVEY QUESTIONS

1. What is your home country?
2. What is your gender?
3. What is the highest degree that you have earned?
4. Do you have teaching experience? - Yes - No
 - What subject(s) did you teach?
 - What grade(s)?
 - Where (country)?
 - For how long?
5. Do you currently hold a foreign/ world language teaching license or certificate in the United States?
 - If you do not hold a teaching license in the U.S., are you currently working on the licensure requirements?
6. Are you employed as a language teacher in a U.S. school? - yes - no
 - public school
 - private school
7. What language(s) do you teach or will you teach?
 - Chinese
 - Arabic
8. Check the statement that best describes your familiarity with 21st century skills:

- I have heard of 21st century skills and am familiar with how to address them
 - I have heard of 21st century skills but I am not sure how to address them
 - I have never heard of the term 21st century skills
9. From your experience, what are some ways teachers can help students learn a language?
 10. What do you believe a teacher's role is in the classroom?
 11. What technology applications are you currently using in the classroom?
 12. Check the statement that best describes your knowledge and understanding of learner-centered instructional practices:
 - I know about learner-centered instructional practices well enough to apply them to my teaching
 - I know about learner-centered instructional practices, but I am not sure how to apply them in my teaching
 - I have heard of learner-centered instructional practices, but I do not know much about them
 - I have never heard of learner-centered instructional practices
 13. Check the statement that best describes your knowledge and understanding of the Standards of Foreign Language Learning (The 5Cs):
 - I know the standards well enough to apply them to my teaching
 - I know the standards, but I am not sure how to apply them in my teaching
 - I have heard of the standards, but I do not know much about them
 - I have never heard of the standards
 14. Check the statement that best describes your knowledge and understanding of the 3 Communicative Modes (interpretive, interpersonal, presentational):
 - I know the 3 Communicative Modes well enough to apply them to my teaching
 - I know the 3 Communicative Modes, but I am not sure how to apply them in my teaching
 - I have heard of the 3 Communicative Modes, but I do not know much about them
 - I have never heard of the 3 Communicative Modes
 15. Please rate the following concerns about teaching U.S. students:

Not a concern for me	An occasional concern for me	A moderate concern for me	A great concern for me
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 - Using the target language during my instruction
 - Motivating students to use the target language
 - Getting students to care about my class
 - Creating interesting activities for my students
 - Talking to a student who is not behaving in class
 - Using technology in my lessons
 - Getting students to participate in small group activities
 - Creating an integrated performance-based assessment
 - Evaluating a performance-based assessment
 - Talking to a parent/guardian about a student's grade
 16. What do you hope to learn/gain from this StarTalk workshop?
 17. What do you hope to gain from an online community?

APPENDIX B POST-TEACHING SIMULATION GROUP INTERVIEW

1. Why did you choose your lesson theme or topic?
 What kinds of activities did you plan?
 How were they learner-centered?
 How did your activities connect with the standards?
 Did you connect with the 21st Century Skills? How?
 Did you incorporate any technology?
2. What worked well during your instruction? Why do you think it worked well?
3. What did not work so well during your instruction? Why do you think it didn't work well?
4. What would you do differently the next time you try these kinds of activities?
5. How did you gauge student comprehension?
6. What did you learn about yourself as a teacher?
7. What did you learn about U.S. students?
8. Were your objectives met? Why, or why not?
9. Overall, how do you feel about the lesson(s) you taught?

APPENDIX C ONLINE DISCUSSION PROMPTS

Day 1: Moving toward learner-centeredness

Please view the short video clip titled “Student Centered Language Classroom” (the third button on the right side of the screen) at: <http://startalk.umd.edu/teacher-development/workshops/2009/CTCLI/content/index.php>

1. Do you think learner-centered instruction is more beneficial than teacher-centered instruction? Why or Why not? Please provide details or a specific example.

2. What 3 elements of planning learner-centered activities are most challenging for you? Why? How can you overcome these?

3. Many teachers find that getting students to use the target language (instead of English) is a challenge. Why do you think students are so reluctant to speak Arabic or Chinese in class? What can teachers do to motivate students to use the target language in class? Please provide 3 examples.

Day 2: Applying standards and the ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map in a learner centered classroom Please view the video at the Tab 2 “Standards and the Journey” at: http://media.startalk.umd.edu/workshops/2009/Rutgers/video_2.php

1. How do you think that the ACTFL 21st Century Skills Map works with learner-centered instruction? Why and how?

2. Many language teachers believe that you cannot teach a language without teaching the cultures where that language is spoken. What does “teaching culture” mean to you? How can teaching culture fit in with the standards of learning in your school?

3. Please view the video at Tab 3 “Instruction in Meaningful Contexts” at http://media.startalk.umd.edu/workshops/2009/Rutgers/video_3.php

4. What elements of Rebecca Wang’s instruction can you incorporate into your classroom? Please select 3.

Day 3: Learner centeredness and classroom management

1. Creating a classroom environment for learner-centered instruction requires good classroom management. What advice would you give to someone who has never used learner-centered instruction, but who wants to give it a try?

2. There always seems to be one or two students who just don’t care about learning a language. They are usually the ones to disrupt a good lesson. You know that if you keep sending them to the office, it will look like you are not able to manage your classroom. What can you do to get these disruptive students to behave and participate in your lessons?

3. Go to: <http://startalk.umd.edu/teacher-development/workshops/2009/CTCLI/content/index.php> Choose “Cooperative Learning Activities” (the 5th button on the right side of the screen) then preview one video from each type of activity: paired activities, small group activities, whole class activities, and more activities. Preview each of these four videos then answer these questions:

■ How can you use these activities to help you manage your classroom to optimize learning?

■ What types of classroom management techniques will you need to use in order to include these activities in your own teaching? Please describe 3 techniques.

Day 4: Millennial learners; closing the instructional gaps

1. Please reflect on what you have learned so far in the STSI and how this is going to change or modify your teaching practices to address the 21st century skills

Day 5: Cultural understandings of teachers’ roles

1. Please reflect on what you think the impact of your cultural understanding of teacher roles has on your classroom practices in the US.

Day 6: Personal and professional development

1. What impact do you think this might have on your teaching practices in the US?

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Careful Reading versus Expeditious Reading: Investigating the Construct Validity of a Multiple-choice Reading Test

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Abstract—The paper investigates the validity of a multiple-choice reading test using Weir and Khalifa's (2008) model of reading. Fifty (50) multiple-choice reading items taken from the 2011 English state examination were administered to 496 Grade 12 secondary school students. A concurrent strategies questionnaire was used to elicit information on participants' use of strategies during test writing. The results indicate that there are more items that target careful reading than those that target expeditious reading. This is to suggest that the ESE tasks appear to be inappropriate and may need some modifications to more closely reflect the actual test context.

Index Terms—construct validity, careful reading, expeditious reading, reading construct, reading context, task complexity

I. INTRODUCTION

In this article, we apply Weir and Khalifa's (2008a) model of reading types to validate the English state examination, a subtest of the national test administered to high school finalist students in the Democratic Republic of the Congo for certification.

Weir and Khalifa's model conceptualizes reading as a multi-componential construct where reading can be broken down into underlying skill or strategy components for the purpose of both teaching and testing (Weir & Khalifa, 2008a; Khalifa & Weir, 2009). Consistent with this conceptualization, reading construct needs to be described by looking at how readers engage constellations of strategies to construct text meaning and complete test tasks.

In their framework, Weir and Khalifa conceptualize reading construct on a four-matrix cell with careful reading and expeditious reading that can be conducted at both global level and local level. Such a conceptualization of reading is a development in the reading theory because many existing reading models (for instance Bernhardt, 1991; Hoover & Tunmer, 1993; Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989) are nearly premised on a careful reading model and do not take sufficient account of the different purposes of reading. Yet, careful reading alone may be an inadequate construct for students as expeditious reading may tell us how readers can cope with other common life reading behaviours such as skimming or search reading (Weir & Khalifa, 2008a; Weir et al., 2008a).

Careful reading refers to different operations where the reader attempts to extract complete meanings within or beyond sentences right up to the level of the entire text so as to construct the text macrostructure (Weir & Khalifa, 2008a; Khalifa & Weir, 2009). Careful reading is a construct that is operationalized through the identification of lexis, the understanding of syntax, the seeking of an accurate comprehension of explicit meaning and the making of inferences (Weir & Khalifa, 2008a; Khalifa & Weir, 2009). These tasks may take place at a local level (understanding lexis, identifying grammar) or at global level (seeking an accurate comprehension of explicit meaning and making inferences). Careful reading at the local level involves processing a text until the basic meaning of a proposition is established whereas careful reading at the global level involves processing the text until its macro-structure is built.

Expeditious reading involves a quick, selective and efficient reading to access needed text information (Weir & Khalifa, 2008a; Urquhart & Weir, 1998). In expeditious reading, the linearity of text is not necessarily followed as the reader attempts to sample the text in order to extract pieces of information necessary to answer specific test items (Urquhart & Weir, 1998).

Expeditious reading is a construct that encompasses a range of reading types (Urquhart & Weir, 1998), micro-skills (Munby, 1978), skills (Levine et al. 2000), abilities (Enright et al., 2000; Cohen & Upton, 2007) or strategies (Purpura, 1998). These overlapping concepts demonstrate some confusion in existing literature to distinguish between skills and strategies, and some researchers use them as interchangeable concepts (for example Grabe, 1999). However, the simplest distinction between skill and strategy may be that skills are text-driven, largely subconscious linguistic processes involved in reading (Weir et al. 2000) while strategies are purposeful and conscious responses to local

problems in a text (Mebarki, 2012), that is, some ways readers employ to get round difficulties encountered while reading (Urquhart & Weir, 1998).

Expeditious reading can be conducted at global level (search reading and skimming) or at local level (scanning). In search reading, the reader processes the text in order to locate only text information necessary for answering specific test questions (Urquhart & Weir, 1998); a process that resembles to sampling the text to extract needed pieces of information. On the other hand, in skimming, the reader processes the text in order to obtain the gist; trying to avoid details through a thorough selection of as few text details as possible (Weir & Khalifa, 2008a; Levine et al. 2000; Weir 2005). In scanning, the reader processes the text selectively in order to achieve specific goals; attempting to dismiss any part of the text that does not contain useful information for answering a specific test item (Weir and Khalifa, 2008a).

Reading construct and reading context as core elements in validating reading tests

In validating reading tests, the reading construct cannot be examined outside the appropriate context of reading activity; a hypothesis that suggests an interaction between test construct and test context (Weir, 2005). In keeping with this hypothesis, examinees' capacity to deploy appropriate strategies to read the text and complete the test tasks also depends on the extent to which the test tasks are appropriate to examinees' characteristics (their skills, motivation for reading, experience with the test tasks, attitude towards the test), the conditions under which reading instruction takes place (classroom size, reading resources, quality and content of the curriculum), as well as the conditions under which testing occurs.

Since the DR Congo is a French speaking country and English is learnt as a foreign language, its use is principally limited to classroom context; suggesting students' limited exposure to English. An investigation of the DR Congo English state examination context by Katalayi (2011) reveals the following: (1) students' reading at school is very restricted as the time allocated for learning English is one to five hours per week depending on the subject areas; (2) reading at home is almost inexistent due to lack of reading materials; where these exist, their contents are sometimes irrelevant to students' needs; (3) many students are not motivated in the English course as they do not regularly attend English classes. This may be a result of their perception of English as a difficult subject; (4) some students have a negative attitude towards the ESE as they sometimes believe that this test is a way of failing them on the national test; (5) although those who teach English are generally formally qualified to teach it, there are no in-service trainings as well as continuous trainings to update them with new developments in teaching; (6) although the multiple-choice method is used with the English state examination, the majority of teachers use the open questions as classroom assessment method on the ground that the multiple-choice method is difficult to construct.

In this article, we intended to determine the construct validity of the ESE through an investigation of task complexity of the four reading types. In order to achieve this objective, the main aims were:

- Determine task complexity of different reading types;
- Evaluate the extent to which the ESE tasks are appropriate to the examinees.

II. BACKGROUND

In adopting Weir and Khalifa's model of reading comprehension, test questions may be generally classified on the basis of whether the examinee has to read the text carefully or expeditiously at global or local level in order to answer individual test questions (Weir & Khalifa, 2008b; Weir, Hawkey, Green & Devi, 2008; Weir, Hawkey, Green, Unaldi & Devi, 2008; and Sarojani & Krishnan, 2011). This is to suggest that, theoretically, in answering reading questions, the examinee attempts to identify the type of questions and the relevant information source (van Steensel, Oostdam & van Gelderen, 2012; Cerdan et al., 2009; Rouet et al., 2001).

Research shows differences in the use of strategies between test items that require examinees to read at global level and those that require them to read at local level. Rouet et al. (2001) reported that 'low-level questions' required examinees to read the text at local level by focusing on text micro-propositions and quickly searching for text information through a browsing of some parts of the text. On the contrary, 'high-level questions' required examinees to read the text at global level by focusing on text macro-propositions and by attempting to generate more connections between their knowledge and text information.

Researchers have generally tended to classify local test items as those that are 'easy' as such items involve retrieving specific pieces of information located in specific parts of the text (van Steensel, Oostdam & van Gelderen, 2012; OECD, 2003; Song, 2008; Rouet et al., 2001). Such text information is generally a verbatim, or requires minor change as the case of a test item that requests examinees to find the synonym or antonym (OECD, 2003; Cerdan et al., 2009). On the other hand, researchers have generally tended to classify global test items as 'difficult' items as such items involve text global comprehension as the case of test items that require the examinees to find a title that best suits the text (OECD, 2003; Song, 2008) or to make inferences on the basis of information not explicitly stated in the text (van Steensel, Oostdam & van Gelderen, 2012; Weir & Khalifa, 2008b; Weir, Hawkey, Green & Devi, 2008; Weir, Hawkey, Green, Unaldi & Devi, 2008; and Sarojani & Krishnan, 2011). In many cases, most of these researchers distinguish test questions that are half-way between these two categories. These questions are 'moderate' questions and they tap to examinees' comprehension of both underlying relationships between local level text information and global level text information (van Steensel, Oostdam & van Gelderen, 2012; Weir & Khalifa, 2008b).

Validation studies that used Weir and Khalifa's (2008a) framework generally sought to determine whether the test mainly includes tasks that require the examinees to read the text carefully or expeditiously. In a study aimed to determine the variety and complexity of the reading types required by the test tasks in the IELTS, Weir et al. (2008a) found that 77 % of strategies used by participants to complete test tasks tapped to careful reading while only 23 % of strategies tapped to expeditious reading. The finding suggests that the IELTS Reading Module test may need possible modification to more closely represent the academic reading construct of university students through texts and tasks that test more extensively students' expeditious reading skills. This finding was replicated in a study by Weir et al. (2008b) when they found that the major focus of the IELTS test papers appeared to be on careful reading although most participants used expeditious reading skills and strategies in answering test questions; a finding that suggests that expeditious reading may be a general reading strategy as some participants may decide to read the text quickly and selectively before approaching the test questions. This preponderance of careful reading strategies over expeditious reading strategies was also reported by Sarojani and Krishnan (2011)'s replicative study on IELTS when he found that the majority of IELTS test items tested careful reading although the majority of participants perceived expeditious reading skills as more relevant and appropriate to their academic reading activity.

The preponderance of careful reading tasks over expeditious reading tasks is generally featured through the scarcity of items that target skimming and search reading skills. Weir et al. (2000) who studied samples of EAP reading tests such as IELTS found that skimming rarely featured in items in this test, and when it did, it was realized in only a single item asking "what is the main idea of the passage?". A similar finding was reported by Weir and Khalifa (2008b) for Main Suite when they found that this test did not include enough tasks that would have reflected examinees' capacity to skim the text.

Since expeditious reading involves quick and selective reading, it may not be easy to discriminate skills that are involved while reading the text selectively to extract specific pieces of information. In their investigation on the relationship between the academic reading construct as measured by IELTS and the reading experiences of students in their first year of study at university, Weir et al. (2008a) reported that the three expeditious reading strategies of skimming, search reading and scanning involved some overlapping processes and actions; suggesting a confusion some researchers might have in labeling these three strategies. Nonetheless, if skimming takes place at global level only, and scanning takes place at local level only, search reading may take place at both global and local levels.

Since scanning involves reading selectively at local word level to achieve very specific reading goals, research generally associates items that require examinees to scan the text to easiest types of reading items (Weir & Khalifa, 2008b).

III. METHOD

A process-oriented approach to examining the reading construct needs a method that enables to comment on the actual reading process itself. Hence, protocol analysis can provide light for understanding the processes examinees engage to comprehend the text and complete test tasks. This method has become popular as a methodology to uncover psychological processes that a person goes through while performing a task (Faerch & Kasper, 1987; Ericsson & Simon, 1993). It is based on the hypothesis that since people have "privileged access to their experiences" (Ericsson & Simon, 1993: xii), and that the information in their verbal reports is trustworthy (Park, 2009), it is possible to verbalize their thoughts in a way that does not alter the sequence of thought that mediate the completion of the task (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). Protocol analysis methodology has gained a strong ground in validating reading tests (cf. Rupp, Ferne, & Choi, 2006; Sasaki, 2000; Yamashita, 2003; Nevo, 1989; Weir & Khalifa, 2008b; for example).

Many validation studies of the reading construct (Weir 2005; Hirano, 2008; Cohen & Upton, 2007; for instance) highlight the importance of establishing as clearly as possible what examinees are actually doing while completing test tasks on the ground that what a task actually tests is what is central to validity. Therefore, an investigation of examinees' strategies can provide understanding as to how they interact with the text and how their selection of strategies influences their comprehension of the text and their performance on the test.

In conducting protocol analysis, the underlying assumption is that the way examinees search for text information, evaluate item alternatives, and choose the best option can be registered through their verbalizations and later analyzed to discover their decision processes and patterns (Kuusela & Paul, 2000). This is why the data were collected during the task completion process in order to ensure close connection between thinking and verbal reports (Simon, 1993; Ericsson & Simon, 1993).

A. *Sample, Instrument and Materials*

The participants in the present study were 496 Grade 12 secondary school students who were in the last grade of secondary school and who were preparing for the national test in order to get a national certificate.

A concurrent strategies questionnaire adapted from Weir and Khalifa's (2008a) questionnaire was used to elicit information on participants' use of strategies during test writing. In this questionnaire, participants were instructed to select from a list of strategies (cf. Appendix), individual strategies they have used to answer each test question immediately after they had answered that individual test question.

The test material consisted of 50 multiple-choice reading test items taken from the 2011 edition test. This test was administered to the 496 participants under normal testing conditions.

B. Procedure

Participants were told that the test was accompanied with a questionnaire that was to be completed while taking the test. Participants were instructed fill out the questionnaire each time immediately after answering an individual test question. They were reminded that they had to carefully go through the list of suggested strategies in the questionnaire and check all strategies they remembered they actually used to find the answer to each individual question.

C. Analysis

The task complexity of the four reading types was determined through an examination of strategies used by participants to answer individual test questions (see Appendix for strategies coding). This was triangulated with an investigation of item difficulty of different test questions included in each reading types.

In order to examine the strategies used by participants, the frequency of strategies was computed and Cohen and Upton's (2007) label was used. Strategies used by more than 75 % of participants in answering an individual test question were labeled 'high' (H) frequency; those used by 50 to 74 % of participants were labeled 'moderate' (M) frequency, whereas those used by less than 50 % of participants were labeled 'low' (F) frequency.

The item difficulty of individual test items is a straightforward statistics that consists in taking the number of candidates who got an item right and divide this number by the total number of candidates who answered that item. From the results of item difficulty per item, the mean item difficulty was computed for different reading skills included in each of the four reading types. In order to show any significance variance that might occur between item difficulty indexes of different items included in the same category, the *standard deviation* was computed. This is a statistics that aims to reflect the dispersion (variance) observed among item difficulty index of items grouped in the same category. Values closer to 1 suggest that the item is easy; values closer to .0 suggest that the item is difficult whereas values that cluster around .5 suggest that the item is of moderate difficulty.

IV. RESULTS

A. Task Complexity of Careful Reading at Global Level Test Questions

The information presented in Table 1 suggests that in order to answer test questions that required participants to carefully read the text at global level, the main strategy used by participants was 'read the whole text carefully' (S1). In some instances, participants reread the text rapidly (S2) in order to build its gist. If the question requested them to establish text or paragraph global comprehension, they read a specific paragraph of the text carefully (S3) and rapidly (S4) in order to build the gist of that paragraph. The mean item difficulty of .4 substantiates that these questions were difficult for participants.

On the other hand, if the test question required their skill to establish accurate comprehension of explicitly stated main ideas and supporting details across sentences, participants mainly read the target paragraph carefully (S3) with the aim to comprehend all supporting paragraph details as elaborated across different sentences. For some participants, they first read the whole text rapidly (S2) in order to construct its representation before focusing on the target paragraph and read it carefully (S3). The mean item difficulty index of .3 suggests that the three test items that required participants to establish accurate comprehension of explicitly stated main ideas and details across sentences were difficult.

In order to answer textually implicit questions that require their skills to combine various pieces of information across the different sentences in the text and make inferences on the basis of these pieces of information, participants combined careful reading (S1) and expeditious reading (S2) of the whole text; and for some test items whose pieces of information were to be found across sentences within a single specific paragraph, participants carefully read that specific paragraph (S3). Besides this careful and expeditious reading of the whole text or a specific portion of the text, some participants had to draw some conclusions based on what the text/paragraph implied (S7). The mean item difficulty index of .5 suggests that the inferencing questions were of moderate degree.

TABLE 1:
ITEM DIFFICULTY AND FREQUENCY OF READING AND TEST TAKING STRATEGIES FOR THE FOUR READING TYPES

ITEM DIFFICULTY AND FREQUENCY OF READING AND TEST TAKING STRATEGIES FOR THE FOUR READING TYPES															
Reading types and reading skills	N item	ID	Reading strategies								Test taking strategies				
			S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12	S13
Careful reading at global level															
Establishing text/paragraph global comprehension	6	.4	H	M	H	M	-	-	-	-	M	L	-	M	L
Establishing accurate comprehension of explicitly stated main ideas and supporting details across sentences	3	.3	M	M	H	L	-	-	L	-	H	L	-	L	L
Making text/paragraph inferences	7	.5	M	M	L	L			L		L	L		L	
Careful reading at local level															
understanding lexis	9	.5	L				L	H		L	M	L		M	L
Understanding syntax	7	.6		L	L		H	L		L	L	H	M	M	
Expeditious reading at global level															
Skimming the text/paragraph to locate needed information	5	.7	L	H	L	L			L			H		L	
Search reading to quickly locate explicit pieces of information scattered through the whole text/paragraph	7	.4	L	H	L		L				L	L		M	L
Expeditious reading at local level															
Scanning to locate explicit information located in a specific part of the sentence/paragraph	6	.6			L		L	L		M			L	M	

B. Task Complexity of Careful Reading at Local Level Test Questions

The information presented in Table 1 suggests that in order to answer test questions that required participants to carefully read the text at local level, two main strategies were used: either participants used their knowledge of grammar (S5) for items requiring their understanding of grammar or they used their knowledge of vocabulary (S6) for items requesting their understanding of vocabulary. For some participants, they had first to carefully and/or quickly read the whole text before making their choice (S1, S2). This reading of the whole text may aim to enable them grasp the text context that might provide context clues to figure out the word meanings or the context of use of grammar structures. Since grammar structures or vocabulary words were situated within single sentences, participants had first to look for parts of the text that the writer had recommended (S8). Data signal that for some vocabulary items, participants had also to resort to their knowledge of grammar (S5) and that for some grammar items, they had also to resort to their knowledge of vocabulary. The mean item difficulty for the nine test questions that targeted examinees' understanding of lexis (.5) and the seven test questions that targeted examinees' understanding of grammar (.6) suggests that these types of questions were of moderate difficulty.

TABLE 2:
COMPARING TEST FOCUS AND TASK DIFFICULTY BETWEEN CAREFUL READING AND EXPEDITIOUS READING

Careful reading versus expeditious reading: Item frequency and mean item difficulty		Item frequency		Mean item difficulty	SD
		N=50	%		
1	Careful reading	32	64	.5	0.18
2	Expeditious reading	18	36	.6	0.16

TABLE 3:
COMPARING TEST FOCUS AND TASK DIFFICULTY BETWEEN READING AT GLOBAL LEVEL AND READING AT LOCAL LEVEL

Reading at global level versus reading at local level: Item frequency and mean item difficulty		Item frequency		Mean item difficulty	SD
		N=50	%		
1	Reading at global level	28	56	.5	0.15
2	Reading at local level	22	44	.6	0.19

C. Task Complexity of Expeditious Reading at Global Level Test Questions

The information offered in Table 1 signals that, in order to answer test questions that required examinees' skill to skim the text/paragraph to locate needed information, the most frequently used strategy was 'read the whole passage rapidly (S2)' in order to quickly locate needed information. If the needed information was located in a specific paragraph, examinees could also read that specific paragraph rapidly (S4) and sometimes also carefully (S3). Since all these test questions presented a stem with information not explicitly stated in the text (for example "In which part of the text can we find the idea that 'one person can decide on the place where to construct a city?'" some examinees had to draw conclusion on the basis of what the text/paragraph implied (S7). The mean item difficulty (.7) suggests that this type of items was easy.

On the other hand, in order to answer test items that required examinees to quickly read the text in order to locate explicit pieces of information scattered through the whole text/paragraph, participants most frequently had to rapidly read the entire text (S2) in order to locate any piece of necessary information to the completion of the item task. Since the pieces of information necessary to answer these test questions were scattered in different parts of the text, expeditious reading of the entire text was not sufficient in itself. Some examinees supplemented it with a careful reading of a portion of the text (S3) generally conducted after expeditious reading of the whole text. This type of reading aimed to search any useful information located in a specific paragraph and that could contribute to answering the question. Some examinees conducted careful reading of the whole text (S1). Since examinees could not predict the location of information necessary for answering this type of items, and since they could not anticipate the form the needed information could take, some participants found it important to augment their text understanding by using their knowledge of grammar (S5), a strategy that could aid them to parse sentences and construct an appropriate comprehension of specific piece of information located in a specific part of the text. Since test items that target this skill require examinees' ability to locate scattered pieces of text information by reading both expeditiously and carefully at global level, such test questions may appear to be difficult for non-skilled readers. This result is confirmed by the low mean item difficulty index (.4) that suggests the seven test items were generally difficult.

D. Task Complexity for Expeditious Reading at Local Level Test Items

The information contained in Table 1 confirms that in order to answer these items, three main strategies were used by participants: search for the part of the text recommended (S8) [for example: "*The contrary of 'hardly' underlined in the last paragraph is:*"]; then carefully read that text portion (S3) in order to either use clues provided by the context to understand the word, or parse the sentence in order to understand the actual use of the grammar structure. In some cases, participants had to resort to their knowledge of grammar (S5) as well as their knowledge of vocabulary (S6) to aid comprehension. Besides, in order to answer these test questions, participants mainly selected the answer through elimination of all implausible options (S12), or they produced the answer immediately after reading the question, and they could look at the five options only to confirm the answer (S11). The use of these strategies suggests that this type of test items may be relatively easy for examinees. This result is not supported by the mean item difficulty (.5) that indicates that the six test items included in this category were of moderate difficulty.

V. DISCUSSION

The statistics presented in Table 2 suggest that ESE test constructors put more focus on careful reading (64% of test items) than on expeditious reading (36% of test items). Strategies use indicates that careful reading items appear to require a frequent combination of strategies for reading carefully and expeditiously at both global and local level; while expeditious reading items appear to require less frequent combination of strategies for reading carefully and expeditiously at both global and local level. This finding suggests that tasks that target careful reading may appear more complex for examinees than those that target expeditious reading. This result is supported in mean item difficulty index (.5 and .6 for careful reading and expeditious reading respectively). However, since the DR Context supports that reading is conducted almost exclusively in classroom with little or almost no reading supports, ESE tasks appear to be inappropriate as there is preponderance of tasks that target careful reading over those that target expeditious reading. The ESE may need some modifications to more closely reflect the actual context of students by including tasks that test both careful reading and expeditious reading in a fairly balanced proportion.

The information in Table 3 suggests that the majority of test items target reading at global level (56% of test items) than reading at local level (44 % of test items). Yet, test tasks that target global level appear to be more difficult (ID=.5) than those that targeted local level (ID=.6). This finding is in accordance with findings reported by Rouet et al. (2001), van Steensel, Oostdam & van Gelderen (2012) and Song (2008). The preponderance of test tasks that target global level over those that target local level does not reflect the context of the DR Congo English state examination characterized by a paucity of reading resources, low students' motivation in English, some negative attitude towards the ESE, etc. Therefore, the test needs some revision to include more 'low-level questions' as these questions mainly require examinees to read the text at local level by focusing on text micro-propositions rather than 'high-level questions' as these mainly require examinees to read the text at global level by focusing on text macro-structure and by attempting to generate more connections between their knowledge and text information.

In many cases, careful reading was found to be used in conjunction with expeditious reading; especially with questions that target careful reading of a portion of the text as examinees had to first read the whole text (either carefully or expeditiously, or both) in order to integrate the paragraph macrostructure into the overall text gist. This combination of careful reading and expeditious reading suggests that reading activity may not be necessarily linear and these two types of reading may involve some overlapping processes and actions.

Finally, the results also suggest that reading at global level may be seen as a general strategy used for answering even some test items that target information at sentence level. Therefore, global reading might aid struggling readers to build text gist necessary to understand local pieces of information.

VI. CONCLUSION

Validity is about the meanings and appropriateness of test scores (Messick, 1989). In order to construct a valid multiple-choice reading test, the test constructor must ensure that the test includes tasks that are appropriate to examinees' characteristics in such a way that they can deploy strategies that reflect the fact that they have been actually actively working to understand the text, to understand the expectations of the questions, to understand the meaning and implications of the different item options in light of the text, and to select and discard options based on the way they understand the text. When test tasks are beyond examinees' reading level, inferences and decisions taken on the basis of test scores may not be relevant as they may not provide a clear indication of examinees' reading skills.

APPENDIX: STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions:

- You will have 2 hours to do the test and fill out the questionnaire.
- Read the text and provide answers to questions based on the text.
- After answering each test question, please fill out the questionnaire for that question. To fill out the questionnaire, you will have to identify and list in order ALL the strategies you remembered you have used to answer that individual question. The list of strategies and their code are present in the table below.
- For example, if to question 1 you first read the text carefully, and then reread it rapidly and finally look at the question options and produce your own answer after reading the question, you must write: S1; S4; S11.

Code	Strategy
S1	read the whole text carefully
S2	read the whole text rapidly
S3	read a portion of the text carefully
S4	read a portion of the text rapidly
S5	use my knowledge of grammar
S6	use my knowledge of vocabulary
S7	draw conclusion based on what the text implies
S8	search for part of the text recommended
S9	consider the options and postpone consideration of the 'correct' option
S10	consider the options and focus on a familiar option
S11	produce my own answer after reading the question, then look at the options
S12	select option through elimination of other options
S13	select option through guessing

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A Field-independent View of Field-independence*

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Abstract—This article is an attempt to understand a particular aspect of the Ehrman and Leaver (henceforth E&L) scale of cognitive learner styles. It describes the scale and observes that of its first two variables the second one was added at a later point to remedy, as it seems, an ambiguity in the first variable but that addition duplicated a logical flaw now tainting both variables: having contradictory terms as poles. As a result, these two variables cannot function as the scoring continuums they are meant to be. All that could have been avoided had E&L taken advantage of an old insight by Ramirez and Castaneda, who suggested juxtaposing field sensitivity (rather than field dependence) with field independence. Replacing the first two variables with one a la Ramirez and Castaneda may have been precisely what the E&L Scale needed to retain its consistency and effectiveness as a scoring tool. E&L were aware of that option but apparently chose not to use it in a variable. That, however, rendered their logically shaky scale theoretically excessive with no added pedagogical benefits.

Index Terms—variable, cognitive style, learning style, preference, pole, opposite, contradictory, synoptic, ectenic, field independence, field sensitivity, Ehrman, Leaver, Ramirez and Castaneda

I. INTRODUCTION

Field-independence is a characteristic of a learning style whereby the learner tends to show a preference for de-contextualizing an item; that is, for separating it from its field in order to re-contextualize it with a new interest-motivated focus.¹ Examples of a field are a discipline of knowledge, a theoretical framework, a system of rules, a practical activity, a textual environment, a social milieu, a language, a tourist area, etc.² Field-sensitivity, on the other hand, is a learner's tendency to stick to the given context, surrender to its field, as it were, and perhaps indiscriminately interact with its components. Field-independence and field-sensitivity are respectively the synoptic poles of the 1st and 2nd variables on the Ehrman and Leaver (henceforth E&L) scale of cognitive learner preferences.³

As opposite poles to field independence and field sensitivity, field dependence and field insensitivity lack the clarity of their opposite poles: they are not equally well defined in terms of preferential content. The ambiguity surrounding their use will be a focus of this paper.

Field-independence and field-sensitivity are pillars of learning and information processing. They are also pillars of field (Read: text, activity, design, etc) interpretation and review since interpretation is a mode of field-processing. While representing a field-independent critique, this paper has no intention of becoming insensitive to the field. After all, field-independence as an intellectual approach or a method of scrutiny is certainly not field-alienation; it can and should remain loyal to the field without compromising its own intellectual honesty.

II. COGNITIVE LEARNER PREFERENCES

Going back to the above-mentioned cognitive learner preferences, they are different ways in which learners spontaneously tend to process new information. They have been given various names and described in different ways. They have been called preferences, tendencies, needs and comfort zones. They have been likened to the spontaneous tendencies to cross one's arms or legs in a certain order and to use one's right or left hand in writing, to one's preferred or 'dominant' hand', that is. For example, if a person prefers to learn *sequentially*, "it will come relatively automatically to follow a textbook outline, whereas learning "randomly" with no set agenda from outside will be slow, awkward, very tiring until we get practiced at it, and the product will probably not be as mature." (Anonymous 2011, p. 1-2)⁴ On the other hand, the preferences of the *random* or *non-linear* learner are reversed.

* The full title is: A Field-independent View of Field-independence as a Variable on the Ehrman & Leaver Scale of Cognitive Styles

¹ "Item" or "figure" is used for what receives focus, while "field" is used for context and background.

² Examples of separated items are given on p. 5 of this paper

³ Please see the scale on p. 3

⁴ This is an unpublished manuscript put out for DLIFLC (Defense Language Institute-Foreign Language Center) internal use as part of a training program for Diagnostic Assessment Specialist trainees under the oversight of DLI Associate Provost Dr Betty Lou Leaver. This writing is available at the Faculty Development Division, Directorate of Language Science and Technology, DLIFLC, DoD Center, Monterey Bay, 400 Gigling Road, Seaside, CA 93955.

While ‘sensory preference’ refers to a learner’s preferred input medium (visual, auditory, tactile, etc), a cognitive preference is a learner’s spontaneous tendency to process, assemble or reconfigure the input material itself in one way or another, which normally facilitates comprehension and retention. Furthermore, just as the sensory medium preferences of a learner may combine to form her sensory style, various cognitive preferences may in turn join forces to describe a learner’s cognitive style.⁵ In the end, the pedagogical interest in the study of such preferences is a practical one; all learner preferences and learning styles as gleaned from various kinds of related questionnaires are utilized for laying out an individually matching learning strategy for the learner in question.⁶

III. THE E&L SCALE

E&L present traditionally known cognitive learner preferences as opposite poles of subscales or scale variables. To that end they compile a questionnaire, set up a computation spreadsheet and provide a score-distribution table.

Ten pairs of opposite processing styles are presented under two so-called synoptic and ectenic poles (to be explained in Part IV below) comprising “a super-ordinate construct.” (Ehrman & Leaver, 2003, p. 395)⁷ A learner’s cognitive preference can be at one pole or its opposite—or else between them. So to stay with the above example, a learner may be *sequential* or *random* or one way more than the other at various points.

Self-reported learner preferences are compiled in an “E&L Questionnaire” and computed on a spreadsheet to determine a learner’s cognitive style preferences (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, P. 405); as a result, the learner is positioned at a point between the two poles as on Table 1 below. The learner’s computed score will also hinge on factors associated with the nature of the particular task and skill being looked at and such factors as the upbringing, temperament and particular situation of the learner in question. Such factors may affect the number of points scored by the same learner on the same variable at different times.

The “E&L Learning Styles Questionnaire”⁸ juxtaposes its pairs of opposite learning preferences on a line graded from 1 to 9 in each direction to mark the frequency or intensity of respondent preferences. (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, P. 395) The questionnaire includes thirty pairs of such preferences/opposites; three pairs for each of the ten variables. The computed score will then favor one of the two opposites unless it happens to be placed in the middle of the line. The ten pairs of opposites are listed on Table 1 as follows: field independent vs. field dependence, field sensitive vs. field insensitive, random (non-linear) vs. sequential (linear), global vs. particular, inductive vs. deductive, synthetic vs. analytic, analogue vs. digital, concrete vs. abstract, leveling vs. sharpening, and impulsive vs. reflective.

IV. THE MAIN CONSTRUCT SYNOPTIC VS ECTENIC

The *synoptic* vs. *ectenic* construct is the principal pair of opposite poles under which the ten subscales are subsumed. Synoptic means uniting or bringing together while ectenic was expressly coined from Greek to mean the opposite of Synoptic: dividing and taking apart. (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 395)⁹ These two cognitive movements basically reflect ‘conjunction’ and ‘disjunction’ as main functions of consciousness, if I may add. They constitute two main ways of processing learning materials and are exemplified for E&L in the ten variables of their scale. Different learners may favor different processing styles. Favored processing styles are likely to support better understanding and more lasting retention.

TABLE 1
THE E&L SCALE OF LEARNING STYLES (EHRMAN & LEAVER 2003, P. 406)

Synoptic										Ectenic
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
1. Field Independent										Field Dependent
2. Field Sensitive										Field Insensitive
3. Leveling										Sharpening
4. Global										Particular
5. Impulsive										Reflective
6. Synthetic										Analytic
7. Analogue										Digital
8. Concrete										Abstract
9. Random										Sequential
10. Inductive										Deductive
	5	4	3	2	1	2	3	4	5	

The above table shows the E&L learning preferences subsumed under the synoptic-ectenic construct. Notwithstanding systematic attractiveness, this taxonomy is arguably problematic—at least regarding certain variables.

⁵ People generally prefer doing what they tend to be good at; hence, spontaneous preferences may come with related abilities.

⁶ One of the questionnaires is the E&L Questionnaire; it uses self-reported learner information matched with interview-recorded information; together, that normally indicates actual abilities or actual foreign language skill level.

⁷ In this paper, this will be a reference to (Ehrman, M & Leaver, B. L. 2003) on the references list.

⁸ Ehrman and Leaver (2002)

⁹ E&L use synoptic for information grouping and ectenic for information stretching.

More about that later; for now, the left-hand pole of any sub-scale is considered synoptic and the pole on the right-hand side is considered ectenic. Each of the poles/preferences is combinable with others including those on the opposite side—depending on the task, skill, problem, situation, etc. To be noted here is that the field-independent vs. field-dependent variable was adopted from Ehrman's (earlier) model of 1996; however, the field sensitivity vs. field insensitivity variable was added later by both authors. (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 397)

V. OPPOSITES VS CONTRADICTORIES

To understand certain aspects of the E&L Scale, we do well to distinguish the above described opposites from 'contradictories'. By opposites or here opposite poles I mean terms that cannot generally apply to a learning preference at the same time because they tend to exclude each other. They may apply at different times but more importantly they do not have to apply at all. For instance, being synoptic and being ectenic are opposites in the portrayed sense. A learning preference may be synoptic or ectenic but hardly both; more importantly, however, it can be neither synoptic nor ectenic. Let's say it might in that case be intuitive, repetitive or simply interesting or boring.

On the other hand, contradictories or contradictory poles are total negations of one another. For instance, any learning preference is either synoptic or not synoptic but not both; yet it *must* (of logical necessity) be either synoptic or not synoptic. In other words, it cannot be 'neither synoptic nor not synoptic'. The same applies to being ectenic and not ectenic. Hence, it would make no sense to speak of a pole or a preference as being both sequential and not sequential. By the same token, it would make no sense to speak of a preference that is neither sequential nor not sequential.

Notwithstanding their above-stated opposition to one another, opposite preferences are not total negations of each other. They both have positive content such as synoptic and ectenic, concrete and abstract, global and partial, etc. Hence, notwithstanding their mutually exclusive contents, they can combine into a learning style especially with learners who can adapt to changing tasks, skills, situations, etc. Accordingly, a learning style may be a little of this opposite and a little of that and meaningfully combine opposite poles in the same task or skill depending on task complexity and learner versatility.

The E&L Scale has eight variables incorporating such "opposite" poles. Unfortunately, it also has two variables that have contradictory poles or contradictories for poles. The first two variables on the E&L Scale as listed in Table 1 above, namely field independence vs. field dependence and field sensitivity vs. field insensitivity, have contradictory—not simply opposite—poles.¹⁰ And the names of the poles in both variables say it all: dependent vs. independent (not dependent) and sensitive vs. insensitive (not sensitive). Hence, the first two variables on the E&L Scale have poles that negate one another; in consequence, they cannot be meaningfully combined in any learner's preference. No combination of them can ever produce a preferential style. They may at best indicate erratic behavior but not a learning preference or style. It is not clear to what extent E&L were mindful of the relevance of this logical point to their scale. In this article, I plan to focus on the first two variables, develop the above points and further show their relevance and implications for the E&L scale.¹¹ Notwithstanding the practical interest of the E&L Scale, consistency and conceptual clarity remain a requirement.

VI. VARIABLE 1 FIELD INDEPENDENCE VS FIELD DEPENDENCE

According to Ehrman and Leaver, field independence "addresses the degree to which an individual focuses on some aspect of experience and separates it from its background." (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 396) A field independent learner "can look at the forest and pick out exactly the kind of tree in which she or he is interested." (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 396) He or she may spontaneously show an exclusive interest in or a preference for a part of the learning field; or may, for example, get focused on a grammatical rule or domain, on collocations or idiomatic phrases, etc. She may also focus on one paragraph, one sentence, one word, a single point or idea, etc. She will perhaps be more prone to deal with, understand and retain the said item. She may give it a meaning or an application that may be irrelevant or only indirectly relevant to its context or perhaps to the intention of its author.

Field independent individuals are likely to be productive and perhaps creative; they learn by asking questions that may lead them to de-contextualize or chunk off an item of interest from its textual environment. They tend to process their selected learning item with analytical accuracy and thoroughness. They may pick their item *impulsively* but treat it *reflectively*. They may select their item *randomly* yet re-*sequentialize* it or subject it to their own priorities and patterns of treatment. They may re-contextualize an item and eventually provide it with a fully new context that caters to their particular interests, abilities or skills. Field independent learners further tend to appropriate a learning item and see it the way it specifically looks to them. Any review they undertake may easily turn into an act of revising. A field independent learner once described himself as often tending to ask while facing a new learning task: How can I understand this item? How can I change it so it will make (more) sense to me? What can I further do with it?

About field dependence, on the other hand, E&L state that it is used in the literature in two ways: "absence of the kind of discrimination referred to as field independence and awareness of the entire field." (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p.

¹⁰ Given that the field is identically the same for both poles in each variable.

¹¹ For a description of the other eight variables, see their overviews in Ehrman & Leaver (2003) and Anonymous (2011).

397) E&L seem to have endorsed both uses as indicated by their afore-mentioned addition of the second variable to the E&L Scale. Mainly the second use, however, prompted E&L to see a positive content in field dependence. Referring to it they write, “learners need ... to be aware of background activity.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 397)

Given the afore-mentioned “absence” character of field dependence (absence of field independence), a field-dependent learner is not normally expected to exhibit selective learning tendencies; hence, it is not clear what learning preferences her awareness is likely to generate. E&L state, “Since field dependence is always measured by tests of field independence; it can safely be defined only as absence of field independence.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 397)

Here we ask: Would a field-dependent language learner, for example, simply roam or wander around in the language without focus? Would she be a rote learner? Would she ask no questions regarding structure or show no interest in nuances of meaning? Would he simply parrot the content of the learning field? Or would he rather absorb the field as a whole and spontaneously register all its particulars? Are we at this point still talking preferences? Are we now talking abilities? So what does “awareness of the entire field” precisely mean here?

Actually, field dependence can be any or none of the above; as the negation of field independence, it can have so many contents as would void it of any definite or well defined meaning. In consequence, the field independence vs. field dependence variable juxtaposes definite content with an indefinite one. Such poles are not combinable; and if combined, as already indicated and will later hopefully become clearer, they will hardly be usable for measuring learner preferences.

VII. VARIABLE 2 FIELD-SENSITIVITY VS FIELD-INSENSITIVITY

Here we are talking about learners who tend to learn simply by interaction with and responsiveness to an entire field or context as opposed to those who don't. E&L, as intimated above, treat the positive aspect seen in field dependence “as a separate style” and call it “field sensitivity.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 396) A field sensitive learner tends to pay more or less equal attention to most points of contact with the field of learning without having to de-contextualize any of them. If a field independent learner chunks off a segment from the field, a field sensitive learner may have her eyes on the field as interrelated segments. If a field independent learner projects a “spotlight” on the field, a field sensitive learner sheds a “flood light.”¹² (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 396) Such a learner learns by osmosis, we are told.¹³ Yet the only deliberate learning preference such a learner—to the extent she identifies herself as one-- will show is perhaps self-exposure to the field.

The above question regarding field dependence as the ectenic pole to synoptic field independence re-emerges here regarding field insensitivity as the ectenic pole to field sensitivity. For E&L field insensitivity is the absence of field sensitivity; they add, “like field dependence, there exists no direct measure” for it. (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 397) Yet field insensitivity is the negation, not simply the absence of field sensitivity; its intuitive value is zero field sensitivity. It is a preference of nothing or strictly not a preference. As such, and by the same token as above, field insensitivity cannot comprise a variable/continuum with field sensitivity. It would also follow that no content (selectively) attached to field-insensitivity may usurp its name as an alias, so to speak; none can legitimately claim to represent it with field-sensitivity in one variable.

VIII. CONTINUUM VS DICHOTOMY

“Continuum vs. Dichotomy” is not one of the E&L variables although it does resemble one of them (analogue vs. digital); yet it is a question that may be asked about the entire E&L Scale. So is the E&L variable a continuum or a dichotomy?

Actually it is both; but of course in different respects. The poles as conceptual opposites comprise a dichotomy. A single preference is either one or the other; it cannot be a combination of both. For instance, a *random sequential* preference is perhaps no less oxymoronic than a circular triangle. Yet the line between the two poles is a 9-notch continuum of learner preference frequency or intensity; that is, a 3 score for *random* would mean a 7 score for *sequential* on the 9-notch line between the two poles. A learner can namely combine the two poles in various ways and at various times as components of her personal style that may change with task, skill, situation of learning, etc. Hence the learner's score may change on the continuum in different iterations of responding to the E&L Questionnaire.

Nonetheless, there seems to be some ambiguity on this point-- regarding the E&L Scale as a tool for measuring preferences. On the top side of the scale (Table 1), counting starts on the left at 1 and continues to 9 on the right; this indicates a continuum since only one scoring position is used for computing the values of the two poles.¹⁴ On the bottom side, however, counting starts in the middle of the line at 1 and proceeds to 5 in each direction.¹⁵ That, however,

¹² E&L state that “a field sensitive learner makes skilled use of a floodlight to maintain awareness of the entire forest, registering the presence of all the flora, fauna, and moment-to-moment changes in the environment.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 297)

¹³ E&L state that a field sensitive learner “prefers to address material as part of context and often picks up material by “osmosis.”” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 404) Learning by osmosis is learning as absorption or as spontaneous and non-deliberate exposure to the learning material.

¹⁴ “In fact, although most learning style models are bipolar (i.e., they have two clearly established end points), they really represent continua of behavior.” (Anonymous 2011, p. 2)

¹⁵ We should point out that while the E&L Scale (Table 1 above) includes both of the afore-mentioned graduated lines, the questions on the E&L Questionnaire show only the 1-9 graduated line. Please see E&L (2002).

indicates non-continuous scoring since each pole or preference can be scored independently on its respective segment of the line. One wonders about the purpose for the bidirectional bottom line. If the line is not a continuum, why are the two poles juxtaposed on it? Why does it not have a counterpart on the E&L Questionnaire? If it is one continuum, why is it bidirectional with separate graduation for each half? Why is the top line not enough?

That an E&L variable is a continuum is evident in studies on learning styles. One researcher infers from the fact that “each pair of the dimensions of a cognitive style appeared to be in opposition” and from that “a high score on one might indicate a low score on the other,” that “scores on cognitive styles were continuous.” (Shi 2011, p. 23) Furthermore, Ehrman underscores a number of points in this regard: 1- that (on the systematic level) the synoptic and ectenic poles are dichotomous; 2- that (on the scoring level) learning style models “represent continua of behavior” and; 3- that the variety of learner placement possibilities between the poles shows that learning styles need not “put people into boxes.” (Anonymous 2011, p.2) Hence, although the word ‘continuum’ does not seem to occur in E&L’s best known expose of their scale,¹⁶ the anonymous writer referenced in this paper clearly spells out the continuum character of the variables in his/her adaptation of Chapter 4 of Ehrman, M. E. (1996). (Anonymous 2011, p. 2) This paper will proceed on the premise that all variables of the E&L Scale are scoring continuums.

IX. INCONGRUENCE IN THE E&L SCALE

Having considered some aspects of the E&L Scale, mainly its first two variables, we now move on to take a closer look at the latter’s poles:

A. *Back to the Poles of Variable 1*

As we look again at Variable 1 (field dependence vs. field independence), we see that the name given to its ectenic pole (field dependence) is not appropriate for one juxtaposed with field independence (non-field dependence) in a continuum. And it’s not simply about semantics.¹⁷ While the synoptic and ectenic poles of an E&L variable represent two opposite preferential contents that are learner-combinable in a particular learning or processing style, the field independent vs. field dependent variable suggests a contradiction between its poles, which does not allow for a meaningful combination. That is more logic than semantics. To reiterate, no combination of synoptic and not synoptic can yield a style. There can be no mixing of a preference with its negation. If field independence means non-field-dependence, any kind or measure of field independence in a preference or a preferential style rules out any kind or measure of field dependence and vice versa. Also, as indicated above, the E&L continuum computes a value for both poles between 1 and 9. A variable with contradictories as poles such as independent and dependent does not accept a score higher than zero for its ectenic pole.

The latter point needs clarification. Although field independence is the pole with the negative name (negated by the prefix ‘in-’), it is actually the positive pole. And notwithstanding the absence of a negation sign preceding field dependence, it is the negative pole. If we look at the E&L variable in terms of affirmation and negation, we are bound to say that field independence is the positive pole and field dependence is the negative one. After all, field independence is the pole with the well-defined content and field dependence, as we saw above, is the “absence” of field independence. However, that E&L went ahead and adopted whatever content they saw in field dependence as the opposite pole to field independence may suggest that they did not view field dependence as the negation of field independence. That may also explain why they speak of field dependence as absence of field independence. They state, as already quoted above, that field dependence “can safely be defined only as absence of field independence” since it is “always measured by tests of field independence.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 397)¹⁸

But can it really? The score of field dependence (as the negation of field independence) is always zero; in consequence, field dependence cannot be “measured by tests of field independence.” Moreover, if dependence is defined as the absence of field independence, then both field dependence and field independence can be thought absent at the same time and a learning style may be neither field independent nor field dependent. But it cannot. Only one of these two poles can be “absent” in any particular case and, for logical reasons, one of them *must* be present. As contradictories, field independence and field dependence cannot both be “absent” from and cannot both be “present” in any learner’s style. Any learner style is either field independent or not. Said absence is in reality negation, and field dependence is the negation, not simply the absence of field independence. Had E&L viewed “absence” as the negation it essentially is in this case, one wonders whether they would have kept the first two variables the way they stand now on their scale?

As above-indicated, notwithstanding the claimed absence-character of the ectenic pole of Variable 1 (field dependence), it had some positive content for the authors of the E&L Scale-- as it perhaps did for the researchers from whom they had borrowed the poles in question. The positive content attached to field dependence reflected such

¹⁶ Ehrman, M & Leaver, B. L. 2003.

¹⁷ To the extent it is about semantics, it is about using language responsibly.

¹⁸ So it is possible after all, according to the E&L authors, to read the value of one pole off the value of the other. That would make any such variable a continuum.

preferences as field acceptance and awareness. (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 396 -397)¹⁹ They state, “because learners need to be able to be aware of background activity as well as bring information into focus and reorganize it, there is a positive aspect to what is traditionally called “field dependence.”” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 397) Building on that, especially on Ehrman’s earlier work in this regard, Dreyer & Oxford (1996) maintain that field dependent learners tend to be global and seek the big picture; they are often socially conscious and caring and do not have the need for accuracy shown by analytical learners. They add that the name has been replaced with field sensitive to avoid pejorative attitudes towards it. (Dreyer & Oxford 1996, p. 62)

Beyond pejorative and positive, whatever relationship learners might have to the field; it can only selectively and prejudicially be called field dependence if field dependence is the negation of field-independence. Furthermore, the content accorded to field dependence by writers like Dreyer and Oxford (1996) sounds a bit unclear; it seems inferred from statistical correlations with other preferential poles such as global and synthetic, which, ironically enough, happen to be on the synoptic side of the E&L Scale. E&L themselves make reference to such correlations (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 397). In any case, and for all the above reasons, whatever content is associated with field dependence; it should not be juxtaposed with field independence as opposites in one variable.

B. Back to the Poles of Variable 2

In an attempt, as it seems, to salvage and enhance whatever content field dependence had for them, E&L, as indicated earlier, added a 10th variable to their list as a “separate style” (field sensitivity vs. field insensitivity). It turns out that the synoptic pole of the newly added variable (field sensitivity) is none other but old field dependence itself or whatever positive content it had for the E&L authors. They write: “Although many ... have used the term ‘field dependence’ for such positive responsiveness to the surrounding background, following Ehrman (1996b, (This is part of the quotation), 1997), we treat this kind of processing as a separate style, called “field sensitivity.”” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p 397)

The above-indicated incongruence in the field independence vs. field dependence variable (having two contradictories as opposite poles) now taints the newly added field sensitivity-field insensitivity variable too. Instead of dropping field dependence from Variable 1 for being the negation rather than simply an opposite of field independence, E&L left both contradictories in place and added another variable with the same logical defect. By using field insensitivity as the ectenic pole of the newly formulated variable, they rendered the latter variable no less problematic than Variable 1. In other words, by calling the new ectenic pole field insensitivity they turned the opposition between the two poles into a potentially useless contradiction; that is, into a non-continuum or a non-variable. And besides doubling the content of field dependence under two names and in opposite pole orientations (as the problematic ectenic field dependence in Variable 1 and the enhanced and polished synoptic field sensitivity in Variable 2), they failed, as it seems, to accord ectenic field insensitivity a pedagogically relevant content in terms of describing actual learner preferences.²⁰

X. THE MAIN QUESTION

Motivated by a systematic interest, as it seems, perhaps the same interest that devised *synoptic* and *ectenic* as nomenclatures for the opposite preferences on their scale, E&L went ahead and used the first two variables on the list to generate four learner types in respect of cognitive learner preferences. Having adopted Ehrman’s 1996 model of field independence vs. field dependence and field sensitivity vs. field insensitivity, they also adopted Ehrman’s model “of field independence and field sensitivity.” Accordingly, as they write, a student can be “field independent and field sensitive, one or the other, or neither.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 397)

The table below is a representation of Ehrman’s model or what we may now call E&L’s cognitive learner typology. As indicated above, it was introduced by Ehrman in 1996 and 1997 and later adopted by both authors (Ehrman & Leaver 2003)²¹

TABLE 2
EHRMAN’S MODEL OF COGNITIVE LEARNER TYPES

Type 1	<i>Field independent and field sensitive</i>	Can learn from material in and out of context
Type 2	<i>Field independent and field insensitive</i>	Comfortable with out-of-context material
Type 3	<i>Field dependent and field sensitive</i>	Comfortable with in-context material
Type 4	<i>Field dependent and field insensitive</i>	Has difficulties with both kinds of material

19 The authors of the E&L Scale list in the referenced article a number of researchers who used these nomenclatures before them (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 395 and 396).

20 They write: “Absence of field sensitivity is “field insensitivity”, for which, like field dependence, there exists no direct measure, though language teachers report encountering many such learners.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 397)

21 (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p 397)

The table represents a model of “unpacking” field dependence, as E&L put it. They write: “By ‘unpacking’ field dependence, this model makes it possible for a person of Type 1 to have skills associated with both field independence and field sensitivity.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p 397)

What they did, in effect, amounts to dropping field dependence from Variable 1 and replacing it with field sensitivity regardless of synoptic or ectenic pole orientation; then consolidating field independence and field sensitivity in a first learner type beyond scoring and measurement. That certainly had the added advantage for them of dropping the issue of absence, and perhaps vagueness, associated with measurability in field dependence. However, what was unpacked from Variable 1 was packed back into Type 3 and Type 4 again as a type-component and beyond polar measurement.

We may now ask: Why wasn’t a variable used instead with field sensitivity and field independence as its opposite poles? When E&L stated, as quoted above, that a student “can be field independent and field sensitive, one or the other, or neither,” they were basically giving us the definition of a variable’s pole as an opposite. Why was it that the additional variable or what they described as the ‘separate processing style’, which they added at a later point, didn’t simply comprise field sensitivity and field independence (rather than field sensitivity and field insensitivity)? Why is it that the first two variables on the list were not compacted into a single variable comprising field sensitivity and field independence?

True, such a shortcut would suggest that synoptic and ectenic pole designations are perhaps a matter of viewpoint given that both field sensitivity and field independence were viewed as synoptic poles. But it might also have enabled E&L to get rid of two logically and pedagogically useless ectenic poles that are still on their list of variables after all (field dependence and field insensitivity). E&L were aware of this replacement possibility but made no use of it. They themselves point out in a footnote that “the term ‘field sensitivity’ was originally used by Ramirez and Castaneda (1974) as a substitute for field dependence, which they considered derogatory, and in an attempt to suggest a positive opposite to field independence.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p 397, footnote 8)

For E&L too field sensitivity practically had the same preference content—perhaps in a more polished form—as field dependence, as we saw above. So why was Ramirez and Castaneda’s suggestion discarded or at best used as a type rather than a separate variable? Why didn’t field sensitivity replace field dependence in the first variable? The answer, as I see it, is twofold:

First, as indicated above, field sensitivity appeared to them to meet synoptic rather than ectenic criteria; this is evidenced by the fact that they placed field sensitivity in the synoptic pole when they added their 10th variable (field sensitivity vs. field insensitivity). So they didn’t feel they could use it with synoptic field independence in one variable and keep their system intact. Hence the added variable!

Secondly, by adding sensitivity vs. insensitivity as a 10th variable (Variable 2 on Table 1), E&L were able to use it in conjunction with Variable 1 (field independence vs. field dependence) for generating Table2 with its four learner types one of as an endorsement of Ramirez and Castaneda’s above-stated insight. (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 397)

XI. TABLE 1 VS TABLE 2

Indeed, Table 2 came in as a smart tool for replacing a nonetheless compelling variable a la Ramirez and Castaneda (field sensitivity vs. field independence) with a learner type that had the same components yet beyond the synoptic vs. ectenic opposition. What E&L were unable to utilize as a variable on Table 1, they were now able to use as a type on Table2; and what they were unable to utilize as the opposite pole to field independence (field sensitivity) they were now able to use as component of the newly generated Type 1-- beyond pole orientations.

There is no problem with Table 2 at this point except perhaps that it seems motivated, as suggested above, by Table 1’s assumption that field independence is the synoptic pole of Variable 1.²² There is no convincing evidence for this categorization, certainly not in the E&L descriptions of the contents of the pole. The authors seem to have come to such a conclusion as a result of statistical studies on learners that revealed a correlation in their learning styles between field independence and a preponderance of synoptic preferences. They state that before researching initial student responses, they had “assumed that field independence would cluster with particular, analytic, etc. on the ectenic pole.” What they instead found was that “it correlated clearly with the synoptic poles instead and led to a revision in the definition of “synoptic–ectenic”.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p. 395) By inference, then, field dependence was declared ectenic. Intuitively, however, nothing in the meaning of field independence or in its observed dynamics as a preference or ability entails a synoptic character. Furthermore, in view of the fact that preferences can mix in a learner’s style, the said correlation provides no evidence for a pole’s orientation.

The situation seems different with field sensitivity, which may intuitively be claimed as the synoptic pole of the added Variable 2, as the E&L authors actually do, especially when viewed as surrender or a non-discriminating responsiveness to a field as a whole.²³ Given that, however, what shall we make of E&L’s claim that field sensitivity has the same preference content as field dependence, which they considered ectenic? They write: “Although many, ...,

22 To remind, field independence could not be juxtaposed with field sensitivity in a single variable because they were both viewed as synoptic poles. On Table 2 they are juxtaposed as type-components.

23 “Field sensitivity as learning style: prefers to address material as part of context and often picks up material by “osmosis.” It relates to everything-foreground and background together and can be compared to illumination by a floodlight that shows the whole scene. Field insensitivity: makes little or no use of the whole context and often excludes “incidental” learning.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p 404)

have used the term ‘field dependence for such positive responsiveness to the surrounding background, following Ehrman (1996b, 1997), we treat this kind of processing as a separate style, called “field sensitivity”.’ (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p 397) Indeed, since “separate” is not necessarily ‘different in kind’, the “positive responsiveness” attached to field dependence could easily become the “floodlight” of field sensitivity in contradistinction to the “spotlight” of field independence. (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p 397)²⁴ But again, what shall we make of E&L’s claim that field dependence is the ectenic pole of Variable 1?

All that suggests, in effect, that labeling a pole *synoptic* or *ectenice* is a matter of viewpoint despite statistical correlations and systematic push; it goes to show that at least in Table 1’s first two variables such pole-labeling is not a reflection of the descriptive content of the poles? How else could Variable 1’s ectenic field dependence suddenly convert into or underlie Variable 2’s synoptic field sensitivity? How could synoptic field independence suddenly emerge as a “spotlight” in contradistinction to the “floodlight” of synoptic field sensitivity and remain synoptic?

As a reader, one gets the impression that E&L were not attentive to the fact that a qualitative difference separated the first two variables from the four types they generated from them-- or Table 1 from Table 2. They talk about the two tables as though they were two sides of the same coin. The muddle may have started with using opposites and contradictories on Table 1 without adequately distinguishing between them.

XII. THE MERITS AND DEMERITS OF TABLE 2

We may further ask at this point: Has any real gain been achieved through the new table? What was gained by discarding Ramirez and Castaneda’s insight or through generating the four learner types? An inspection of Table 2 will reveal that nothing of substance has been actually gained that was not already available from another source.

Perhaps the main merit of Table 2, in contradistinction to Table 1 (the E&L Scale), is that it does not show field independence and field dependence and likewise field sensitivity and field insensitivity as opposite poles of variables. More positively, it conjoins field independence and field sensitivity as Type 1. Nonetheless, that could have been secured by simply adding a variable to Table 1 that adhered to Ramirez and Castaneda’s insight and replaced the first two variables. That would have come with the added benefit of a tool for measuring a learner’s field sensitivity vs. her field independence. So why settle for a type when a variable/scoring continuum is available? After all, it is almost true by definition that a preference for one of these two poles will limit the other and being equally good at both in any iteration of the E&L Questionnaire can only mean a score of 5 on the E&L continuum.

Furthermore, the pedagogical relevance of Type 2 and Type 3 is questionable not only because they find no measurement on Table 2 but more importantly because these learner types are comfortable *either* with out-of-context *or* with in-context material (respectively field independence or field sensitivity). Although Type 2 learners may find “comfort” with focusing on out-of-context materials and Type 3 may find comfort with in-context material, no responsible teacher is likely to find comfort with such exclusive focus on the part of actual learners. Nor is she expected to—given that the main goal of the E&L Questionnaire is to help all learners to become all-rounded students.

Additionally, Type 2 and Type 3 may be declared pedagogically redundant to the extent they provide no learner preference information that would not be available through a variable including field sensitivity and field independence and replacing the current first two variables on Table 1, as already pointed out. Indeed, such an added or replacement variable could provide, directly or indirectly, all the information needed to identify and measure learner preferences regarding the poles in question. After all, field dependence as the negation of field independence represents a zero score in field independence, as we believe to have showed above. And to the extent a positive content is attached to field dependence, it should be covered by and held measureable as field sensitivity, as we also tried to show above. Something similar can be said about field insensitivity with reference to field sensitivity. Finally, it is hard to know what to think about learners of Type 4 (both field dependent and field insensitive or learners with zero score in field independence and field sensitivity). Would they lack field-related preferences? Would they lack both the preferences and the abilities normally associated with them? Would a “normal” teacher be able to help them? Would they need one with specialty skills? Are they a learner type or a patient kind? It seems hard to tell.

So, not much was gained after all by creating the new table from Variables 1 & 2. The E&L Scale discarded Ramirez and Castaneda’s insight but in substance failed to go beyond it. Creating Table 2 was made possible by disregarding Ramirez and Castaneda’s juxtaposition of field independence and field sensitivity in a *variable* yet only to readmit it as Type 1 on Table 2 itself.

XIII. CONCLUSION

If the radical difference between ‘opposites’ and ‘contradictories’ and between ‘variables’ and ‘types’ is acknowledged and the above analysis is valid, the E&L Scale-- notwithstanding its pedagogical benefits on the practical side-- is both logically flawed and theoretically excessive. It namely contains two variables with contradictories as poles;

24 They write: “In contrast to a field independent learner, a field sensitive learner makes skilled use of a floodlight to maintain awareness of the entire forest, registering the presence of all the flora, fauna, and moment-to-moment changes in the environment.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p 397) Elsewhere they add that field independence “can be compared to a spotlight that focuses sharply on one thing in contrast to field sensitivity.” (Ehrman & Leaver 2003, p 404)

that is, with one of their poles being the negation of the other and consequently having zero value. This logical defect is not without practical consequence and a variable with such a defect cannot be the scoring continuum that an E&L variable is meant to be.²⁵ In consequence, the E&L Scale has one variable too many: Variables 1 and 2 had better be compacted into one variable: Field sensitivity vs. field independence. This would reduce the scales 10 variables to 9.

But what shall we say about the synoptic categorization of these two poles, about their polar similarity, that is? Shouldn't field sensitivity and field independence satisfy the requirements of polar opposition to be in one variable? There are two ways, in my view, for approaching this issue:

Option One: Giving up the ectenic and synoptic labeling of poles altogether; that would by no means affect the opposition between the two poles of any variable or change the latter's continuum character as a scoring tool for learner preferences. In consequence, a variable a la Ramirez and Castaneda would include field independence with field sensitivity as opposites without regard to polar orientation.

Option Two: Labeling field independence ectenic. If polar orientation is retained, the synoptic dimension of field sensitivity seems a bit too pervasive to be denied or tweaked; but that is not the case with field independence, which seems to lend itself to both synoptic and ectenic interpretations depending on field and item or background and figure. As a result, a variable a la Ramirez and Castaneda would then include ectenic field independence with field sensitivity as its synoptic pole and thereby compact the first two "problematic" variables of Table 1 into a single variable. This might leave Table 2 intact but ineffectual.

Finally, Table 1 and Table 2 seem motivated by a systematization ideal that could not really be sustained. On the practical side, the nomenclatures *synoptic* and *ectenic* do not seem to have added pedagogical value to the E&L Scale that it did not already have. They could not prevent their scale, a pedagogically useful tool, from becoming logically tainted and theoretically excessive. Beyond synoptic and ectenic, it seems that the E&L Scale is better served with 9 variables than its current 10: logically, theoretically and pedagogically.

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25 To remind, the scoring continuum for the scale is graduated 1-9.

Semantic Functions of Passive Constructions in the Holy Qur'an

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Abstract—This study seeks to give a comparative account of passive constructions in terms of semantic functions in the Holy Qur'an where they are widely used in its chapters and verses. . A comparison and contrast is indirectly made between what grammarians stated in their books and the cases found in the Holy Qur'an. This is to identify the functions stated by the grammarians and not mentioned in the Holy Qur'an and those found in the Holy Qur'an but not stated by the grammarians. This situation highlights an essential need to have Arabic revised in the light of investigation of the Holy Qur'an as it has been revealed in the straight Arab tongue.

Index Terms—brevity, instructions, prohibition, permission, confirmation, suspense, versification, assonance, thematization, presupposition

I. INTRODUCTION

The active or passive turn is used according as our viewpoint is shifted from one primary to another in the sentence. Active and passive sentences mean essentially the same, yet they are not exactly synonymous. It is therefore redundant for a language to have both turns. As a rule, the person or thing that is the centre of interest at the moment is made the subject (or the theme) of the sentence, and therefore the verb must in some cases be put in the active, in others in the passive.

Most grammar books, if not all, contain lists of functions of passive. The corpus (The Holy Qur'an) revealed that in the vast majority of cases the choice of passive turn is due to one of the following: (i) goal prominence, (ii) agent (actor) prominence, (iii) constructing agentless (short) sentence i.e concealing or de-emphasizing the agent, (iv) elaboration on the agent, (v) retaining the same grammatical subject in successive sentences, (vi) more suitable in complex sentences, and (vii) producing suspense. See (Jespersen (1933) and (1951), Thompson (1960), Palmer (1965), Halliday (1967), Corray (1967), Huddleston (1971) and (1984), Quirk et. al (1972) and (1985) Leech and Svartvik (1975), Allen (1983), Celce - Murcia et.al. (1983) Van Ek (1984) Palmer (1987)

Generally speaking, passive sentences in Arabic are basically used when the agent participant (actor) of the action is unknown, or when the writer/speaker intentionally chooses not to name the agent. Consequently, great emphasis is placed on the action and the goal (or the patient). See Al- Ashmoni (1955), Ibn Ya'sh, Ibn Agil (1972), Hasan (1975), Ibn Hisham (1979), Ibn Usfour (1980), Al- Samarra'i (1989) Al- Mallah (1988) Khalil (1989), Maghalseh (2007) among others.

II. SEMANTIC FUNCTIONS

In the Holy Qur'an, the agent is omitted and the passive is used for one of the following reasons: (i) unknown agent, (ii) explicit agent, (iii) implicit agent, (iv) interest in goal / action, (v) concealment or de-emphasizing of the identify of the agent , and (vi) suspense , among others:

1. Passive constructions are used for brevity and conciseness through the ellipsis of the agent participant (actor).

1). (النحل: 126) "وَأِنْ عَاقِبْتُمْ فَعَاقِبُوا بِمِثْلِ مَا عُوْقِبْتُمْ بِهِ"

"And if ye punish, let your punishment be proportionate to the wrong **that has been done to you**". (Al- Nahl: 126).

2). (هود: 44) "وَقِيلَ يَا أَرْضُ ابْلَعِي مَاءَكَ وَيَا سَمَاءُ أَقْلِعِي وَغِيضَ الْمَاءُ وَقُضِيَ الْأَمْرُ وَاسْتَوَتْ عَلَى الْجُودِيِّ وَقِيلَ بُعْدًا لِلْقَوْمِ الظَّالِمِينَ"

"Then the word **went forth**: "O earth! swallow up thy water, and O sky! withhold (thy rain)!" And **the water abated**, and the matter **was ended**. The Ark rested on Mount Jūdi and the word went forth: "Away with those who do wrong". (Hūd: 44)

The rhetorical advantage of passivization is achieved through brevity and conciseness because it intensively affects the recipient as the attention is focused on the process rather than the details. See (Al- Siyuti: Al-Itgan fi 'ulum Al- Qur'an, Vol. 3, P. 170).

The sayer of the first past passive verb (قِيلَ) in verse (2) above is the Almighty Allah, whereas the sayer of the second past passive verb is either the Almighty Allah when he means cursing and evicting tyrants, or the Prophet Nūh when he means supplicating Allah to curse / evict tyrants. See (Al- Razi: Mafatih Al- Ghaib Vol. 8, P. 539). Moreover, all the passive verb forms are used to indicate the excellence and perfection of the system and symmetry used. See (Ibn Al- Jawziyyah: Al Fawā'id Al- Mushawwiqa ?ilā 'ulum Al- Qur'an, P. 264-65).

2. Passive is used when Allah instructs man about matters related to their dealings with one another as illustrated in the following verses:

3). "وَإِذَا حُيِّتُمْ بِتَحِيَّةٍ فَحَيُّوا بِأَحْسَنَ مِنْهَا أَوْ رُدُّوها" (النساء: 86)

"When a (courteous) greeting **is offered to you**, meet it with a greeting still more courteous, or (at least) of equal courtesy". (Al-Nisā': 86)

4). "وَإِنْ قِيلَ لَكُمْ ارْجِعُوا فَارْجِعُوا" (النور: 28)

"If you **are asked** to go back, go back" (Al- Nūr: 28)

The passive verb forms in the above verses: " **حُيِّتُمْ** is offered to you" and " **قِيلَ لَكُمْ** are asked" are used in the Holy Qur'an as they are dealings among people.

3. Passive is also used to show Allah's orders / commands and directives or instructions:

5). "يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا كُتِبَ عَلَيْكُمُ الصِّيَامُ كَمَا كُتِبَ عَلَى الَّذِينَ مِنْ قَبْلِكُمْ لَعَلَّكُمْ تَتَّقُونَ" (البقرة: 183)

"O ye who believe! Fasting **is prescribed** to you as it **was prescribed** to those before you, that you may (learn) self – restraint". (Al- Baqara: 183)

6). "يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا إِذَا نُودِيَ لِلصَّلَاةِ مِنْ يَوْمِ الْجُمُعَةِ فَاسْعَوْا إِلَى ذِكْرِ اللَّهِ" (الجمعة: 9)

"O ye who believe ! When the call **is proclaimed** to prayer on Friday (The Day of Assembly), hasten earnestly to the remembrance of Allah". (AL-Jumu'a: 9)

7). "وَأَتِمُّوا الْحَجَّ وَالْعُمْرَةَ لِلَّهِ فَإِنْ أُحْصِرْتُمْ فَمَا اسْتَيْسَرَ مِنَ الْهَدْيِ" (البقرة: 196)

"And complete the Hajj or Umra in the service of Allah, but if ye **are prevented** (from completing it), send an offering for sacrifice". (Al- Baqara: 196)

Similarly, the passive verb forms in the above verses: " **كُتِبَ** is prescribed", " **نُودِيَ** is proclaimed" and " **أُحْصِرْتُمْ** are prevented" are passivized as they are all instructions from the Almighty Allah to people.

4. Passivization is also used when the focus is on permission and prohibition:

The verb " **أُحِلَّ** " is / are permitted" in the following verses is passivized as it is permission from Allah to people to allow them perform certain actions that are not prohibited.

8). "الْيَوْمَ أُحِلَّ لَكُمْ الطَّيِّبَاتُ وَطَعَامُ الَّذِينَ أُوتُوا الْكِتَابَ حَلَلٌ لَكُمْ" (المائدة: 5)

"This day **are** (all) things **good and pure made lawful** unto you. The food of the people of the book is lawful unto you". (Al- Ma'ida: 5).

9). "أُحِلَّ لَكُمْ لَيْلَةَ الصِّيَامِ الرَّفَثُ إِلَى نِسَائِكُمْ" (البقرة: 187)

"**Permitted** to you on the night of the fasts, is the approach to your wives". (Al-Baqara: 187)

The verb form " **حُرِّمَتْ** forbidden / prohibited "in the following verses is passivized as it is prohibition from Allah to all people.

10). "حُرِّمَتْ عَلَيْكُمُ الْمَيْتَةُ وَالْدَّمُ وَلَحْمُ الْخَنَازِيرِ وَمَا أُهِلَّ لِغَيْرِ اللَّهِ بِهِ وَالْمُنْخَنِقَةُ وَالْمَوْقُوذَةُ وَالْمُتَرَدِّيَةُ وَالنَّطِيحَةُ وَمَا أَكَلَ السَّبُعُ" (المائدة: 3)

"**Forbidden** to you (for food) are: dead meat, blood, the flesh of swine, and that on which hath been invoked the name of other than Allah, that which hath been killed by strangling or by a violent blow, or by headlong fall." (Al-ma'ida: 3)

11). "حُرِّمَتْ عَلَيْكُمْ أُمَّهَاتُكُمْ وَبَنَاتُكُمْ وَأَخَوَاتُكُمْ وَعَمَّاتُكُمْ وَخَالَاتُكُمْ" (النساء: 23)

"**Prohibited** to you (for marriage) are: your mother's, daughters, sisters; father's sisters, mothers sister" (Al- Nisā': 23)

5. When indicating humbleness, as Prophet Yusuf did when he interpreted the dream to his colleagues in prison:

12). a. "فَضِي الْأَمْرُ الَّذِي فِيهِ تَسْتَفْتِيَانِ" (يوسف: 41)

"(So) **hath been decreed** that matter whereof ye twain do enquire". (Yusuf: 41) and he did not say

b. "قَضَيْتُمْ لَكُمْ الْأَمْرَ الَّذِي فِيهِ تَسْتَفْتِيَانِ"

"I **decreed** that matter whereof ye twain do enquire"

politely and humbly

6. Verification and confirmation:

13). "وَقَضِيَ الْأَمْرُ إِلَى اللَّهِ تُرْجَعُ الْأُمُورُ" (البقرة: 210)

"And the question **is (thus) settled?** But to Allah do all questions **go back** (for decision)". (Al-Baqara: 210)

The past passive verb form " **قَضِيَ** "is settled" is used to show verification and confirmation. This is to say, this verb indicates what this verse includes will occur for sure. See (Al- Shawkani: Fath Al- Qadir Vol. 1, P. 313).

7. The passive is also used to glorify or dignity the agent participant, in this case the Almighty Allah:

14. a. "فَقِيلَ الْخَرَّاصُونَ" (الذاريات: 10)

"**Cursed be** the conjecturers". (Al- Zāriyāt: 10)

instead of saying

b. "فَقَتَلَ اللَّهُ الْخَرَّاصُونَ"

"Allah **cursed** the conjecturers".

15. a. "وَجِيءَ يَوْمَئِذٍ بِجَهَنَّمَ" (الفجر: 23)

"And Hell, that Day, **is brought** (face to face)". (Al- Fajr: 23)

instead of saying

b. "وَجَاءَ اللَّهُ يَوْمَئِذٍ بِجَهَنَّمَ"

"And Allah that Day **brought** Hel". (face to face).

8. Explicit Agent: The passive is used when the agent (the Almighty Allah) is already known and there is no need to mention Him. That is to say, the agent can be easily recovered from the linguistic / situational context:

16). (37: (الأنبياء: 37)) "خُلِقَ الْإِنْسَانُ مِنْ عَجَلٍ"

"Man is a **creature of haste**" (Al- Anbiyā': 37)

17). (28: (النساء: 28)) "خُلِقَ الْإِنْسَانُ ضَعِيفًا"

"For man **was created** weak (in resolution)" (Al-Nisā': 28)

The rhetorical advantage of the passive verb in (16) is verification / confirmation, whereas it is ratification / approval in (17).

The agent does not exist in these two verses, and the action (process) is concentrated on. See (Ibn Jinny: Al - Muhtasib Vol. 1, P. 66). "If the verb is passivized, this is not because the agent is implicit, but to know that the process actually takes place". See (Al- Zarkashi: Al- Burhan Vol. 3 ,P. 144). In the following verses, the passive verbs are used to concentrate on the process, but not on the agent.

18). (14-13: (الحاقة: 14-13)) "فَإِذَا نُفِخَ فِي الصُّورِ نَفْخَةٌ وَاحِدَةٌ , وَحُمِلَتِ الْأَرْضُ وَالْجِبَالُ فَدُكَّتَا دَكَّةً وَاحِدَةً"

"Then, when one blast is **sounded** on the Trumpet, and the earth is **moved** and its mountains, and they **are crushed** at one stroke". (Al- Hāqqa: 13-14)

19). (204: (الأعراف: 204)) "وَإِذَا قُرِئَ الْقُرْآنُ فَاسْتَمِعُوا لَهُ وَأَنْصِتُوا لَعَلَّكُمْ تُرْحَمُونَ"

"When the Qur'an is **read**, listen to it with attention, and hold your peace: that ye may receive Mercy ". (Al- A'raf: 204)

9. The passive is used to create suspense in the Holy Qur'an, particularly in story telling .See (Al- Samarra'i ,1980, p.96-7).

20). "وَنُفِخَ فِي الصُّورِ فَصَعِقَ مَنْ فِي السَّمَاوَاتِ وَمَنْ فِي الْأَرْضِ إِلَّا مَنْ شَاءَ اللَّهُ ثُمَّ نُفِخَ فِيهِ أُخْرَى فَإِذَا هُمْ قِيَامٌ يَنْظُرُونَ * وَأَشْرَقَتِ الْأَرْضُ بِنُورٍ رَبِّهَا * وَوُضِعَ الْكِتَابُ وَجِيءَ بِالنَّبِيِّينَ وَالشُّهَدَاءِ وَقُضِيَ بَيْنَهُم بِالْحَقِّ وَهُمْ لَا يُظْلَمُونَ * وَوُفِّيَتْ كُلُّ نَفْسٍ مَّا عَمِلَتْ وَهُوَ أَعْلَمُ بِمَا يَفْعَلُونَ * وَسِيقَ الَّذِينَ كَفَرُوا إِلَى جَهَنَّمَ زُمَرًا حَتَّى إِذَا جَاؤُوهَا فَفُتِحَتْ أَبْوَابُهَا وَقَالَ لَهُمْ خَزَنَتُهَا أَلَمْ يَأْتِكُمْ رُسُلٌ مِّنكُمْ يَتْلُونَ عَلَيْكُمْ آيَاتِ رَبِّكُمْ وَيُنذِرُونَكُمْ لِقَاءَ يَوْمِكُمْ هَذَا قَالُوا بَلَى وَلَكِنْ حَقَّتْ كَلِمَةُ الْعَذَابِ عَلَى الْكَافِرِينَ * قِيلَ ادْخُلُوا أَبْوَابَ جَهَنَّمَ خَالِدِينَ فِيهَا فَبِئْسَ مَثْوًى الْمُتَكَبِّرِينَ * وَسِيقَ الَّذِينَ اتَّقَوْا رَبَّهُمْ إِلَى الْجَنَّةِ زُمَرًا حَتَّى إِذَا جَاؤُوهَا وَفُتِحَتْ أَبْوَابُهَا وَقَالَ لَهُمْ خَزَنَتُهَا سَلَامٌ عَلَيْكُمْ طَابَمَا فَادْخُلُوهَا خَالِدِينَ" (الزمر: 73-68)

"The Trumpet **will (just) be sounded**, when all that are in the heavens and on earth will swoon, except such as it will please Allah (to exempt). Then **will** a second one **be sounded** when, behold, they will be standing and looking on! And the earth will shine with the light of its Lord: the record (of Deeds) **will be placed (open)**; *the prophets and the witnesses will be brought forward*; and a just decision *pronounced between them*; and they **will not be wronged** (in the least). And to every soul **will be paid in full** (the fruit) of its deeds; and (Allah) *knowth best all that they do*. The unbelievers **will be led** to Hell in groups: until, when they arrive there, its gates **will be opened**. And its keepers will say, "Did not messengers come to you from among yourselves, "rehearsing to you the signs of your Lord, and warning you of the Meeting of this Day of yours? The answer will be: "true: but the decree of chastisement **has been proved true** against the unbelievers!" (To them) **will be said**: "Enter ye the gates of Hell, to dwell therein: And evil is (this) abode of the arrogant!" And those who feared their Lord **will be led** to the Gardens in groups: until behold, they arrive there; its gates **will be opened** and its keepers will say: "Please be upon you! Well have you done! Enter ye here, to dwell therein." (Al- Zumar: 68-73)

10. Linguistic context and versification.

Both active and passive forms are frequently used in the Quranic discourse, both in its linguistic context and versification.

21). (87: (التوبة: 87)) "وَطَبَعَ عَلَى قُلُوبِهِمْ فَهُمْ لَا يَفْقَهُونَ"

"Their hearts **are sealed** and so they understand not" (Al- Tawba: 87)

22). (93: (التوبة: 93)) "وَطَبَعَ اللَّهُ عَلَى قُلُوبِهِمْ فَهُمْ لَا يَعْلَمُونَ"

"Allah **hath sealed** their hearts so they know not" (Al- Tawba: 93)

The verb "طبع" in (21) is passivized to harmonize with the verb "أنزل" in the previous verse:

23). (86: (التوبة: 86)) "وَإِذَا أَنْزَلْتُ سُورَةً أَنْ آمِنُوا بِاللَّهِ وَجَاهِدُوا مَعَ رَسُولِهِ اسْتَأْذِنَكَ أُولَئِكَ الطَّوَلُ مِنْهُمْ وَقَالُوا ذَرْنَا نَحْنُ مَعَ الْفَاعِلِينَ" (التوبة: 86)

"When a sura **comes down**, enjoying them to believe in Allah and to strive and fight along with His Messenger, those with wealth and influence among them ask thee for exemption , and say: "Leave us (behind): we would be with those who sit (at home)" (Al-Tawba: 86).

The verb "طبع" in (22) is activated to harmonize with the verbs "يستأذنوك" and "رضوا" in the same verse:

24). (93: (التوبة: 93)) "إِنَّمَا السَّبِيلُ عَلَى الَّذِينَ يَسْتَأْذِنُونَكَ وَهُمْ أَغْنِيَاءُ رَضُوا بِأَنْ يَكُونُوا مَعَ الْخَوَالِفِ وَطَبَعَ اللَّهُ عَلَى قُلُوبِهِمْ فَهُمْ لَا يَعْلَمُونَ" (التوبة: 93)

"The ground (of complaint) is only against such as claim exemption while they are rich: they **prefer** to stay with the (women) who remain behind: Allah **hath sealed** their hearts so they know not". (Al- Tawba: 93).

See (Al-Iskafi: Durar Al-Tanzil page 719), and (Al- Zarkashi: Al -Burhan fi 'ulum Al-Qur'an Vol .3 page 145). Moreover, the active form "طبع", when ascribed to Allah, indicates that it is stronger and becomes deep-rooted in the heart more than the passive form "طبع". See (Al-Samara'i: Balaghat Al-Kalima fi Al- Ta'bir Al - Qur'ani, P. 84).

11. Degradation / humiliation of the agent participant:

25). (212: (البقرة: 212)) "زَيْنٌ لِلَّذِينَ كَفَرُوا الْحَيَاةُ الدُّنْيَا"

"The life of this world is **alluring** to those who reject faith". (Al-Baqara: 212)

"قَالَتْ مَا جَزَاء مَنْ أَرَادَ بِأَهْلِكَ سُوءًا إِلَّا أَنْ يُسْجَنَ أَوْ عَذَابٌ أَلِيمٌ" (يوسف: 25).

"She said:" What is the (fitting) punishment for one who formed an evil design against thy wife, **but prison** or a grievous chastisement?" (Yusuf: 25)

The passive verb form "زِين" is used to degrade satan because he is the only one who adorns or decorates the bad deeds. The active verb "زينا لهم سوء أعمالهم" (we have decorated their bad deeds for them) does not occur in the holy Qur'an absolutely where the pronoun "نا" refers to the Almighty Allah. The verb "يُسْجَن" is passivized to humiliate Prophet Yusuf by Zulaykha, the wife of Al- Aziz.

12. The passive is used when the agent /doer of the action is unknown or unspecified:

"قَالَ هِيَ رَأَوْنَتِي عَنْ نَفْسِي وَشَهِدَ شَاهِدًا مِنْ أَهْلِهَا إِنْ كَانَ قَمِيصُهُ قُدَّ مِنْ قُبُلٍ فَصَدَقَتْ وَهُوَ مِنَ الْكَاذِبِينَ وَإِنْ كَانَ قَمِيصُهُ قُدَّ مِنْ دُبُرٍ فَكَذَبَتْ وَهُوَ مِنَ الصَّادِقِينَ" فَلَمَّا رَأَى قَمِيصَهُ قُدَّ مِنْ دُبُرٍ قَالَ إِنَّهُ مِنْ كَيْدِكُنَّ إِنَّ كَيْدَكُنَّ عَظِيمٌ" (يوسف: 26-28)

"He said: "It was she that sought to seduce me – from my (true) self". And one of her household saw (this) and bore witness, thus: "If it be that his shirt **is torn** from the front, then is her tale true, and he is a liar! But if it be that his shirt **is torn** from the back, then is she the liar, and he is telling the truth! 'So when he saw his shirt, that it **was torn** at the back, - her husband said: "Behold! It is a snare of you women! Truly, mighty is your sname!" (Yusuf: 26-28).

The verb "قُدَّ" is passivized because the spectators who were absent from the scene do not know who tore Yusuf's shirt. Is it Zulaikha who was in defense or is it Zulaikha who embarked boldly upon Yusuf?

"وَإِذَا بَشَّرَ أَحَدُهُم بِالْأُنْثَىٰ ظَلَّ وَجْهُهُ مُسْوَدًّا وَهُوَ كَظِيمٌ" (النحل: 58)

"When news **is brought** to one of them, of (the birth of) a female (child), his face darkens, and he is filled with inward grief" (Al- Nahl: 58)

It is not important for the spectators to know who brought them the bad news. The most important is the action itself.

"وَلَقَدْ كَذَّبْتَ رَسُولًا مِنْ قَبْلِكَ فَصَبْرُوا عَلَىٰ مَا كُذِّبُوا وَأَوْدُوا حَتَّىٰ أَتَاهُمْ نَصْرُنَا" (الأنعام: 34).

"**Rejected were** the Messengers before thee: with patience and constancy they bore their **rejection and their persecution** until our aid did reach them". (Al- An'am: 34)

Similarly, it is not so important to know who rejected the Messenger. The important is that they were rejected.

13. Assonance, intervals, and parallelism between sentences and succession of verb forms:

"وَإِذَا الشَّمْسُ كُوِّرَتْ ✕ وَإِذَا النُّجُومُ انْكَدَرَتْ ✕ وَإِذَا الْجِبَالُ سُيِّرَتْ ✕ وَإِذَا الْعُشَّارُ غَطَّتْ ✕ وَإِذَا الْوُحُوشُ حُشِرَتْ ✕ 30. وَإِذَا الْبِحَارُ سُجِّرَتْ ✕ وَإِذَا الْفُلُوسُ زُوِّجَتْ ✕ وَإِذَا الْمَوْءُودَةُ سُئِلَتْ ✕ بِأَيِّ ذَنْبٍ قُتِلَتْ ✕ وَإِذَا الصُّحُفُ نُشِرَتْ ✕ وَإِذَا السَّمَاءُ كُشِطَتْ ✕ وَإِذَا الْجِبَالُ سُعِرَتْ ✕ وَإِذَا الْجَنَّةُ أُنْفِلَتْ ✕ عَلِمَتْ نَفْسٌ مَا أُحْضِرَتْ" (التكوير: 1-14)

"When the sun (with its spacious light) **is folded up**; when the stars fall losing their luster; when the mountains **vanish** (like a mirage); when the she -camels, ten months with young, are **left untended**; when the wild beasts **are herded together** (in human habitations) ; when the oceans **boil over with a swell**; when the souls are sorted out (being joined, like with like); when the female (infant), buried alive, **is questioned** for what crime she was killed; when the scrolls art laid open; when the **sky is unveiled**; when the Blazing Fire **is kindled** to fierce heat; and when the Garden **is brought** near, then shall each soul know what it has put forward" (Al- Takwīr: 1-14).

The passive verbs are all assonant and parallelised. Moreover, the intervals between them suit the verses in which these verbs are used.

14. In the Holy Qur'an the Almighty Allah ascribes good deeds to Himself, and therefore active constructions are used and the agent is overt, whereas the bad deeds are ascribed to others and passive constructions are used and the agent is covert:

"وَأَنَّا لَا نَدْرِي أَشَرُّ أَرِيدَ يَمَنَ فِي الْأَرْضِ أَمْ أَرَادَ بِهِمْ رَبُّهُمْ رَشَدًا" (الجن: 10).

"And we understand not whether ill **is intended** to those on earth, or whether their Lord (really) **intends** to guide them to right conduct ". (Al- Jinn: 10)

"وَنَضَعُ الْمَوَازِينَ الْقِسْطَ لِيَوْمِ الْقِيَامَةِ فَلَا تُظْلَمُ نَفْسٌ شَيْئًا" (الأنبياء: 47).

"We shall set up scales of justice for the Day of Judgment, so that not a soul **will be dealt with unjustly** in the least (Al- Anbiyā': 47)

The verb forms "أريدَ is intended" and "تُظْلَمُ will be dealt with unjustly" are passivized because the Almighty Allah does not ascribe the bad deeds to Himself as Allah neither intends ill or evil nor deals with people unjustly. However, sometimes the good deeds are used with passive, but in this case the active verb form are previously mentioned:

"يُؤْتِي الْحِكْمَةَ مَنْ يَشَاءُ وَمَنْ يُؤْتَ الْحِكْمَةَ فَقَدْ أُوتِيَ خَيْرًا كَثِيرًا" (البقرة: 269).

"**He grandth wisdom** to whom he pleaseth; and he to whom wisdom **is granted** receiveth indeed a benefit overflowing". (Al- Baqara: 269)

The passive verb forms "يُؤْتَ" and "أُوتِيَ" are preceded by the active verb form "يؤتي". Allah ascribes the good deeds "granting wisdom" to Himself first, and then passive verb form "is granted" is used in a general sense.

15. Coloring the Quranic discourse.

Both active and passive verb forms are frequently used in the Quranic discourse but each form is used in its linguistic context. Consider the following verses:

"وَإِذْ قُلْنَا ادْخُلُوا هَذِهِ الْقَرْيَةَ فَكُلُوا مِنْهَا حَيْثُ شِئْتُمْ رَغَدًا" (البقرة: 58).

"And remember **we said**: "Enter this town, and eat of the plenty therein as ye wish" (Al- Baqara: 58)

"وَإِذْ قِيلَ لَهُمْ اسْكُنُوا هَذِهِ الْقَرْيَةَ وَكُلُوا مِنْهَا حَيْثُ شِئْتُمْ" (الأعراف: 161).

"And remember it **was said** to them: Dwell in this town and eat therein as ye wish". (Al- A'rāf: 161).

The past passive verb form (قِيلَ) is used in (34) because it is preceded by the past active form (قُلْنَا) in (35) in which the agent is explicit. Al- Razi (Mafāṭih-u Al- Ghayb Vol.2, P. 92) ascribes this variety in the first context (34) to two reasons: disambiguity and the previous linguistic context, i.e. mentioning the blessings or the special favour the Almighty Allah bestowed upon Children of Israel:

36). (47). (البقرة: 47). "يَا بَنِي إِسْرَائِيلَ اذْكُرُوا نِعْمَتِيَ الَّتِي أَنْعَمْتُ عَلَيْكُمْ وَأَلَيَّ قَضَايُكُمْ عَلَى الْعَالَمِينَ" (البقرة: 47).

"O children of Israel! **Call to** mind the special favour which I bestowed upon you, and that I preferred you to all others." (Al- Baqara: 47).

And this context suits active verb form with the overt agent, the Almighty Allah.

In the second context (35) the ambiguity is eliminated as the agent is stated previously in (34) and this suits the passive verb form. See (Al- Naysaburi: Ghra'ib Al- Qur'an Vol. 1, P. 324) and (Abu Hayyan: Al- Bahr Al- Muhiṭ Vol. 1, P. 346)

16. Sometimes passive verb forms are used before the active forms. This refers to the fact that Arabs prefer the most important for them is what is mentioned first. See (Sibawayh : Al- Kitāb Vol.1 ,P. 15) and (Al- Iskafi : Durat Al- Tanzil ,P. 1316) . Consider the following verses:

37). (15). (الإنسان: 15) "وَيُطَافُ عَلَيْهِمْ بِانِيَّةٍ مِنْ فِضَّةٍ وَأَكْوَابٍ كَانَتْ قَوَارِيرًا" (الإنسان: 15)

"And amongst them **will be passed round** vessels of silver and goblets of crystal" (Al- Insān: 15)

38). (19). (الإنسان: 19) "وَيُطَوَّفُ عَلَيْهِمْ وَلَدَانِ مُخَلَّدُونَ إِذَا رَأَيْتَهُمْ حَسِبْتَهُمْ لَوْلَا مَنُورًا" (الإنسان: 19)

"And round about them **will serve** youths of perpetual (freshness). (Al-Insān: 19)

In (37) passive verb from يُطَافُ is used because the most important for the audience is the description of what is roamed with, whereas the description of the roamers is the most important in (38) where active verb from يُطَوَّفُ is used.

17. Passive verbs forms are used in the Holy Qur'an to show mockery / irony / sarcasm.

39). (147). (الاعراف: 147) "وَالَّذِينَ كَذَّبُوا بِآيَاتِنَا وَلِقَاءِ الْآخِرَةِ حَبِطَتْ أُعْمَالُهُمْ هَلْ يُجْزَوْنَ إِلَّا مَا كَانُوا يَعْمَلُونَ" (الاعراف: 147)

"Those who reject Our Signs and the Meeting in the Hereafter, vain are their deeds: Can they except **to be rewarded** except as they have wrought?" (Al- Aʿrāf: 147).

40). (29). (الكهف: 29) "إِنَّا أَعْتَدْنَا لِلظَّالِمِينَ نَارًا أَحَاطَ بِهِمْ سُرَادِقُهَا وَإِنْ يَسْتَغِيثُوا يُغَاثُوا بِمَاءٍ كَالْمُهْلِ يَشْوِي الْوُجُوهَ" (الكهف: 29)

"If they (the wrong – doers) implore relief they **will be granted** water like melted brass that will scold their faces". (Al – Kahf: 29)

Ordinarily, the passive verb forms يُجْزَوْنَ (be rewarded) in (39) and يُغَاثُوا (be granted) in (40) are collocationally used with right – doers, but they are used with الَّذِينَ كَذَّبُوا (those who reject Our Signs) in (39) and الظَّالِمِينَ (tyrants) in (38) because they are mocked.

18. Thematization

The choice of passive is a mode of expression. That is "the notion of passive is fundamentally pragmatic" (Givon, 1990, P. 566). Since every speech event takes place in a social context, the passive offers speakers a way of "information packaging" which allows prominence to fall on participants affected by the process rather than the actors (cf. Foly and Van Valin, 1985). Thus, the passive enables the speakers to place the actor and participant affected in the structure of information in "new" and "old" slot respectively (cf. Halliday, 1994). In this context, the passive construction is, like topicalization, a case of foregrounding which draws our attention to an element preeminently placed, namely, the affected participant. (cf. Keenan, 1985, P. 243)

The passive is used when the attention of the reader / hearer is directed to the person / thing (done – to) affected by the action rather than the doer (agent) of the action i.e. preposing the "done to" to be the departure point.

41). (2). (الأعراف: 2) "كِتَابٌ أَنْزَلَ إِلَيْكَ فَلَا يَكُنْ فِي صَدْرِكَ حَرَجٌ مِنْهُ لَتُنذِرَ بِهِ وَتَذَكَّرَ لِلْمُؤْمِنِينَ" (الأعراف: 2)

"A **Book revealed** unto thee, so let thy heart be oppressed no more by any difficulty on that account, that with it thou mightiest warn (the erring) and a reminder to the Believers." (Al- Aʿrāf: 2).

42). (3). (فصلت: 3) "كِتَابٌ فَصَّلْتُ آيَاتُهُ قُرْآنًا عَرَبِيًّا لِقَوْمٍ يَعْلَمُونَ" (فصلت: 3)

"A **Book, whereof the verses are explained** in details; a Qur'an in Arabic, for people who understand". (Fussilat: 3).

43). (5-6). (الحاقة: 5-6) "فَأَمَّا ثَمُودُ فَاهْلِكُوا بِالطَّاغِيَةِ * وَأَمَّا عَادُ فَاهْلِكُوا بِرِيحِ صَرْصَرٍ عَاتِيَةٍ" (الحاقة: 5-6)

"But the Thamūd, they were destroyed **by a terrible storm of thunder and lightning!** And the Ad, they were destroyed **by a furious wind, exceedingly violent.**" (Al- Hāqqa: 5-6)

19. Passive is also used when the function is not to bring the doer (agent) into view, but to highlight the action (process) itself.

44). (68). (الزمر: 68) "وَيُنْفَخُ فِي الصُّورِ فَصَعَقَ مَنْ فِي السَّمَاوَاتِ وَمَنْ فِي الْأَرْضِ" (الزمر: 68)

"**The Trumpet will (just) be sounded** when all that are in the heavens and on earth will swoon". (Al- Zumar: 68).

The action / process of (نَفَخَ) and its terror and intensity is highlighted. It is not out of place to state what (Al- Alousy, 1403, P. 266) says in his (Rouh Al- Maʿāni fī Tafsir Al-Qur'an Al- Athim). "It is scientifically approved that the intensity of sound causes nervous tension and anger, and when it increases to reach more 200 decibel, the man will lose consciousness and die immediately.

20. Passive constructions are also used to depict the invisible / supernatural scenes of Garden and Fire in the

Judgment Day. See (Al- Zamakhshari: Al- Kashāf Vol. 2, P. 470).

45). "وَاتَّقُوا النَّارَ الَّتِي أُعِدَّتْ لِلْكَافِرِينَ" (آل عمران : 131).

"And fear the **Fire, which is prepared** for those who reject Faith". (Al- Imrān: 131).

46). "وَسَارِعُوا إِلَى مَغْفِرَةٍ مِّن رَّبِّكُمْ وَجَنَّةٍ عَرْضُهَا السَّمَاوَاتُ وَالْأَرْضُ أُعِدَّتْ لِلْمُتَّقِينَ" (آل عمران : 133).

"Be quick in the race for forgiveness from your Lord and **for a Garden** whose width is that (of the whole) of the heavens and of the earth **prepared for the righteous**". (Al- Imrān: 133)

The passive verb form (أُعِدَّتْ) is used when the Almighty Allah talks about الجنة (Garden) and النار (Hell) with their general names. The active verb form (أعد) is used when Allah uses other names of (الجنة) and (النار) or their properties or their signs / meanings or indications.

47). "إِنَّ اللَّهَ لَعَنَ الْكَافِرِينَ وَأَعَدَّ لَهُمْ سَعِيرًا" (الاحزاب : 64).

"Verily Allah has cursed the unbelievers and **prepared for them a Blazing Fire**" (Al- Ahzāb: 64).

48). "وَغَضِبَ اللَّهُ عَلَيْهِمْ وَلَعَنَهُمْ وَأَعَدَّ لَهُمْ جَهَنَّمَ وَسَاءَتْ مَصِيرًا" (الفتح : 6).

"The Wrath of Allah is on them: He has cursed them **and got Hell ready for them**, and evil is it for a destination". (Al- Fath: 6)

49). "جَنَّاتُ عَدْنٍ يَدْخُلُونَهَا يُجْرِي مِنْ تَحْتِهَا الْأَنْهَارُ" (النحل : 31).

"**Gardens of Eternity which they will enter:** beneath them flow (pleasant) rivers". (Al- Nahl: 31).

50). "وَأَحْلَوْا قَوْمَهُمْ دَارَ الْبُورِ" (ابراهيم : 28).

"**And caused their people to descend to the House of Prediction**" (Ibrāhīm: 28).

51). "سَاصِلِيهِ سَقَرٌ" (المذثر : 26).

"Soon **I will cast him into Hell – Fire!**" (Al-Muddaththir: 26)

52). "الَّذِي أَحَلَّنَا دَارَ الْمُقَامَةِ مِنْ فَضْلِهِ" (فاطر : 35).

"Who has, out of His Bounty, **settled us in a Home that will last**". (Fatir: 35)

53). "وَلَوْ أَنَّ أَهْلَ الْكِتَابِ آمَنُوا وَاتَّقَوْا لَكَفَرْنَا عَنْهُمْ سِيَئَاتِهِمْ وَلَأَنزَلْنَا لَهُمْ جَنَّاتٍ النَّعِيمِ" (المائدة: 65).

"If only the People of the Book had believed and been righteous, We shall indeed have blotted out their iniquities and **admitted them to Garden of Bliss**" (Al- Maʿida: 65)

21. Passive is used to indicate generalization of religious matters / laws.

54). "وَأَشْهِدُوا إِذَا تَبَايَعْتُمْ وَلَا يُضَارَ كَاتِبٌ وَلَا شَهِيدٌ" (البقرة: 282).

"But take witnesses whenever ye make a commercial contract; and **neither scribe nor witness suffers harm**". (Al- Baqara: 282).

55). "يَا أَيُّهَا الَّذِينَ آمَنُوا إِذَا نُودِيَ لِلصَّلَاةِ مِنْ يَوْمِ الْجُمُعَةِ فَاسْعَوْا إِلَى ذِكْرِ اللَّهِ وَذَرُوا الْبَيْعَ" (الجمعة : 9).

"O ye who believe! When the **call is proclaimed** to prayer on Friday (the Day of Assembly), hasten earnestly to the Remembrance of Allah and leave off business" (Al- Jumʿa: 9).

56). "إِنَّمَا كَانَ قَوْلَ الْمُؤْمِنِينَ إِذَا دُعُوا إِلَى اللَّهِ وَرَسُولِهِ لِيَحْكُمَ بَيْنَهُمْ أَنْ يَقُولُوا سَمِعْنَا وَأَطَعْنَا" (النور : 51).

"The answer of the believers, **when summoned** to Allah and His Messenger, in order that He may judge between them, is no other than this: They say, "We hear and we obey." (Al- Nūr: 51).

57). "وَنَضَعُ الْمَوَازِينَ الْقِسْطَ لِيَوْمِ الْقِيَامَةِ فَلَا تُظْلَمُ نَفْسٌ شَيْئًا" (الانبیاء : 47).

"We shall set up scales of justice for the Day of Judgment, so that **not a soul will be dealt with unjustly** in the least" (Al- Anbiyāʾ: 47)

58). "وَأَرْجُلُهُمْ مِّنْ خِلَافٍ أَوْ يُنْفَوْا مِنَ الْأَرْضِ" "إِنَّمَا جَزَاءُ الَّذِينَ يُحَارِبُونَ اللَّهَ وَرَسُولَهُ وَيَسْعَوْنَ فِي الْأَرْضِ فَسَادًا أَنْ يُقَتَّلُوا أَوْ يُصَلَّبُوا أَوْ تُقَطَّعَ أَيْدِيهِمْ" (المائدة : 33).

"The punishment of those who wage war against Allah and His Messenger, and strive with might and main for mischief through the land is: **execution, or crucifixion, or the cutting off of hands and feet from opposite sides, or exile from the land.**" (Al- Maʿida : 33).

59). "كُتِبَ عَلَيْكُمْ إِذَا حَضَرَ أَحَدَكُمُ الْمَوْتُ إِنْ تَرَكَ خَيْرًا الْوَصِيَّةُ لِلْوَالِدَيْنِ" (البقرة : 180).

"**It is prescribed**, when death approaches any of you, if he leave any goods, that he make a bequest to parents and next of kin" (Al- Baqara: 180).

In the above verses neither scribe nor witness (**whoever they are**) should suffer harm, the Believers, (**whoever they are**) and (**whoever the caller is**) should leave off business and hasten to Remembrance of Allah, the Believers (**whoever they are**), when summoned to Allah and His Messenger should say "We hear and obey", no one (**whoever he is**) will be dealt with unjustly, those who wage war against Allah and His Messenger (**whoever they are**) should be punished through execution, or crucifixion, or the cutting off hands and feet from opposite sides or exile from the land, and it is prescribed to you (**whoever you are**) when death approaches, you should make a bequest to parents and next of kin.

22. Passive constructions are used for Allah to express His disapproval, criticism, reprimand, dispraise and blame. The following are illustrative examples:

60). "أَمْ حَسِبْتُمْ أَنْ تُتْرَكُوا وَلَمَّا يَعْلَمِ اللَّهُ الَّذِينَ جَاهَلُوا مِنْكُمْ" (التوبة : 16).

"**Do you think that you would be left alone** while Allah has not yet known those among you who strive with might and main" (Al- Tawba: 16)

61). "أَيَحْسَبُ الْإِنْسَانُ أَنْ يُتْرَكَ سُدًى" (القيامة : 36).

"**Does Man think that he will be left uncontrolled**, (without purpose)?" (Al- Qiyāma: 36)

62) "أَلَمْ تُكُنْ آيَاتِي تُثَلَّى عَلَيْكُمْ فَكُنْتُمْ بِهَا تُكَذِّبُونَ" (المؤمنون: 105)

"Were not My Signs rehearsed to you, and ye did but treat them as falsehoods" ? (Al- Mu?minūn :105).

63) "أَفَلَا يَعْلَمُ إِذَا بُعْثِرَ مَا فِي الْقُبُورِ * وَحُصِّلَ مَا فِي الصُّدُورِ" (العاديات : 9-10)

"Does he not know and that which is (**locked up**) in (human) breast **is made manifest** when that which is in the graves **is scattered** aboard?" (Al- 'adiyat: 9-10).

64) "أَفَمَنْ يُلْقَى فِي النَّارِ خَيْرٌ أَمْ مَنْ يَأْتِي آمِنًا يَوْمَ الْقِيَامَةِ" (فصلت : 40)

"Which is better? – he that he **is cast in the fire**, or he that comes safe through, on the Day of Judgment" (Fusilat: 40).

65) "أَفَمَنْ زُيِّنَ لَهُ سُوءُ عَمَلِهِ فَرَآهُ حَسَنًا" (فاطر : 8)

"Is he, then, to whom the evil of his conduct **is made alluring**, so that he looks upon it". (Fātir: 8).

23. Passive is used in the Holy Qur'an in supplication and curse.

66) "قَتَلَ أَصْحَابُ الْأُخْدُودِ" (البروج : 4)

"Woe to the makers of the bit (of fire)". (Al- Burūj: 4).

67) "إِنَّ الَّذِينَ يَرْمُونَ الْمُحْصَنَاتِ الْغَافِلَاتِ الْمُؤْمِنَاتِ لَعُنُوا فِي الدُّنْيَا وَالْآخِرَةِ وَلَهُمْ عَذَابٌ أَلِيمٌ" (النور: 23).

"Those who slander chaste, indiscreet and believing women **are cursed** in this life and in the Hereafter: for them is a grievous Chastisement." (Al- Nūr: 23)

68) "غُلَّتْ أَيْدِيهِمْ وَلُعِنُوا بِمَا قَالُوا" (المائدة : 64)

"Be their hands tied up and be they accursed for the blasphemy they utter" (Al- Mā'ida: 64).

The bold type passive verb forms in the above verses indicate either supplication or curses. See (Al- Razi: Mafatih Al- Ghayb, Vol. 6, P. 80) and (Al- Shawkāni: Fath Al- Qadir, Vol. 1, P. 83)

69) "أَلَمْ يُوْخَذْ عَلَيْهِمْ مِيثَاقُ الْكِتَابِ أَنْ لَا يَقُولُوا عَلَى اللَّهِ إِلَّا الْحَقَّ" (الأعراف : 169)

"Was not the covenant of the Book **taken** from them, they would not ascribe to Allah anything but the truth". (Al- A'rāf: 169)

70) "أَعْلَفِي الذِّكْرُ عَلَيْهِ مِنْ بَيْنِنَا بَلْ هُوَ كَذَّابٌ أَشِرٌ" (القمر : 25)

"Is it that the Messenger **is sent** to him, of all people amongst us? Nay, he is a liar, an insolent one?" (Al- Qamar: 25).

71) "أَنْزَلَ عَلَيْهِ الذِّكْرُ مِنْ بَيْنِنَا بَلْ هُمْ فِي شَكٍّ مِّنْ ذِكْرِي" (ص : 8)

"What! **Has** the Messenger **been sent** to him – (of all persons) among us? But they are in doubt." (Sād: 8).

All passive verb forms in the above verses are in the form of interrogative sentences to indicate disapproval, criticism, reprimand or dispraise. See (Al- Zamkhashari: Al- Kashaf: Vol. 2, P. 253), (Al- Matsani Abdul Azim: Al- Tafsir Al- Balāghi lil- Qur'an Al-Kareem: Vol. 2, P. 12 and Vol. 3, P. 28-29), (Ibn Kathir: Tafsir Al- Qur'an Al- Azim: Vol. 3, P. 541). Therefore, the agent is not mentioned to honor and glorify Him.

24. Agent – focusing.

A correlate of the morphosyntactic changes to the verb in Modern Standard Arabic is a pragmatic function "agent defocusing" (Shibantani, 1985, P. 830, Myhill, 1997). Agent defocusing in Modern Standard Arabic occurs in two ways (i) defocusing the agent to the full extent, by deleting it, or (ii) defocusing it to some degree i.e. by allowing it to show up in the prepositional phrase in the rhematic position (Agentive / long passive). Nevertheless, agent – defocusing, contrary to common beliefs, should not be understood to be a form of downgrading the agent by moving it to the end position. The following examples illustrate this point:

72) "وَقَالُوا لَوْلَا نُزِّلَ عَلَيْهِ آيَةٌ مِنْ رَبِّهِ" (الأنعام: 37)

"They say "Why is not a sign sent down to him from his Lord!" (Al-An?ām: 37)

73) "قُلْ إِنَّمَا إِنبِيعَ مَا يُوحِي إِلَيَّ مِنْ رَبِّي" (الأعراف: 203)

"Say: "I but follow what **is revealed** to me **from my Lord**". (Al-A'rāf: 203).

The agent "min rabbi" is presented in this verse to show that the Holy Qur'an is revealed to Mohammad from Allah, but not from anybody else.

25. Presupposition

Another point that is worth mentioning has to do with the pragmatic notion of presupposition. Modern Standard Arabic presupposes the process and asserts the participants. The following verse is an illustrative example:

74) "يَا أَهْلَ الْكِتَابِ لِمَ تَحَاجُونِي فِي إِبْرَاهِيمَ وَمَا أَنْزَلْتُ التَّوْرَةَ وَالْإِنْجِيلَ إِلَّا مِنْ بَعْدِهِ أَفَلَا تَعْقِلُونَ" (آل عمران : 65)

"Ye people of the book! Why dispute ye about Abraham, when **the Torah and Gospel were not revealed** till after him? Have ye no understanding?" (Al- Imrān: 65)

Communicatively, the above passive construction could be an answer to the question "What happened?" what is presupposed, therefore, is, in Enkrst's words (1979, P. 137), "information that the speaker (His Almighty Allah in this context) believes that the recipients of the message already have." Thus the? unzilat" (were revealed) is presented as theme and old information and "? al – tawrah" (the Torah) and? al - ?injil" (the Gospel) counts as " new " information. Therefore, the passive form "? unzilat" (were revealed) coincides at the message, whereas the affected participant occurs as " new " within the rheme.

III. CONCLUSION

The facts presented in this paper demonstrate that voice is a grammatical category that exists in Arabic in general and in the Holy Qur'an in particular for certain purposes intended by the Almighty Allah. They also

prove it is one of the options available to native speakers of Arabic to express their viewpoints, value system, beliefs and assumptions through the semantic functions used to convey certain communicative functions.

Qur'anic discourse is linguistic scenery characterized by a rainbow of syntactic, semantic and rhetoric features that are distinct from other types of Arabic prose.

Through this study we tried to investigate the semantic and stylistic functions of the passive constructions in the Holy Qur'an. Such semantic functions are sometimes similar to those stated by the grammarians and sometimes they are different.

IV. IMPLICATION

Although this study is linguistically descriptive and is not pedagogically oriented, it may have, nonetheless, pedagogical implications for foreign language teachers, to diagnose and remedy the difficulties their students may encounter, translators, textbook writers, test makers, as well as syllabus designers.

Moreover, this study may be of great help to ESP practitioners, who are interested in preparing ESP teaching materials based on the analysis of this authentic text (The Holy Qur'an) and concerned with the semantic functions and meanings which are conveyed by the syntactic passive structures.

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The Language Question in the Teaching and Examination of 'A' Level Shona: A Case of Masvingo District in Zimbabwe

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Abstract—This paper investigates the perceptions of Zimbabwean teachers, examiners and pupils towards the shift from English to Shona in the teaching and examination of Advanced level ('A' level) Shona Paper 2 in a context where English, a foreign language, has always mediated the teaching and examining of this paper. The paper also attempts to discover the attendant impact that this linguistic shift has had on candidates' performance in the examinations. Research findings indicate that although the official policy advocates using Shona language to teach Shona, practice in some schools indicates a laissez-faire implementation of the policy where individual teachers continued to rely on English or, in some cases, code-switched from Shona to English during classroom interactions. Most teachers castigated the existing situation where there were more Shona Grammar textbooks written in English compared to Shona, a situation that demanded translation competence from teachers whose own college and university training had been done in English. However, the introduction of Shona in the teaching of 'A' level Shona Paper 2 has been widely welcomed as a development which has helped Zimbabwe retain her linguistic autonomy. The majority of respondents argued that it is intellectually cramping for learners to be expected to 'learn' their own language in a 'borrowed' language as this negates their performance in the national examinations. The paradox of this research, however, is that although the introduction of Shona has engendered a marked quantitative increase in the number of candidates passing ZIMSEC examinations, the quality of examination passes has been affected.

Index Terms—competence, quality, endoglossic/exoglossic language policy, medium of instruction

I. BACKGROUND

The question about which language(s) to use in education has been the subject of debate for long, drawing the attention of many language experts in Africa. Most African countries have preferred to use foreign languages as media of instruction and so mother tongue instruction has been largely sidelined. This has resulted in the compromisation of meaningful learning resulting in underachievement in public examinations. In most Southern African countries, language policies in Education are a direct consequence of our colonial history. In the Zimbabwean context, schools inherited a colonial education system where English was imposed as the language of instruction in the teaching-learning process. Such an exoglossic language policy meant that all subjects in the school curriculum, including the indigenous languages Shona and Ndebele, were taught through the medium of a foreign language, English, for reasons outlined below:

- Education in Zimbabwe was closely modeled on the British pattern both in content and organization and so teaching the content in indigenous languages would pose problems (Chikomba, 1988)
- Examinations came from various British examining boards such as London General Certificate of Education and the Cambridge Certificate. According to Jolly (1969), public examinations taken in secondary schools were versions (often unchanged) of those current in Britain and so there was broad agreement between missionaries who were initially responsible for the schools and colonial governments to use the second language as the medium of instruction.
- English, as the language of the dominant power was the vehicle for colonial elitism (Ngugi, 1987)
- English together with a highly selective examination system, ensured that education was limited to a small minority (Ngara, 1982)
- It was also for the obstruction or the deliberate undervaluing of a people's culture (Ngugi, 1987)
- The absence of a strong political will among leaders to genuinely promote and develop indigenous languages to appreciable levels of modernity.

For these and other reasons, indigenous languages were relegated to the fringes and confined to the informal sector in what has been perceived as "the relatively unimportant family, social and cultural domains" (Chimhundu, 1993, p. 41). This saw English becoming the language of the school, government, administration, commerce etc. creating a situation where the language at school became strange to the learners.

However, the continued use of English in post independent Zimbabwe at the expense of indigenous languages has been an issue embroiled in much controversy among language experts, parents, teachers and school pupils themselves with some frowning upon the prospect of adopting an endoglossic language policy where indigenous languages are the media of instruction.

Since independence in 1980, gradual effort has been made to get Zimbabweans accept that mother tongue can be effectively employed for educational purposes. For instance, through the Education Act of 1987(as amended in 1990) in Section 55 of Part XI which is headed "Languages to be taught in schools", Shona and Ndebele which are national languages were introduced for the first time as media of instruction only up to grade 3. The Education Act of 1987 states that "Prior to the fourth grade, either Shona or Ndebele may be used as the medium of instruction. From the Fourth grade, English shall be the medium of instruction provided that Shona or Ndebele shall be taught as subjects..." (Nziramasanga, 1999, p. 156). Limiting the introduction of indigenous languages up to grade 3 and the use of the word 'may' reflect half-hearted attempts by the reality definers of the day to fully indigenise the curriculum. It meant that the prerogative to use indigenous languages remained a preserve of the teacher. Even when Shona and Ndebele were taught as subjects, they were taught and examined in English. As an example, fifteen years after independence, the 1995 'A' level Shona Paper 2 still has instructions and questions given in both English and Shona and students were expected to answer the Grammar section of this paper entirely in English. All this is indicative of how difficult it has been to accept the use of indigenous languages in the classroom as if to imply that African languages lack the technical and scientific terms needed to understand today's complex world (Obanya, 1992).

The Education Act was only revised in 2006 where mother tongue instruction was extended up to Grade 7. This means that despite gaining her political independence a long way back, Zimbabwe's language policy has remained largely exoglossic where a foreign language has continued to dominate the linguistic landscape of the country.

However, this limited introduction of indigenous languages in the teaching-learning process has resulted in a chorus of voices decrying the use of indigenous languages that were perceived as less developed for use in the classroom (Obanya, 1992). In some sectors, such sentiments have been viewed as colonial mentality with arguments being proffered to refute claims of indigenous languages being handicapped to incorporate knowledge. For instance, African languages have proved that this is possible as they have done over the years through coinages and adaptations (Kottey, 1977). Moreover, "these languages which are world languages of communication today were once considered 'languages of the barbarians', unfit for the communication of knowledge at the time when Greek and Latin were the languages of civilization par excellence" (Mkandawire, 2005, p.176) and the argument is this can also happen to African languages.

II. A BRIEF HISTORY OF SHONA TEACHING IN ZIMBABWE

The Zimbabwean linguistic landscape shows that there are 16 indigenous languages spoken in the country which include Shona, Ndebele, Tonga, Venda, Shangaan, Nambya, and Kalanga. Shona is by far the most spoken language by at least 75% of the Zimbabwean population followed by Ndebele which is spoken by up to 16.5 % (Hachipola, 1996). In contrast, the percentage of the population for whom English is the mother tongue is quite small, about 3.5%. Despite this distribution, it is English, a minority language, that has become the official language of instruction elbowing Shona and Ndebele which are spoken by about 91.5% when put together. Because of their wide demographic and geographic distribution, Doke in 1931 recommended that Shona and Ndebele gain the status of major languages of Zimbabwe and consequently, these have been taught as subjects up to university level. Unfortunately, the teaching and examining of some components of these major languages has been mediated through another language, English, a situation that Jalling (1969) calls "teaching about the language as opposed to teaching the language itself" (p. 44).

Doke's works on the unification of the Shona dialects formed a basis for the development of literature in Shona and in 1957 Shona was introduced as an examinable subject at 'O'level where Paper 2 (Grammar section) was taught and examined in English. At 'A' level, Shona as a subject was introduced in 1977 and divided into three examinable papers, namely Paper 1, Paper 2 and Paper 3. Paper 1 which comprises Rondedzero (Composition), Nzwisiso (Comprehension) and Pfupiso (Summary) has always been taught and examined in Shona even from colonial times. On the other hand, Paper 3 on Uvaranomwe (Literature) was taught and examined through the media of both English and Shona where the prerogative was left on the teacher to choose on the language for his own group of pupils though most chose English. This Paper became purely Shona mediated as early as 1983 and this meant that only Paper 2 with Mhenenguro (Practical Criticism) and Dudziramutauro (Grammar) continued to be taught and examined in English until as late as 2006 when curriculum planners, amid public outcry and resistance, resolved that this Paper too be taught and examined only in Shona. The interest of the researchers of this current investigation has been drawn by the questions which have continued to be asked on the wisdom of this 2006 decision to depart from teaching and examining Shona in English as some people seem to suggest that we revert to the colonial set up. It is against this background that the researchers decided to investigate the different attitudes of teachers and pupils towards the introduction of Shona as the only medium of instruction in 'A' level teaching of Shona Paper 2 that has been subject of so much debate given that Paper 3 of the same subject switched to Shona 3 years after independence, yet, it took this Paper 26 years after independence before it began to be taught and examined in Shona. What one can draw from this is that policy makers are still undecided on whether to adopt an endoglossic or exoglossic language policy.

III. METHODOLOGY

In carrying out this study the research design adopted was mainly qualitative and data was collected through observation, questionnaires and interviews involving twenty teachers and fifty pupils from purposively sampled rural, urban, boarding, day, mission and government secondary schools in Masvingo district. The population comprised twenty-four secondary schools with 'A' levels in the district. Ten schools representing all school types in the district were randomly selected. All 'A' level Shona teachers from the selected high schools and five randomly selected 'A' level Shona pupils from each school formed the sample. Their involvement was meant to get views from the key participants in the teaching –learning process. The researchers hoped that these two groups of participants who interfaced with the 'A' level Shona teaching-learning process on a daily basis had different perceptions concerning the use of Shona as the only medium of instruction in the teaching of Shona paper 2 which used to be taught and examined through English from 1975 up to 2006.

Questionnaires were distributed to the thirty teachers and eighty students. The questions mainly focused on their attitudes towards Shona as a language and as a subject as well as any perceived challenges of using Shona as a medium of instruction in teaching 'A' level Shona Paper 2. The questionnaires allowed respondents to express their views, perceptions and beliefs freely. The response rate was 100%.

Two interview schedules were also drafted, one for teachers and the other one for pupils. Interviews were held with both teachers and pupils to verify data collected through questionnaires. Interview questions could be explained and rephrased whenever respondents failed to understand.

IV. FINDINGS

Generally the research yielded mixed feelings towards the use of Shona as a medium of instruction in the teaching of Shona at 'A' level. Critical analysis of the findings reveals that 24 teachers (80%) and 69 pupils (86%) have accepted the move towards the use of Shona as directed by the Ministry against 6 teachers (20%) and 11 pupils (14%) who seemed to favour English-mediated Shona lessons.

There are several reasons why the majority of teachers and pupils alike welcome the teaching of Shona through Shona as opposed to using English. One major reason was that both teachers and pupils argued that they were more proficient in Shona than in English, a foreign language. Teachers and pupils showed that using Shona ensured that real and meaningful interaction and communication marked all Shona lessons as opposed to using an alien tongue which was likely to breed ineffective teaching techniques such as chorus teaching, rote learning, memorization and recall. The above findings buttress Moyana (1989)'s argument that education can only harness pupils' full potential when done in the learner's language.

Apart from that, most teachers indicated that though the 'A' level Shona pass-rate has been significantly rising since the introduction of Shona as the language of instruction in 2006, in essence, the quality of the passes has gone down. This was evidenced by 'A' level results for different years at three schools spanning from a period when English was used as the medium of instruction and when Shona replaced it.

TABLE 1:
'A' LEVEL SHONA RESULTS FOR 4 YEARS

School	Year	Total Number of Shona Candidates	A Grade	B Grade	C Grade	D Grade	E Grade	O Grade	F Grade	% Pass rateTE
X	2002	45	1	5	5	11	9	10	4	68.9%
	2004	42	1	7	9	8	6	8	3	73.8%
	2006	37	-	6	17	6	7	1	-	97.3%
	2010	33	-	2	15	10	6	-	-	100.0%
Y	2002	30	-	1	3	8	8	6	4	66.7%
	2004	44	1	3	12	11	10	5	2	84.1%
	2006	36	1	2	10	12	9	2	-	94.4%
	2010	22	-	5	3	7	6	1	-	95.5%
Z	2002	25	-	2	2	7	4	8	2	60.0%
	2004	30	-	1	12	9	3	4	1	83.3%
	2006	28	-	1	11	10	5	1	-	96.4%
	2010	32	1	2	13	14	-	2	-	93.8%

What the results confirm is that the Shona pass rate has generally increased since Shona replaced English as the medium of instruction in teaching Shona. However, in some instances, the quality of passes has generally gone down. It is the quantitative imperatives of this pass rate that teachers argue reflect how the use of Shona can benefit a large number of candidates.

Though there could be other reasons to explain the above marked improvement in the Shona 'A' level pass rate, at face value, it would appear that generally the introduction of Shona has injected impetus in pupil's performance as reflected by the pass rate. An interviewed teacher who also happened to be an examiner of this paper indicated that in

the external examinations, pupils could now elaborate their answers clearly with minimal grammatical errors. Teachers attributed this to the fact that pupils could now conceptualise abstract ideas and express themselves clearly in their own mother language. The teachers stressed that a great injustice had been committed against the pupils all along by depriving them of their language implying that pupils who had shown potential in their Shona classes in years gone by but had failed their Shona examinations could easily have passed had Shona been introduced a little earlier. Pupils augmented the teachers' views by arguing that the Grammar and Practical Criticism components which hitherto had proved the most difficult and daunting areas had overnight become easier since they were now taught and examined through a familiar language. Pupils indicated that they could now easily engage in group discussions with less consultations of their teachers because their homes and rural backgrounds were sites and rich sources of the language.

Both teachers and pupils viewed teaching and learning Shona through their own language as an indispensable springboard towards reclaiming their lost cultural identity and independence since languages serve as means of transmitting and preserving cultural values. In teachers' views, instruction in the mother-tongue contributes in significant ways to the cultural affection of the child more than instruction in a foreign language. Thus, they claimed that the earlier policy of teaching Shona in English had estranged pupils to their cultural heritage, creating cultural hybrids that were half-baked in either English or Shona culture, an indication that it is difficult to take away a child's first language without adverse consequences. To many teachers and pupils, the use of Shona as the only medium of instruction in the paper had restored their pride in the mother tongue.

The teachers together with their pupils indicated that they were excited by the introduction of Shona as the only medium of instruction in Shona. This was marked by high participation of pupils during the Shona lessons. More to that, examples during lessons were easily drawn and given in context from the language and culture which they all knew. Using a language they understood best actually motivated pupils in the subject because they were comfortable with it unlike in the other subjects where English is the official medium. One pupil summed it up when he said, "*Chirungu chinogozha and ukachivhuna vamwe vanokuseka zvokuti unozotya kutaura muclass*" [Expressing oneself in English is difficult and if you communicate in broken English, colleagues will laugh at you making you ill prepared to contribute in class in future.] Thus, their argument was that Shona-mediated lessons were quite lively and interesting.

However, some teachers and pupils despised the use of Shona as a medium of instruction in Shona teaching supporting the use of English. A number of reasons were cited in support of their opinions.

One major reason why teachers frowned upon the use of Shona as a medium of instruction in the teaching of Shona was premised on the argument that they were used to teaching Shona grammar in English. Evidence also showed that most of these teachers had trained in Shona at the various colleges and universities where the subject was taught in English and so in their first years of using Shona to teach Shona, they lacked the appropriate Shona vocabulary, thereby creating a lot of confusion due to code-switching. Because the new terminology used in Grammar was not in their day to day vocabulary, they were forced to memorise the terms. Teachers indicated that it was not an easy task for them as adults to master the new terms as quickly as was expected and as a result they were discouraged by the tiresome exercise.

Apart from that, teachers (56%) complained that their lack of competence in using Shona has been worsened by the fact that there are few textbooks written in Shona to enrich the teaching-learning process. They pointed out that the most available Shona textbooks were actually written in English. They also complained that it was not only textbooks that were written in English but the language of the syllabus and the examination reports was not very helpful as it remained foreign to teachers and pupils' classroom practice. The teachers gave a catalogue of the widely used 'A' level Shona Paper 2 textbooks and the linguistic medium used to write them as given below:

TABLE 2:
'A' LEVEL GRAMMAR TEXTBOOKS AND THE LINGUISTIC MEDIUM USED.

Title	Author	Language used
Dudziramutauo	Warinda, C and Mashiri, P	Shona
Jekesa Pfungwa 3	Chakamba,	English
Focus Study Aids	Chigidi, W	English
Grammatical Constructions vol 1	Fortune, G	English
Grammatical Constructions vol 2	Fortune, G	English
Ziva Mutauro	Mutokonyi, F.R	Shona

Cursory analysis of the above texts reveals that a crisis has been created by the dearth of material written in Shona as most texts are written in a language alien to the pupil's learning. What is interesting is that the majority of these texts, though written in English, have actually been written by Shona-speaking scholars. The implication drawn from all this is that the burden of translating the material into Shona lies heavy on the teachers' shoulders, some of whom might lack the requisite experience and knowledge to do so. In other words, the campaign to indigenize the 'A' level Shona Paper 2 has struck a wrong cord because there seems to be a disjunction between what policy makers advocate for and the reality on the book shelves. The attendant consequence of this scenario is that some teachers have no confidence when teaching this paper because they face challenges when translating English ideas into Shona.

The teachers further indicated that the challenge of using Shona as a medium in teaching Shona Paper 2 stemmed from the fact that they were not sure of the Shona terms which had been agreed upon in the 2006 Shona harmonization

workshop held in Mutare by the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU) because the document had not been circulated to schools but only benefited those who attended the workshop. They argued that the problem with this development was that the grammar textbooks used in schools invariably used different Shona terms for the same linguistic term thereby creating challenges for teachers and pupils. As an example, the table below contrasts the terms used in two widely used 'A' level texts:

TABLE 3:
SHONA GRAMMAR TERMS USED IN DIFFERENT SHONA TEXTBOOKS

Text:1 Zivamutauro	Text:2 Dudziramutauro	English Equivalent
<i>Chivakazwi</i>	<i>Chivakazwi</i>	Morpheme
<i>susukidza</i>	<i>Chitsigisi</i>	Stabiliser
<i>Chiratidzabato</i>	<i>Chiratidzamupanda</i>	class affix
<i>Mapato</i>	<i>Mipanda</i>	Noun classes
<i>chivakamberi</i>	<i>Dzitsi</i>	Stem
<i>tambanudzachiito</i>	<i>Rebeso</i>	Extension
<i>taridzarambo</i>	<i>Chiranduri</i>	Negative inflection
<i>chiitowando</i>	<i>Chiitogama</i>	Auxiliary verb
<i>taridzamuridzi</i>	<i>Chirevamwene</i>	Possessive

The above table concedes that Shona, as a language, does not lack the technical vocabulary to describe concepts and this contradicts Phillipson's (1992) argument that African languages should not be used as media of instruction because they are not endowed with "highly developed technical and scientific terminology" (p.278). However, teachers have expressed that the Shona texts that are on the bookshelves have been published independent of each other. They complained that this lack of co-ordination in efforts to indigenize the Shona grammar textbooks has created discord in the terminology used in various schools thereby creating a situation where teachers and students alike get confused by the constant flux of terminology depending on the text they are currently using and this poses problems for a new teacher. For instance, if the English term 'class affix' is known in one text as '*chiratidzabato*' and in another as '*chiratidzamupanda*', such disharmony can only disorient and confuse teachers and pupils during lessons. Pupils compounded this argument when they expressed how confusing it was when they revised Shona past examination papers with pupils from other schools or those who have used different textbooks where pupils would argue over the appropriate terminology to use.

To add to the above problem, a document in which the agreed linguistic terms were published after the 2006 Mutare Workshop by the invited specialists which could have become handy has not been made available to all schools. Teachers have, thus, been made to rely on the above textbooks like Dudziramutauro, Ziva Mutauro and Jekesa Pfungwa which, as seen in the table above, use different terminology to describe similar concepts. It will appear, however, that one factor that continues to militate against quality performance by pupils in the Shona Paper 2 examinations issues from use of inappropriate terminology. For instance, a comment from the Zimbabwe School Examinations Council (ZIMSEC) 2007 Shona Report on reasons why pupils had performed poorly in the 2007 examinations indicates that candidates "lacked the appropriate terminology or they produced incoherent and sometimes meaningless statements." What this demonstrates is that as long as the grammatical terms which have been agreed upon are not circulated to all schools, differences in terminology will always haunt Shona teachers and the quality of pupils' grades will continue to hog the light.

Suggestions from 22% of the respondents have been that the grammar content should continue to be taught in English or that schools continue to be given an option to choose a language of their choice. They based their argument on what one teacher summed up as "unusually long *unShona* terms" found in the Shona textbooks which were not used in day to day life. Teachers quoted terms such as '*ndevobonga*' [clause], '*ndevobongasimboti*' [main clause], '*chiratidzanguva chenguva ichauya*' [future tense sign], *nzvovera* [vowel], *nzvanyira* [consonant] etc. which they described as frightening and absent in their everyday communication. Some teachers (27%) also indicated that Shona had actually become more difficult than before and this had seen the number of pupils doing Shona at A level plummeting in their schools when compared to the period when English was used. They attributed this development to the introduction of difficult new Shona terms which were a mouthful for both teacher and pupil.

During lesson observations, the researchers discovered that lessons were very lively and marked by high pupil participation. Some of the observations which were made by the researchers are summed up below:

- A lot of code-switching from Shona to English was noticed during the teaching- learning process. Teachers borrowed words from English, the former medium and the researchers felt that this has a debilitating effect on pupils' performance since end of year examinations are examined and written in Shona.
- There were limited resources written in Shona and forced teachers to resort to grammar textbooks written in English which will end up confusing pupils since they will be required to translate the English notes into Shona.
- There is a general lack of interest in learning through Shona in some schools because some feel that best education can only be delivered through English.
- Most high school teachers have been trained in English at Universities and Colleges and therefore are not very comfortable to teach in Shona.

- The Shona syllabus is still in English and this poses difficulties in translation.
- Shona examination reports which are sent to schools are written in English.
- Pupils resorted to memorizing Shona grammatical terms pointing out that the terms did not exist in everyday language.

V. DISCUSSION

The major purpose of this study was to investigate the attitudes of teachers and pupils towards the use of Shona as a medium of instruction in the teaching and examination of 'A' level Shona Paper 2 which unexplainably is the only Shona paper that continued to be taught in English, 26 years after Zimbabwe gained independence. Although independence had ushered in a new language policy dispensation where Shona replaced English as the medium of instruction in teaching Shona, only this Paper in question had defied this change. The researchers of this paper, therefore, set out to investigate whether teachers and pupils perceived Shona as inherently inferior to English or not, the impact that the switch to Shona from English had engendered as well as any challenges this switch posed.

The study has shown that the introduction of Shona as the medium of instruction was accepted by the majority as essential. One reason was that, the continued subordination of Shona to English in a post-colonial epoch is viewed as wielding the potent to push this indigenous language into extinction and stagnation as well as lead to cultural deracination where the Shona cultural heritage crumbles as pupils end up imbibing and internalizing the English norms. The paper established that Shona, as the mother tongue, helps harness pupils' full potential in the subject as they are more proficient in Shona than in English.

Evidence has also proved that Shona is as rich as any other language, capable of coping with its immediate realities and can expand its linguistic repertoire to cope with new experiences. This is reflected by the publication of a number of Shona textbooks with wide technical vocabulary to describe terms hitherto understood only in English. However, the study showed that there is lack of co-ordination in efforts to develop the technical vocabulary for use by schools as writers of textbooks coin the new terms independent of each other. This has created discord in the way Shona terms are construed and understood by teachers and pupils who use different textbooks, a situation which teachers argued might result in pupils' passes being of low quality.

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS

Basing on the findings of this study, the researchers hail the use of Shona as important but recommend that:

- if Shona is to be used as a medium effectively, teachers should be well grounded in it and the use of Shona as medium of teaching Shona should be extended up to college and university level as a preparatory phase for effective instruction later after graduation.
- the 'A' level Shona textbooks, syllabus and examination reports should not be written in English but in very clear Shona so that both teachers and pupils can interpret them without any difficulties and improve on areas of concern.
- the new dictionary on linguistic terminology and literature entitled *Duramazwi reUvaranomwe neDudziramutauro* which has been published should be made easily available to the teachers and pupils.
- teachers who trained through the medium of English need staff development especially from the examiners so that they can be sure of what is needed in the Paper.

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Court Interpreters View of Language Use in Subordinate Courts in Nyanza Province, Kenya

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Abstract—This paper presents the views of the court interpreters about language use in courts in Kenya. Kenya is a multilingual country with over 42 languages. In such a heterogeneous society, language issues in official communication become intricate as those who do not understand the languages designated as official are discriminated against. In the legal sphere, the policy is that English and Kiswahili are the official languages of courtroom communication while interpreters are provided for those who do not understand English. Hence the courts are multilingual in nature and it is against this background of the use of various languages that this paper examines the views of the court interpreter on the various languages used in courtroom communication. A survey design was used in this study. The study population comprised court interpreters from selected subordinate courts in Nyanza province, Kenya. Purposive sampling was used to select the court interpreters. Data for the study was generated through questionnaire administered to the court interpreters.

Index Terms—subordinate courts, court interpreters, language use, Dholuo, Kenya

I. INTRODUCTION

Kenya is a multilingual country with over 42 languages with two official languages (Mbaabu, 1996). In the legal sphere, to entrench the use of English, the Criminal Procedure Code CAP 75 (1987) declares English as the official language of the High Court and a provision for interpreters for litigants who do not speak and understand English. The language of the Lower Court is either English or Kiswahili, depending on the linguistic setting and the linguistic competence of the judicial officers. In addition, the law provides that the litigants be informed of the charge against them in a language they understand and speak. This means that Kenyan courts are bilingual or to be exact multilingual. Hence inequality in our courts is created by linguistic diversity that is supposed to reduce inequality and where a dialogue involves persons of unequal linguistic efficiency, injustice is likely to result. Therefore, the litigants who do not speak and understand English are excluded from the discourse in court, even if they have competent representation from a lawyer. They therefore lose the right to participate in a trial, which concerns them directly except in the presence of an interpreter.

This means that when an advocate or prosecutor communicates with a non-English speaking litigant, it must be by means of an interpreter which implies that the interpreter must be able to communicate adequately in both English, when speaking to an English speaking litigant and in the other language, when speaking to a non-English speaking litigant. In the legal setting, linguistic competence of the interpreter in both languages must therefore include a strong command of legal vocabulary and the equivalence (or non-equivalence) of terms and concepts across languages (Gonzalez, Vasquez and Mikkelsen, 1991). Otherwise the aim of providing unimpeded access to legal services will be compromised.

For an average person, confrontation with the criminal justice system is a frightening experience as most people enter the courtroom with little or no knowledge of courtroom procedure or language. The situation is exacerbated when the court actors are speaking in a language that the litigants do not understand totally or do not understand well. This is often the case for people who stand accused in Kenyan courts where the majority of the litigants do not speak the language of the courts (Kinyanjui, 2000).

Research conducted on bilingual discourse suggests that language barriers are often identified as the most frequent impediment to legal discourse (Berk-Seligson, 1990; Gonzalez, Vasquez and Mikkelsen, 2000; Mikkelsen, 1998). This is in addition to the various strategies that the advocates employ in questioning (Penman, 1990). A legal discourse encounter relies primarily on verbal communication and various strategies may be employed to achieve this. The use of interpreters is therefore recommended when the advocate-litigant communication is limited by language difficulties.

Language Use in Courts in Kenya

In the Kenyan legal system, English is used as the official language of communication. The Judicature Act Cap 8, Section 194 (4) of the Criminal Procedure Code, and Section 86 (1) of the Criminal Procedure Act, state that English shall be the official language of communication in the country's courts. The courts thus assume monolingualism, and hence when dealing with litigants who do not understand English, interpretation is provided for.

As English is the language of courtroom communication, this study is cognizant of the fact that it is also the language of training for the advocates, magistrates and prosecutors, who encounter non-English speaking litigants. The non-English speaking litigants are disadvantaged and to make sure they effectively participate in their trials, interpreters are provided for.

With English as the official language of courtroom communication, the language of court records will normally be English. Hence the magistrate will heavily rely on the interpreter's efficiency in the process of interpretation to keep an accurate record of the proceedings. The litigants who do not speak English have a right not only to understand the charges against them and the court proceedings, but also to a trial that is substantially in their own language. The right to use a language that one is well versed in should therefore not be regarded as conditional on the litigant. It therefore requires the court to accommodate the litigants' preference to use their own language. This paper seeks to establish language use in Kenyan courts through the eyes of the court interpreter in light of language use in selected subordinate courts in Nyanza province, Kenya.

II. METHODOLOGY

The aim of this paper is to present the views of court interpreters towards language use in subordinate courts in Nyanza Province. A survey design was used in this study and the data used were procured from the responses provided by the interpreters to the closed-ended questions in a questionnaire. The population of this study comprises of interpreters from selected courts in Nyanza province. The choice of the courts is informed by the fact that the residents in these districts are functionally bilinguals but with very strong affinity to their mother tongue (Dholuo). This means that they will tend to use Dholuo in courtroom communication and hence use the services of an interpreter. The research area in this study is drawn from the subordinate courts in Nyanza Province of Kenya. Nyanza Province is one of the eight (8) provinces in Kenya which include Nairobi, Western, Rift Valley, Eastern, Central, Coast and North Eastern. Nyanza Province had eleven Districts at the time this research was being carried out. The districts are: Kisii Central, Kisii North, Kisii South, Kuria, Migori, Homabay, Rachuonyo, Nyando, Kisumu, Siaya, and Bondo.

In analyzing the data from the questionnaires, descriptive statistics are used. The organized data showed what the responses to the statements in the questionnaires were in frequencies and percentages. The descriptive statistics were provided through frequency distribution tables, which gave information on how common certain phenomena were. Due to this, it was relatively simple to determine the demographic information and language use in court.

The statistics generated by SPSS provided the researcher with the following ways of tabulating the results: Frequency distribution tables and Percentages.

A total of 10 questionnaires were distributed to the interpreters operating in selected subordinate courts in Nyanza Province. The return rate was 100%. The background data of the samples of the interpreters are discussed here in Tables 1- 7. Note that in some cases the interpreters left certain categories blank and these were recorded as missing values.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents an analysis of the data collected during the field work conducted in selected subordinate courts in Nyanza Province. This section highlights the results based on the responses provided in the interpreters' questionnaire. The items in this questionnaire provided for self-evaluation in answering the items. The discussion in this section comprises four sections: the first section presents an overview of the general and linguistic characteristics of the interpreters; the second section highlights the language use profile in court, which will specifically highlight: the rate of proficiency of the interpreters in English, Kiswahili and Dholuo, language combination proficiency, and languages interpreters frequently use in court. It will also deal with the language frequently used by litigants in court, and the preferred language interpreters use with legal professionals in court.

The background information of the respondents in terms of gender, age, mother tongue, other languages spoken, level of education, experience, and formal training as interpreter revealed the following information about the interpreters.

General and linguistic characteristics of the respondents

The general and linguistic characteristics of the interpreters include age, gender, mother-tongue, other languages spoken, education level, length of service as an interpreter and formal interpreter training.

Gender: There were only two female and eight male respondents who participated in the study. Gender was unlikely to skew the results of the study as no item in the questionnaire was considered gender sensitive. The results of gender are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
GENDER

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	8	80%
Female	2	20%
Total	10	100%

Age: 60% of the interpreters who participated in the study were aged between 30 and 35 and they were the majority. A total of 30% were in their twenties. The data also showed that the youngest interpreter was 27 and the oldest was 45 years. This information is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
AGE

Age	Frequency	Percentage
27	1	11%
29	2	22%
30	2	22%
32	2	22%
34	1	11%
35	1	11%
45	1	11%
Total	10	100%

Mother-tongue: A hundred percent (100%) of the respondents indicated that their mother-tongue was Dholuo. This is accounted for by the fact that the respondents were purposively sampled for in the study and the region of the study is predominantly inhabited by speakers of Dholuo. This is shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
MOTHER-TONGUE

Mother-tongue	Frequency	Percentage
Dholuo	10	100%
Total	10	100%

Other languages spoken: The interpreters were asked to indicate other languages that they spoke. The idea of other languages implies the other languages that interpreters spoke in addition to mother tongue. All of them cited English and Kiswahili as the other language that they spoke. The fact that all the interpreters cited English and Kiswahili pointed towards the fact that the language policy in the subordinate courts required the use of either English and Kiswahili as alternative languages. In addition, English and Kiswahili are taught in schools it therefore follows that since these interpreters were educated at least up to form 4 level they must have been exposed to English and Kiswahili. This is shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4:
OTHER LANGUAGES SPOKEN

Language	Frequency	Percent
English	10	100%
Kiswahili	10	100%

Education Level: All the interpreters in this study had attained form four level of education. This was a very important variable because for one to be employed as interpreter one must have at least form four level of education. Out of the interpreters who answered the questionnaire 60% reported that they had attended post-secondary school colleges. The reported college level education courses were courses that were not relevant to their work as interpreters. This information is shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5:
EDUCATION LEVEL

Level	Frequency	Percent
Secondary	4	40%
College	6	60%
Total	10	100%

Length of service as an interpreter: As shown in Table 6 the interpreters had varied number of years in their service as interpreters. The interpreter with the shortest service period was 1 year and the interpreter with the longest service period was 9 years. The others ranged from 4 years to 8 years of service.

TABLE 6:
LENGTH OF SERVICE

Years	Frequency	Percentage
1	1	10%
4	1	10%
5	2	20%
6	2	20%
7	1	10%
8	1	10%
9	1	10%
Missing value	1	10%
Total	10	100%

Formal interpreter training: In order to establish whether the interpreters had received formal training in interpretation, the interpreters were asked whether they had undergone any formal training as interpreters. 10% reported that they had been trained, 80% reported that they had not been trained while 10% did not answer this item. In terms of training even the 10% who reported that they had been trained placed a rider that the training was not court interpreter training but sign-language interpreter training.

The lack of training of the court interpreters is an indication that many litigants who come to court use the services of untrained interpreters. This further indicates the need for training of the court interpreters. One means of addressing the barriers facing people who do not understand the language of the court in participating in the justice system is to provide professional development for the court interpreters. This is shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7:
FORMAL INTERPRETER TRAINING

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	1	10%
No	8	80%
Missing Value	1	10%
Total	10	100%

Based on the background information presented in Tables 1-7, some conclusions can be arrived at about the interpreters. Firstly, all the interpreters are multilingual. This is due to the fact that they speak Dholuo as their mother-tongue as well as English and Kiswahili being languages that they learned at school. These three languages are also the working languages in the subordinate court where the data was collected. The second conclusion one can arrive at is that all the interpreters have had a minimum of 12 years of education. This is based on the statistics derived from Table 5 which indicates that all of the interpreters have had secondary education with 60% of them furthering their education up to college level. The third conclusion is that the interpreters reported that they have had no formal training in interpretation and thus there is a need for interpreter training programme. It is important at this point to note that the research did not delve into actual interpreter training but dealt with issues of training as reported by the interpreters.

The previous section has dealt with the background of the interpreters. This section deals with language related issues in court. Specifically, it deals with individual language proficiency rating of the interpreters, language combination proficiency rating, languages frequently used in court by the interpreters, languages frequently used by litigants and languages the interpreters use with legal professionals in court.

The interpreters were asked to state their proficiency in the use of Kiswahili, English and Dholuo as individual languages. The notion of proficiency was pre-coded on the questionnaire under four categories namely: EXCELLENT, GOOD, AVERAGE, and POOR. Table 8 shows the self-rated proficiency of the interpreters.

TABLE 8:
RATE OF PROFICIENCY IN INDIVIDUAL LANGUAGES

Language	Rating							
	Excellent		Good		Average		Poor	
	Freq	Per	Freq	Per	Freq	Per	Freq	Per
English	-	-	8	80%	2	20%	-	-
Kiswahili	1	10%	6	60%	3	30%	-	-
Dholuo	4	40%	6	60%	-	-	-	-

As can be observed in Table 8, most of the interpreters felt that their proficiency in Kiswahili was GOOD and EXCELLENT. Out of the interpreters who participated in the study, 60% of the interpreters felt that their Kiswahili was GOOD while 10% rated their Kiswahili as EXCELLENT. However, a small number 30% felt that they were average in Kiswahili.

All the interpreters rated their proficiency in Dholuo as GOOD and EXCELLENT. This rating was also expected since they had earlier stated that their mother-tongue was Dholuo in Table 3. It could therefore be inconceivable for them to report that they were not GOOD or EXCELLENT speakers of their mother-tongue. The fact that 40% reported that they were EXCELLENT and 60% reported that they were GOOD indicates that they have a very vibrant mother-tongue use. The high proficiency of Dholuo among court interpreters could be attributed to the fact that the regions

where the courts are situated are predominantly Dholuo-speaking regions and hence the high level of self-rated proficiency in Dholuo. At this point it is important to note that this research aimed to assess perceived proficiency and not actual level of proficiency as audio recorded on the data on discourse in court.

The next language to be rated by the interpreters is English. Table 8 shows that the interpreters rated their English as GOOD and AVERAGE. Of the respondents who participated in the study, 80% of the interpreters rated their English as GOOD, while 20% rated their English as AVERAGE. This result was largely expected as the interpreters could not report that their English was fair or poor. This may have been influenced by the fact that all the interpreters had undergone secondary level of education, where the medium of instruction is English. It must also be remembered that English is the official language of communication in Kenyan courts and therefore the interpreters may have wanted to show that they are proficient in the language. There may also have been a link between the self-rated proficiency in English with the demand for accurate alternation between Dholuo and English with some level of proficiency.

The frequency and percentage figures in Table 8 shows a continued vibrancy in Dholuo, Kiswahili and English, and one can deduce that the interpreters are bilinguals. Bilingualism has been defined in different ways by different scholars. Valdes and Figuera (1994) see bilingualism as a condition in which there are two language systems in one individual. In terms of competence, Lavandera (1978) explains that those who use both languages for everyday use can be differentiated from those who use only one. Valdes and Figuera (1994) further agree that it is not an easy task to provide a concrete and unambiguous definition of bilingualism. Bassnet-Mcguire (1980) notes that interpreters play a vital role as linguistic intermediaries. It is therefore imperative that persons who serve as linguistic intermediaries be not only proficient in their working languages but also cognizant of how linguistic forms are dependent for effective communication. Thus, while language is the prime factor in linguistic interchange, accurate communication is important. In keeping with the focus of this research, the interpreters can therefore be classified as bilinguals in terms of their functional ability to use more than two languages. The interpreters' bilingual skills were only observed in the legal setting, determined by their general level of alternation between the Dholuo, English and Kiswahili.

The interpreters were asked to rate their own proficiency in the three language combinations that they frequently use during interpretation. The language combinations are; Dholuo-English, Dholuo- Kiswahili, and Kiswahili-English. The proficiency level was pre-coded as, VERY PROFICIENT, PROFICIENT, AVERAGE and POOR. Table 9 illustrates how the interpreters rated their own proficiency in the language combinations that they use in court.

TABLE 9:
LANGUAGE COMBINATION PROFICIENCY

Language combination	Rating							
	Very proficient		Proficient		Average		Poor	
	Freq	Per	Freq	Per	Freq	Per	Freq	Per
Kiswahili-English	1	10%	7	70%	1	10%	1	10%
Dholuo-English	3	30%	5	50%	2	20%	-	-
Dholuo- Kiswahili	2	20%	5	50%	3	30%	-	-

The Kiswahili –English language combination shows some favourable rating. A total of 80% of the respondents were both VERY PROFICIENT and PROFICIENT. Another 10% was AVERAGE while another 10% were POOR. It is worth noting that both the languages are designated official language of communication in court and thus to have 20% of respondents both AVERAGE and POOR shows that they cannot communicate proficiently in the official languages of the court.

In the case of Dholuo - English, the interpreters felt that their command of Dholuo-English combination was proficient. A total of 30% of the interpreters reported VERY PROFICIENT and 50% reported PROFICIENT. This self-rated proficiency when compared to the rate of proficiency in individual languages as shown in Table 8 suggests that the interpreters were reliable in assessing their proficiency. For example, in terms of proficiency in Dholuo 60% of the interpreters rated themselves as GOOD while 40% rated themselves as EXCELLENT. The interpreters therefore rated their proficiency at a high level due to the nature of their duty, that of alternating from one language to another, which calls for a high level of proficiency to communicate with both parties.

The results in Table 9 indicate that the respondents felt that they had a high level of proficiency in the language combination of Dholuo-Kiswahili. A total number of 70% rated themselves both VERY PROFICIENT and PROFICIENT. There might very well be a link between this perceived proficiency and the use of Kiswahili as one of the official languages of courtroom communication.

The results of the self-rated language combination proficiency show that most of the interpreters are proficient in the three languages that were used in communication in court as follows: Dholuo-English 80% both VERY PROFICIENT and PROFICIENT, Dholuo-Kiswahili 70% VERY PROFICIENT and PROFICIENT, Kiswahili-English 80% VERY PROFICIENT and PROFICIENT.

It is, however, important to note that in such questions that require the respondents to rate their own proficiency, the respondents might well have rated themselves higher for every language combination because they would like to be seen as proficient interpreters rather than what they really are. For the purposes of this study, we know that we are dealing with interpreters who may want to be proficient in the two official languages of the subordinate court, English and Kiswahili and their mother-tongue, Dholuo.

Bassnet-Mcguire (1980) notes that bilingualism or fluency in two languages is a pertinent issue in interpretation. He further notes that in legal setting, the interpreters must be aware of the different legal systems of the countries where the source and target languages are spoken. This makes them appreciate fully the diverse and complex tasks that they face.

The interpreters were asked to state the languages they frequently used in court. This item was important as it showed the need for interpretation in court. The rating used was pre-coded as OFTEN, RARELY and NOT AT ALL. Table 10 below indicates how the interpreters rated the languages they frequently used in courtroom discourse.

TABLE 10:
LANGUAGES INTERPRETERS FREQUENTLY USE IN COURT

	Rating					
	Often		Rarely		Not at all	
Language	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
English	9	90%	1	10%	-	-
Dholuo	10	100%	-	-	-	-
Kiswahili	9	90%	1	10%	-	-

In the case of Dholuo, the OFTEN category was rated as the highest (100%) by the interpreters. This result is consistent with the fact that the study took place in a predominantly Dholuo-speaking region of Nyanza. The 0% for the RARELY and NOT AT ALL options is also consistent with the findings in Table 3 where all the interpreters reported that their mother tongue is Dholuo.

When the frequency and percentage of Kiswahili was worked out to illustrate the category with the highest rating, the OFTEN category attained the highest percentage with 90%. However, the majority strength for Kiswahili was lower than Dholuo. This can be attributed to the fact that most of the litigants in criminal cases prefer to use Dholuo and it is only natural to expect the interpreters to use Dholuo more regularly. It is also significant to note that a small minority (10%) used Kiswahili rarely. This means that Kiswahili was used by a majority of interpreters in courts.

In the case of English, the interpreters rated their frequency of language use as follows; the OFTEN category was the highest with 90% of the interpreters indicating that they did use English in courts. In addition 10% of the interpreters had the RARELY category. This is a departure from the norm as the official language policy is the use of English and Kiswahili in the subordinate courts. But because this item expected the respondents to rate the frequently used language in court by the interpreters, it is interesting to have 10% of interpreters not using English. This finding which shows that a minority of the interpreters rarely use English indicates that the designation of language use in subordinate courts as English and Kiswahili by court officials is important.

The interpreters were asked to rate the languages frequently used by the litigants. The ratings were pre-coded in the questionnaire under three categories: FREQUENTLY, SOMETIMES and RARELY in order to describe the frequency of the use of Dholuo, Kiswahili and English in courts. The analysis in Table 11 focuses on the frequency of language use which is expressed on the ratings given.

TABLE 11:
LANGUAGES FREQUENTLY USED BY LITIGANTS

	Rating					
	Frequently		Sometimes		Rarely	
Language	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
English	3	30%	3	30%	4	40%
Dholuo	9	90%	1	10%	-	-
Kiswahili	2	20%	4	40%	4	40%

In the case of Dholuo as shown in Table 11, the FREQUENTLY category was rated the highest with 90% of the interpreters stating that they frequently use Dholuo. This result is consistent with the fact that the study took place in a predominantly Dholuo-speaking area. This high percentage of Dholuo speakers in court also serves as a pointer for the need for interpreters. The interpreters therefore have their work cut out for them as most of the legal personnel prefer to use English in courtroom communication.

The interpreters were also asked to rate the litigants' use of Kiswahili. A total of 40% of the interpreters rated the litigants' use of Kiswahili as RARELY; while FREQUENTLY and SOMETIMES were rated as 20% and 40% respectively. This is an indication that Kiswahili is not a language of choice for most litigants compared to Dholuo where 90% of the litigants were rated as FREQUENTLY use Dholuo.

In the case of the litigants use of English RARELY topped the rating given with 40% and FREQUENTLY and SOMETIMES at 30% and 30% respectively. This indicates that the litigants rarely use English which is the official language of courtroom communication.

From Table 11 it can be concluded that the majority of litigants would prefer to use Dholuo in communication in courts. This is shown by the huge percentage (90%) of the litigants who use Dholuo in courtroom discourse. The language use background of litigants as well as those of interpreters can therefore, be said to be concordant. The finding of language frequently used by litigants indicate that a significant number of litigants come to court and do not want to use English. As one of the key variables which function as input to communication in the court, language is shown to influence the need for interpretation which in turn affects the participation in on-going discourse by the litigants.

As Table 11 shows, Dholuo is the main language used by litigants during courtroom communication. In most cases therefore, the litigants had to use the services of interpreters. This clearly marked the need for interpreters to understand Dholuo as the language of the litigants. These frequency and percentage in Table 11 of Dholuo speaking litigants indicate that a significant population would require the assistance of an interpreter if they were to appear in court as litigants and therefore the interpreters take care of the language rights of the Dholuo speaking litigants.

The frequency and percentage in Table 11 also indicate that many litigants interact with the criminal justice system as non-English speakers. The litigants cannot therefore, participate in their own trials except via interpreters. In the justice field, language barriers can adversely affect victims. Thus, when the litigants cannot communicate in court because of language barriers, the government should provide language access plan, through the provision of interpreters.

A very central area that was identified in language use in court was the language use with the legal professionals. This aspect was relevant to us as the question of which language to use with the legal professionals is important. This question must be seen in connection with the language policy on the one hand and the language use with litigants on the other hand. The two official languages used in court are English and Kiswahili. It was therefore important to assess the language the interpreters use with the legal professionals. This is also compounded with the fact that a majority of litigants use Dholuo in court.

The interpreters were asked the language they preferred to use with the legal professionals. The legal professionals in this category were classified as Magistrates, advocates and prosecutors. The purpose of this question was to assess the interpreters preferred language with the legal professionals and to show the language use pattern with the legal professionals. The statistical analysis of the interpreters answers to this question show a varied use of language with the legal professionals. The rating provided for in this question was HIGHLY PREFERRED, PREFERRED, and LESS PREFERRED.

Table 12 shows the language use with the magistrates. In this table, the language most interpreters prefer to use with the magistrates is English. A total of 70% of the interpreters rated their language use with the magistrate as HIGHLY PREFERRED with regards to the use of English with another 30% rated PREFERRED in the use English with the magistrates. As noted earlier, English is the predominant language for the legal professionals. The interpreters either see the need to identify with the magistrates' language for the prestige it accords them or it is because English is the language the magistrates use and therefore the interpreters have no option other than using it. It may also be so because most of the court records and correspondence are done in English.

TABLE 12:
PREFERRED LANGUAGE USE WITH MAGISTRATES

Language	Preference		Preferred		Less Preferred	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
English	7	70%	3	30%	0	0%
Dholuo	0	0%	0	0%	10	100%
Kiswahili	0	0%	3	30%	7	70%

The interpreters were also asked to state the language they preferred to use with the advocates. As shown in Table 13 a majority of the interpreters (90%) returned a verdict of HIGHLY PREFERRED to use English. A total of 10% returned PREFERRED category in the use English. In the use of Kiswahili, 20% rated PREFERRED while 80 % fell on the LESS PREFERRED use of Kiswahili. None of the interpreters preferred to use Dholuo with the advocates.

TABLE 13:
PREFERRED LANGUAGE USE WITH ADVOCATES

Language	Preference		Preferred		Less Preferred	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
English	9	90%	1	10%	0	0%
Dholuo	0	0%	0	0%	10	100%
Kiswahili	0	0%	20	20%	8	80%

In the case of language use with the prosecutors, as shown in Table 14 below, the interpreters reported that 80% of them HIGHLY PREFERRED to use Kiswahili while 20% PREFERRED to use Kiswahili. There were only 10% who HIGHLY PREFERRED to use English as 20% PREFERRED to use English. A total of 70% of the interpreters reported that English was a less preferred used language with the prosecutors. All the interpreters (100%) reported that they less preferred to use Dholuo with the prosecutors. This is in opposition to language use with the magistrates and advocates where the interpreters reported that they preferred to use English. As for the use of Kiswahili in interaction with the prosecutors, it can be speculated that the prosecutors are not trained as lawyers but are policemen. It is also common knowledge that policemen prefer to use Kiswahili to English. One of the interpreters placed a rider on the questionnaire stating that the prosecutors are policemen and that the language they mostly speak is Kiswahili. From this caveat by the interpreter, it can be assumed that policemen prefer to use Kiswahili to English.

TABLE 14:
PREFERRED LANGUAGE USE WITH PROSECUTORS

	Preference					
	Highly Preferred		Preferred		Less Preferred	
Language	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
English	1	10%	2	20%	7	70%
Dholuo	0	0%	0	0%	10	100%
Kiswahili	8	80%	2	20%	0	0%

From this section, a number of conclusions can be reached about language use in court by the interpreters, litigants and the legal professionals. Firstly, the interpreters were asked to rate their proficiency in languages in two forms: individual language proficiency and language combination proficiency. From Table 8, it can be deduced that all the interpreters are either excellent or good speakers of Dholuo. This was a reliable response since they had also indicated earlier, in Table 3, that they are Dholuo speakers. The interpreters also rated themselves as either GOOD or AVERAGE speaker of English and Kiswahili.

In terms of their language combination proficiency, the interpreters rated their Dholuo-English language proficiency at 30% VERY PROFICIENT and 50% PROFICIENT. This result can be accounted for by the fact that the courts in which the research was carried out was predominantly in Dholuo speaking areas. Given that the legal professionals prefer to use English in court, the Dholuo- English language combination is, therefore, naturally the most frequent language combination used. This result is reflected in Table 9. The interpreters rated the use of Dholuo by the litigants as frequent. This result shows that the litigants tend to speak their mother tongues in court. This also serves as the basis for the provision of the interpreters in court.

Regarding language use with the legal professionals, all the interpreters reported that they use English in their discourse with the magistrates and advocates and Kiswahili with the prosecutors. It could be argued that the main reason for this dichotomy in the use of language between the magistrate and advocates on one side and the prosecutors on the other side is because the prosecutors are not trained professionals in legal matters but are policemen whereas the magistrates and advocates are trained legal professionals. In addition, in the discourse between the interpreters on one side and the magistrates and advocates on another side, it is the magistrates and advocates who initiate the conversation and they have the inclination of using the official language of the court which is English.

Courtroom discourse and interaction are defined by a person's status in court: advocate, prosecutor, magistrate or litigant. Each group members use language in a very specific way and their roles are defined (Wodak 1996). The choice of language is illustrated by the rating of language use by the different discourse participants in court. That the litigants prefer to use Dholuo during courtroom communication implies that they interact with the legal system as non-English speakers. The magistrates and advocates use English because they are a group of professionals who would adhere to the requirement of using the official language of the court. Additionally, the interpreters' rating of the language use by the litigants in court conforms to some statements contained in the linguistic rights documents. Article 20, subsections 1 and 2, of the Universal Declaration of Linguistic Rights (1996) which elaborate on the rights of persons to use their mother tongue in court. This is also stated in the International Convention on the Civil and Political Rights (1969) document and the Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities (1995).

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper has presented language use issues in subordinate courts in Nyanza province, Kenya.

From data presented, a number of conclusions can be reached about language use in court by the interpreters, litigants and the legal professionals. Firstly, the interpreters were asked to rate their proficiency in languages in two forms: individual language proficiency and language combination proficiency. It can be deduced that all the interpreters are either excellent or good speakers of Dholuo. This was a reliable response since they had also indicated earlier, in Table 3, that they are Dholuo speakers. The interpreters also rated themselves as either GOOD or AVERAGE speaker of English and Kiswahili.

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All the interpreters reported that they use English in their discourse with the magistrates and advocates and Kiswahili with the prosecutors. It could be argued that the main reason for this dichotomy in the use of language between the magistrate and advocates on one side and the prosecutors on the other side is because the prosecutors are not trained professionals in legal matters but are policemen whereas the magistrates and advocates are trained legal professionals. In addition, in the discourse between the interpreters on one side and the magistrates and advocates on another side, it is

the magistrates and advocates who initiate the conversation and they have the inclination of using the official language of the court which is English.

Language use in courts is an essential component in the provision of justice. That the interpreters who participated in this study are proficient in the three languages – English, Kiswahili and Dholuo – is also important in the process of communication in courtroom discourse. But the fact that they are not trained as court interpreters is an impediment to their work. An interpreter training programme may be required for the interpreters in order for them to improve their technical and linguistic skills.

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A Survey on Ambiguity within the Framework of TG Grammar in College English Teaching

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Abstract—Ambiguity is one of the common phenomenons of any human language, especially for Chinese students to master. Within the framework of TG grammar, the article tries to analyze the structural ambiguity, by comparison with the traditional grammar and structural approach. D- structure and S-structure and X-bar theory are introduced to explain the production and understanding of ambiguity.

Index Terms—structural ambiguity, TG grammar, D-structure and S-structure, X-bar theory, English teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

A. An Overview on the Study of Ambiguity

When ambiguity is talked, it can refer to words, pictures, or other media, which is to express more than one interpretation. Another term is vagueness in which specific and different interpretations exist. However, with information that is vague it is difficult to form any interpretation at the desired level of specificity. Context is an important factor in ambiguity. For instance, the same kind of information can be ambiguous in one context but not unambiguous in another.

Here are some examples cited from the internet (http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Syntactic_ambiguity):

The cow was found by a stream by a farmer. (Did the farmer find the cow near the stream? Or was the cow found near a stream that was near a farmer? Or did the stream find the cow near a farmer?)

John saw the man on the mountain with a telescope. (Who has the telescope? John, the man on the mountain, or the mountain?)

Flying planes can be dangerous. (Either the act of flying planes is dangerous, or planes that are flying are dangerous.)

They are hunting dogs. (Either "they" are hunting for dogs, or those dogs are a type known as "hunting dogs".)

Eye Drops Off Shelf. (Describing eye drops that came from a shelf, an eye that fell from its location on a shelf, or an eye that delivered a shelf)

I'm going to sleep. ("Going" can be a verb with destination "sleep" or an auxiliary indicating near future. So it can mean "I am (now) falling asleep", "I am (in the future) intending to sleep" or "I am leaving (this event) to (go and) sleep")

The word of the Lord came to Zechariah, son of Berechiah, son of Iddo, the prophet. (Which of the three is the prophet?)

The British left waffles on Falklands (Did the British leave waffles behind, or is there waffling by the British Left?)

Monty flies back to front. (Monty returns to the front line, Monty flies backwards, the Monty variety of flies are backwards, or the Monty variety of flies return to the front?)

The Electric Light Orchestra (An orchestra of electric lights, or a light orchestra that's electric)

Stolen painting found by tree. (Either a tree found a stolen painting, or a stolen painting was found sitting next to a tree.)

I'm glad I'm a man, and so is Lola. (can mean "Lola and I are both glad I'm a man", or "I'm glad Lola and I are both men", or "I'm glad I'm a man, and Lola is also a man", or "I'm glad I'm a man, and Lola is also glad to be a man"). Ray Davies deliberately wrote this ambiguity into the song, referring to a cross-dresser.

Rubber baby buggy bumpers. (Bumpers made of rubber designed for baby buggies, bumpers made for buggies that carry rubber babies, or bumpers for rubber buggies that carry babies.)

Little Hope Given Brain-Damaged Man (A brain-damaged man is unlikely to recover, or a brain-damaged man is causing another situation to have little hope of resolution, or someone gave a brain-damaged man to a small girl named Hope.)

Somali Tied to Militants Held on U.S. Ship for Months. (Either the Somali was held for months, or the Somali was just now linked to militants who were held for months. One could also imagine rope was involved, at which point lexical ambiguity comes into play.)

Free Ireland. (Is it a syntactical entity, a Republican call-to-arms or just an amazingly good deal?)

Ambiguity is an interesting topic and the study about ambiguity has a long history. Like many other issues, it could be traced back to ancient Greek period, when its study was within the scope of philosophy. Plato is regarded as the first

philosopher who studies ambiguity. However, he looks at ambiguity as no more than the main cause of sophism and wrong deduction. Following his study, Aristotle makes a comparatively comprehensive study about this phenomenon. He discusses ambiguity in his work *De Sophisticis Elenchis*, in which he lists the six sources of misunderstanding, namely, ambiguity, amphiboly, combination, and division of words, accent, and form of expression. (1958:257).

There have appeared a great number of linguistic schools-Traditional Grammar, Structuralism, Transformational Generative Grammar, Case Grammar, and Functional Grammar, etc. For example, it is pointed out that both word and sentence had not only one meaning. Pragmatics regarded ambiguity as any language item which had more than one kind of recognitional meaning. Kilby and Roca (1982) made a distinction between lexical ambiguity and structural ambiguity. The former is based on the single word which has two or more meaning. The later refers to the combination relationship among the words in a sentence. All these just discuss several kinds of ambiguity but have no general summary. It must lead to practical difficulty and confusion. E.g. "a pretty interesting book" can be both lexical ambiguity and structural ambiguity. The part of speech of "pretty" is ambiguous, adjective or adverb. And "pretty" can modify, "interesting" or modify "book" with "interesting" together. On the other hand, some other definitions of ambiguity have strong academic color. The definition given by grammar, ambiguity is any sentence is that according to generative which has more than one grammatical analysis." Herndon (1976) regarded ambiguity as such kind of sentences with similar surface structure but different deep structure.

B. *Types of Ambiguity*

Lexical and structural ambiguity is contained in the area. Lexical ambiguity is the more common type, which we can find in our everyday language, such as nouns like 'chip', 'pen' and 'suit', verbs like 'call', 'draw' and 'run', and adjectives like 'deep', 'dry' and 'hard'. Ambiguity can be tested by various ways. One is to give the two antonyms that are not related. For example, 'hard' has both 'soft' and 'easy' as opposites. The other one is the conjunction reduction test, such as in the sentence 'The tailor pressed one suit in his shop and one in the municipal court', the ambiguous word is 'suit', as this word refer to an article of clothing and 'one' means a legal action.

As a phrase or sentence has more than one underlying structure, structural ambiguity occurs, taking the phrases 'Tibetan history teacher', 'a student of high moral principles' and 'short men and women', and the sentences 'The girl hit the boy with a book' and 'Visiting relatives can be boring' for examples. Why these ambiguities are said to be structural? The answer is that these phrases can be represented in two different ways structurally, such as '[Tibetan history] teacher' and 'Tibetan [history teacher]'. It is true that such ambiguities' existence offers explanations for a level of underlying syntactic structure. Look at the other structurally ambiguous sentence, 'The chicken is ready to eat'. This sentence could describe either a hungry chicken or a broiled chicken. This essay treats on structural ambiguity for its generative mechanism.

C. *Ambiguity in English Learning*

As Winter (1977) pointed, within the English Language there are many problems that as native speakers we don't? I really think about but when learning the English language as a second language there are many common misunderstandings and problems that arise. These can be divided into lexical and structural problems. One of the most common lexical problems is that of ambiguity. This is evident in idiomatic speech, homographs and homonyms within the English language.

Winter (1977) proposed that structural ambiguity is another common cause of linguistic problems and misunderstanding. This is because a word can have exactly the same structure but a different function. An example of this is 'Flying planes can be dangerous.??'. This could mean that flying a plane is dangerous or planes that are flying are dangerous therefore the whole context has to be considered before making a judgement about the meaning of the sentence. ? Although people are sometimes said to be ambiguous in how they use language, ambiguity is, strictly speaking, a property of linguistic expressions? This therefore implies that the language we use is built up of separate words and the structural ambiguity is caused by the combination of words in a sentence.

This kind of structure is confusing to a native English speaker so as a second language learner the context of the sentence needs to be fully understood before they are likely to fully understand the meaning of the sentence.

In conclusion, there are many ambiguities and linguistic problems within the language that native speakers take for granted to understand. However as a second language learner it is even more challenging to understand these ambiguous forms which therefore lead to confusion hence the development of these common linguistic problems. (Winter, 1977)

II. AN GENERATIVE APPROACH TO AMBIGUITY

A. *Traditional Grammar*

The traditional approach is also known as traditional grammar. It has a long history. It came from the study of Greek. Since Latin has a close connection to Greek in structure, the study was applied to Latin, and then to other European languages which are similar to Latin in form. Traditional grammar studies sentences mainly in two ways: paradigm analysis and parsing. An example is given:

- (1) The girl saw the sailor with a telescope.

In traditional grammar, with a telescope can be considered to modify the sailor, saw or the girl respectively and play the attributive, adverbial, and attributive functions respectively. So the production of ambiguity is the uncertainty of which part with a telescope modifies in a linear order. Thus it is interpreted in three ways.

- a. The girl saw the sailor by using a telescope.
- b. The girl saw the sailor taking a telescope.
- c. The girl taking a telescope saw the sailor.

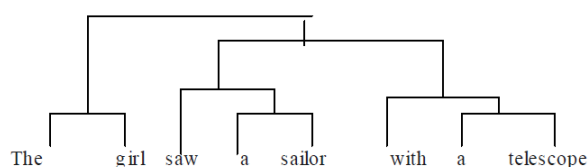
Seen from above, the traditional approach has several advantages. It briefly proves the presence of ambiguity and is greatly helpful for teachers to explain ambiguity. The method of ambiguity analysis is easy for understanding and application. It needs no extra study of other theories and language learners have not to know more beyond traditional grammar. However, it is obvious that before analysis of ambiguity, one must previously judge whether it is an ambiguity by intuitions and knowledge of traditional grammar, which is not dependable. What is more, the traditional grammar is based on Latin and it tries to impose the Latin categories and structures on other language, and regard the written language as primary. The third weakness of traditional grammar analysis is that it can not explain or prove the root reason for the generation of ambiguity.

B. Structural Approach to Ambiguity

The structural approach to the analysis of language was started by Saussure in the beginning of the 20th century. It developed into its climax in 1933 with the publishing of "language" by L. Bloomfield. The structural approach makes structural description of sentences to illustrate the parts of a sentence and the relationship among them.

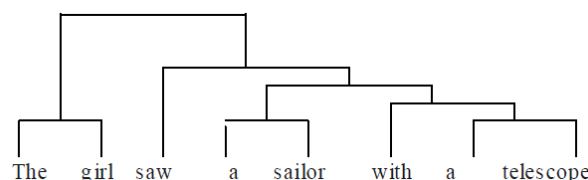
Sentences are made up of phrases; phrases are made up of words which represents a hierarchical relation. Such a relation shows the inner layering of sentences. The hierarchical structure of a sentence can be revealed clearly by IC (immediate constituents) analysis. The same example can be dealt with by IC analysis.

a.



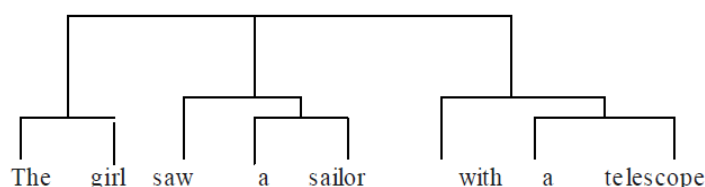
Here with a telescope is combined with saw a sailor so the sentence can be paraphrased as: with a telescope, the girl saw a sailor.

b.



In this way, with a telescope is related to a sailor. Thus it can be understood as the sailor who took a telescope on him.

c.



In the third case, with a telescope is connected with the girl and thus the whole sentence is interpreted as the girl with a telescope saw a sailor.

Concluded from the analysis above, IC analysis is more complicated than traditional grammar. It presents a clearer and more detailed description of the internal constituent hierarchical structure of a sentence. In the process of analysis, it is not only that the ambiguity is proved, but also the number of the ambiguities that a sentence can produce is indicated. If a sentence can be segmented in more than one way, ambiguity is suggested. IC analysis has disadvantages, at the same time, that it does not tell any information about the constituents that form the hierarchical structure. For example, if with a telescope is changed into on Saturday, the sentence has simply one meaning though the structure may still have three IC structures.

C. Transformational Generative Analysis of Ambiguity

1. An introduction to transformational generative grammar

Transformational-Generative grammar (TG grammar) has been regarded as a revolution in linguistics in the mid 1950s. The publication of Noam Chomsky's *Syntactic Structure* in 1957 marked the beginning of Chomskyan revolution.

Proposed by Chomsky (1965), transformational-generative grammar sees language as a system of innate rules.' In Chomsky's view, a native speaker possesses a kind of linguistic competence. The child is born with knowledge of some linguistic universal. While acquiring his mother tongue, he compares his innate language system with that of his native language and modifies his grammar. Therefore, language learning is not a matter of habit formation, but an activity of building and testing hypothesis. As for the construct of a sentence, TG grammar describes it as composed of a deep structure, a surface structure and some transformational rules. From its birth to the present day, T G grammar has seen as four stages in its development. The first period is the period of logical structure of linguistic theory, from the fifties up to 1965. The aim of this period is to make linguistics a science. The second period of standard theory is from 1965 to 1970. The topical question is that semantics should be studied in a linguistic theory. The third is the period of extended standard theory, from 1970 to 1980. Now the discussion is focused on language universals and universal grammar. After that, it is GB period, as the theory now centers on problems in government and binding.

However, Chomsky's theory has been very controversial. Assuming a more objective tone, John Lyons (2000) says, "Right or wrong, Chomsky's theory of grammar is undoubtedly the most dynamic and influential; and no linguist who wishes to keep abreast of current development in his subject can afford to ignore Chomsky's theoretical pronouncements. Every other 'school' of linguistics at the present time tends to define its position in relation to Chomsky's views on particular issues."

2. Deep structure and surface structure

According to Chomsky, a sentence may have two levels of syntactic representation. Deep structure is the abstract representation of the underlying level of structural relations between its different constituents of a sentence. From this abstract underlying structure, the actual form of a sentence is derived. Deep structure is generated by the base component. Surface structure is a formal representation of the final syntactic form of a sentence, as it exists after the transformational component has modified a deep structure. It is derived from the Deep Structure.

A deep structure may have different surface structures:

- a. *The man opened the door.*
- b. *The man didn't open the door.*
- c. *Did the man open the door?*
- d. *Didn't the man open the door?*
- e. *The door was opened by the man.*
- f. *The door was not opened by the man.*
- g. *Was the door opened by the man?*
- h. *Wasn't the door opened by the man?*

A surface structure may come from different deep structures.

Eg. *He is anxious/difficult to teach.*

Flying planes can be dangerous.

(If you fly planes you are engaged in a dangerous activity; planes that are flying are dangerous objects)

Deep structure is more intimately connected with sentence meaning than surface structure is. Surface structure, on the other hand, is more intimately connected with the way the sentence is pronounced. The deep structure of a sentence is the output of the base component and the input to both the transformational component and the semantic component; the surface structure of a sentence is the output of the transformational component and the input to the phonological component. Later, in his extended standard theory, Chomsky (1965) points out that not only deep structure but also surface structure has a close relationship with semantic representation. All the sentences are composed of deep structure and surface structure. The later is transformed from the former. Look at the following examples.

(3) I persuaded John to leave.

(4) I expected John to leave.

(3a) I –persuaded-a specialist-a specialist will examine John.

(3b) I – persuaded-John-a specialist will examine John.

(4a) I- expected-a specialist will examine John.

(4b) I – expected-John-to be examined by a specialist.

Thus, (3a) is different from (3b), while (4a) is the same as (4b). So, (3) and (4) have the same surface structure but different deep structures.

The integrated generative grammar includes three parts-syntactic structures, phonologic structures and semantic structures. Every SD (syntactic description) has a deep structure and a surface structure. Semantic structures give a semantic explanation to the deep structure and phonologic structure endows a phonologic manifestation with the surface structure.

Generally, ambiguous sentence has just one surface structure, but several deep structures. For example:

(5) The police were ordered to stop drinking after midnight.

- a. The Police-were ordered-the police stop drinking after midnight.
- b. The Police-were ordered-the police stop the people from drinking after midnight.
- c. After midnight-the police-were ordered-the police stop drinking.
- d. After midnight-the police-were ordered-the police stop the people from drinking.

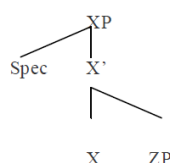
(6) I don't steal from John because I like him.

- a. (I steal from John) because I like him.
- b. (I steal from John (because I like him)).

3. X-bar theory

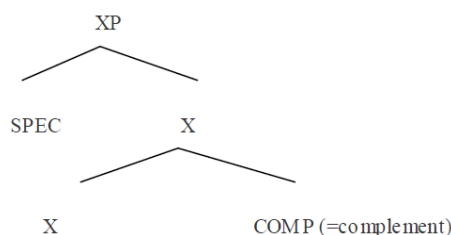
X-bar Theory is a theory about phrasal structure, revealing the structural properties of syntactic representations. It deals with not only phrases, but clauses and sentences as well.

According to X-bar theory, all phrasal structures (including phrases, clauses and sentences in the traditional sense) are endocentric and all can be represented by the X-bar schema. X-bar theory holds that all phrasal structures are projected by the head, hence are known as maximal projection, while the head is zero projection. There also can be intermediate projections between maximal projection and the head. So phrases can be represented as follows:



Through further studies, we find that infinitive sentences can be viewed as the maximal projection of the inflection (I or INFL for short), and a complementizer sentence the maximal projection of the complementizer. That is to say, sentences, treated as exocentric in traditional grammar, are also endocentric. They also satisfy the X-bar schema.

According to X-bar theory, head X can either be a lexical category or a functional category. It enables a tree diagram to reflect at least two syntactic dimensions: content and function. The structure of a sentence consists of both lexical phrases and functional phrases, each of them sharing the same skeleton:

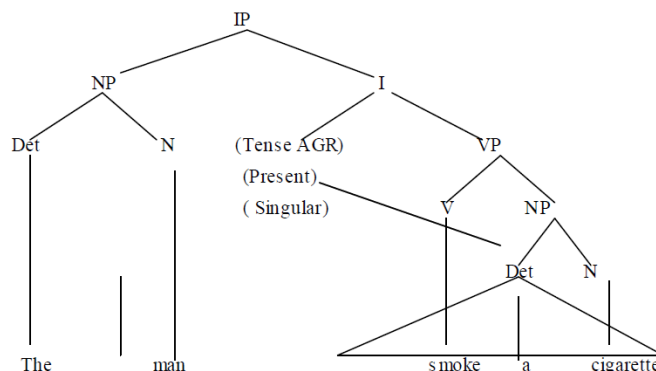


And this skeleton is universal. We can use it to analyze any sentence in any language. In other words, all constituents of a sentence in any language can find its own position in an X-bar tree diagram.

According to the above diagram, X-bar strives for the maximum generality. It makes statements about phrase structure true for all phrases rather than for one rule or one phrase type. Thus it expresses cross-category generalizations about the need for a head, a particular type of head, and for an intermediate level with the phrase, independently of whether the phrase is NP, VP, or any other type of phrase. It relies on two main structure relationships within the phrase: one is the link between the head and the complement sisters; the other is between the specifier and the head. In English, almost all heads come before complements. Three examples are taken for illustration.

(3) The man smokes a cigarette.

(3)'

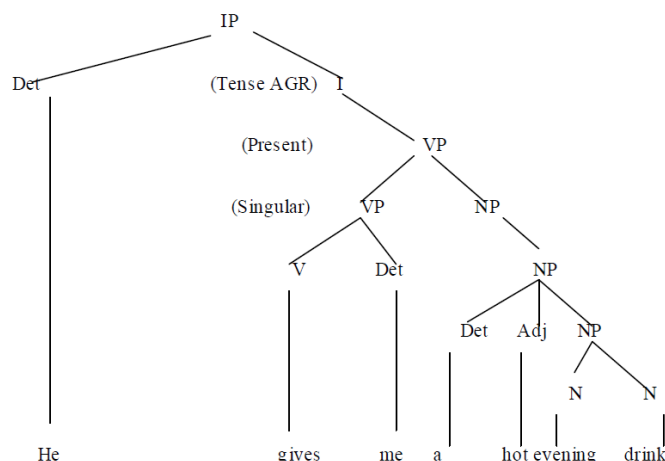


Derived from the above structure's analysis, Chomsky's X-bar theory about both the lexical phrases and functional category are clearly shown in the above graph.

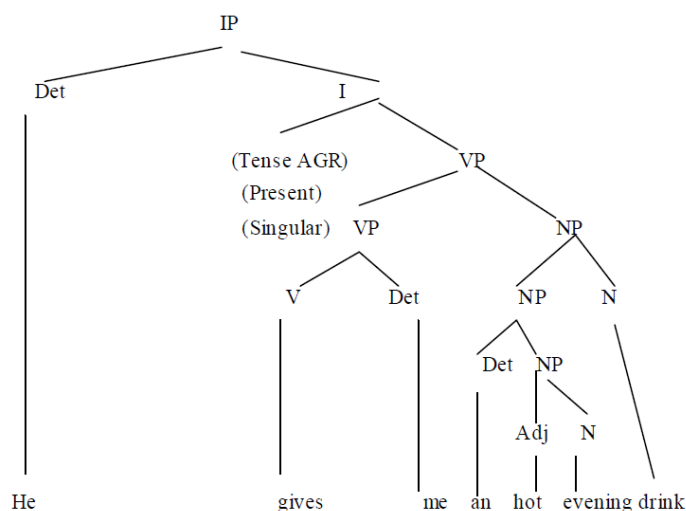
Once a sentence is ambiguous, it must have two or more different phrasal hierarchical structures in the structure graphs analyzed by X-bar theory. Another example is taken to show where the ambiguity takes place:

(6) He gives me a hot evening drink.

(6)'a



b.



For example (6), in NP (a hot evening drink), whether Adj (hot) is related to N (evening) or N (drink) leads to ambiguity. The S-structure of the NP (a hot evening drink) indicates the Adj (hot) has two hierarchical positions: one is the sister of NP in (6)'a and the other is the sister of N in (6)'b. It is the Adj's two hierarchical positions suggested by the NP' S-structure that produces ambiguity. The ambiguity is caused by Adj so it is called AdjP ambiguity.

It is concluded that, by X-bar theory and Structure-dependency, where an ambiguity occurs is in a phrase, and in S-structure the unit that suggests more than one hierarchical position in D-structure is a phrase. Hence ambiguity can be categorized into NP ambiguity, VP ambiguity (including non-finite verb) PP ambiguity Adj ambiguity, Adv ambiguity and clause ambiguity.

III. CONCLUSION

From the above comparison, it can be safely drawn that sentence component analysis (also called traditional grammar analysis) is widely used in ambiguity teaching to prove the presence of ambiguity in a forceful way, however, teachers have to previously resort to tuitions and traditional grammar to foretell ambiguity before analyzing it. In addition to that, the analysis is superficial in a linear order. IC analysis not only proves the existence of ambiguity, but indicates the possibility of ambiguity and the number of the D-structures to which an S-structure can be traced back. IC analysis is thus more effective than sentence component analysis. But neither of them can tell the reason why ambiguity is turned out, what the generative mechanism of ambiguity is and how ambiguity is generated. Chomskyan TG grammar deeply discovers the cause and generative mechanism of ambiguity's appearance through the movement from D-structure to

S-structure besides telling the presence and number of ambiguity.

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Reflection on Feminism in *Jane Eyre*

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Abstract—*Jane Eyre* is a famous work written by Charlotte Bronte on the basis of her own experiences. In this novel, the author shapes a tough and independent woman who pursues true love and equality. Jane Eyre is different from any other women at that time. She strives for her life and defends her fate in hardships and difficult conditions. In Victorian period, the image of Jane Eyre cast a sharp contrast to the man-dominated society. She stands for a new lady who has the courage to fight for her own rights and love. By analyzing the contemporary social, historical and cultural background of Victorian period and key points of feminism, and Jane's experiences, this paper points out that Jane gradually becomes a feminist in pursuing independence and equality and true love.

Index Terms—*Jane Eyre*, Charlotte Bronte, feminism

I. INTRODUCTION

Charlotte Bronte (1816—1855) is an English novelist, the eldest of the three Bronte sisters whose novels have become enduring classics of English literature. *Jane Eyre* is widely acclaimed as her masterpiece.

Bronte sisters grew up in a poor priestly family. Their mother died of lung cancer when the children were very young. As there was no sunlight in the depths of winter, the children's childhood was desolate and without joy. Fortunately, their father, a poor learned priest, he himself taught them reading, and guided them to read newspaper. This would be a relief in the midst of sadness. Because of the miserable life, Bronte sisters had spent a childhood in charity school. These experiences offered the available materials for the prospective creation.

Our heroine Jane Eyre is an orphan, and is ill-treated at a young age. She strives for her life, and forms a tough character. She learns how to live from her childhood's environment. Also just for her growing experiences, it creates her strong personality, beautiful ideal and wisdom. Jane Eyre is a special image out of ordinary. She makes a life by herself, and dares to show her own voice. Under the pressure of life, she always maintains her self-respect by hard work, intelligence and tough individualism. She never gives in on her way. Though she has little figure, Jane Eyre is huge in soul. She pursues true love and is loyal and steadfast to her beloved man. Her kindness, intelligence, and independence attract the hero. At last she gets a perfect love.

This thesis includes three parts. The first part is literature review which contains the research of *Jane Eyre* and my understanding of *Jane Eyre*. The second part is about the background of Victoria period and the general idea of feminism. The third part analyses the formation of Jane's character in three parts, the time when Jane is at her aunt's home and the Lowood boarding school, the time when Jane as teacher in Thornfield and has a relationship with Rochester, and after leaving Rochester meets St. John. Then we can analyze what Jane has done as a feminist through four aspects, her pursuit of esteem, independence, equality and true love. In the guidance of feminist beliefs, through her persistent and brave rebel and pursuit, Jane Eyre finally gets esteem, independence, equality and true love she aspires after for a long time. At last, I will explain the profound and lasting meaning of this novel and Jane herself.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

When the famous work *Jane Eyre* by Charlotte Bronte was first published in 1847, it had a great influence upon the society at that time. For a long time, numerous readers favored the image of Jane Eyre very much. *Jane Eyre* is the first, also the most powerful and popular novel to represent the modern view of women's position in society. Since its publication, many people have reviewed it from different perspectives.

Pat Macpherson points out in the book *Reflecting on Jane Eyre*, "*Jane Eyre* is marked by strong romantic elements and the role of nature is especially important" (1983, p.297-302). The work is infused with romantic spirit: the emphasis on the sensitiveness of the mind and the intense sensibility to changing nature (as in Wordsworth's poetry); the longing for adventure and the insistence on liberty, independence, and the right of the individual soul and self-fulfillment (as in Byron's and Shelley's poetry). After a stranger destroyed Jane's wedding, Jane left. Exhausted and penniless, she thinks of nature as the "universal mother". Wang Guofu, author of the *Literary Theory of Feminism*, says: "Jane Eyre embodies a new conception of women as heroines of vital strength and passionate feelings" (1987, p.225-229). In Victorian times women did not have important status. Until the last decade of the 19th century, almost the only occupation open to women was teaching as schoolmistress or more likely serving as private governess in a family. So when Charlotte had her books published, she had to use pseudonyms, pretending she was a male writer, Currer Bell for Charlotte. *Jane Eyre* was a representative work reflecting women's call for equality. Zheng Kelu's *Charlotte's Feminist Declaration* discussed, "During the Victorian Age was men-centered and men-controlled times. Women were

discriminated against by men at that time. However, the ahead-of-age female consciousness of Jane Eyre, the main character challenges men's authority." (1999, p.167)

This paper unfolds here from a different perspective concerning women's self-realization, esteem and choices to society or marriage. It helps readers to realize the importance of independence and to be enough to fight for their basic rights as human beings. Furthermore, the paper makes it clear that women are equal as men no matter in personality, economy, or social status.

III. BACKGROUND OF CREATING *JANE EYRE*

A. *Victorian Period*

Jane Eyre was created in the Victorian period. Contrasting to time, the Victorian literature period coincide with queen Victoria who were in power from 1836 to 1901, this period is the most brilliant history of Britain. In Victorian period, the society is man-controlled and man-dominated, and women are subject to the voice of men.

It is impossible for a low-status woman to have a decent life or a good marriage. The social structure determines the social position of a person. Women are discriminated in the patriarch society. Also, in this period, the female writers take the pens to speak for the oppressed women and *Jane Eyre* comes to be the most influential novel.

1. Influence of Economic State on Feminists

At the beginning of Queen Victoria in power, the Great Britain faced speed-up development of economy and serious social problems. After publishing *The Reform Act*, the political power turned to a newly developed industrialized capitalism. Sooner, the Industrial Revolution poured out, kinds of technology development brought new power to the economy of England, such as trains, steamboats, textile machines, printing machines and so on. England became the world factory, and gained a lot of wealth through expanding markets worldwide and grabbed resources in its colonies. In the middle of nineteenth century, the Great Britain became the first powerful country in the world in economy. But under this glory is the sharp conflict in society. Eventually, through 1836 to 1848, the famous Chartist Movement broke out. The working class published *The People's Charter* and asked the government to guarantee rights of human, improve living and working environment. This movement swept almost every city. Though it was down in 1848, the movement still got many achievements. Thanks to the movement, the working class awoke.

In the following twenty years, the Great Britain was stable. The middle class was respected and people pursued a warm, self-respect, modest and patriotic spirit. Meanwhile, the Queen Victoria is the example of these characters. With these new thoughts, literature became diversified.

At that time, for Jane, as a member of the lowest class, she is always looked down upon by those potentates with money and power. For people like her, they have no dignity; the rich can treat them at random and need not bother to give them any esteem. But Jane Eyre never surrenders to those snobbish people who despise the poor and the weak parochially and ruthlessly. In her whole life, she plunges herself into struggling for esteem which in her mind is deserved by any human being rather than a privilege for the wealthy people. She puts all her strength to get the respect and admiration from people around.

In those days of Britain, a female, like the noble Miss Ingram, is expected to seek a decent life through marriage and a wealthy husband. However, undoubtedly, it is based on the status and fortune of her family. For Jane, a plain and poor girl, how can she change her destiny and gain happiness? "Feminist once been raised: women's status in society is defined by some special society and culture power that can be challenged and changed" (Heather, 2003, p.146). In every relationship, Jane rises from inferiority to superiority, and finally gains full independence through continuous struggle.

2. Feminists' Voice on Literature

Victorian literature as the part of Victoria period has many features. It is complicated and multidimensional, which consists of huge changes among romance and reality. During this period, many genius of literature grew up as world moving. No matter in the form of novels, poems or essays, writers began to face the current situation and do advanced work.

In this situation, seeking for equality is another important theme through Jane Eyre's struggle for self-realization as a feminist. People in Victorian age have the idea that people are not born equally, people in high rank despise people in low rank and men are superior to women. Consequently, women like Jane are treated unequally in every field. When Jane realizes the unfair situation, she rebels constantly for the basic right of equality. It well reflects Jane's resolution and persistence in struggle for self-realization as a feminist woman.

Also the biggest theme in the book is true love. In all Jane Eyre's life, the pursuit of true love is an important representation of her struggle for self-realization. Love in Jane Eyre's understanding is pure, divine and it cannot be measured by status, power or property and so on. Having experienced a helpless childhood and a miserable adolescence, she expects more than a consolable true love. She suffers a lot in her pursuit of true love. Meanwhile, she obtains it through her long and hard pursuit.

Literature in the Victorian period truly reflects the reality and spirit of that time. The power, reality towards society, humor with kindness and boundless imagination are all beyond any time. In any aspect of literature, works are ready to welcome the new century.

B. *Feminism*

1. Outline

Feminist theory in the final analysis is to achieve gender equality in all of humanity. All feminist theory has a basic premise, which is, women worldwide are under an oppression, discrimination, and hierarchy state. The secondary status of women is so common, so lasting. In such a cross-historical and cross-cultural social structure prevalent among women in the political, economic, cultural, ideological, knowledge, ideas, ethics and other fields are in an unequal position with men, even in a private sphere of family, women are also in a position of inequality with men. Feminism in the patriarchal gender order is neither common, nor is it never changeable, because it is not natural by social and cultural human construction.

At different times and different culture, men are oppressive, and they belong to a class or classes as a member of the oppressive. Women are different, and they are simply neglected for being women or the oppressed.

2. Setting

Feminism is linked to women's liberation movement.

Women's liberation movement can be divided into two phases:

The first stage early, probably around the late 19th century, women's liberation movement of the first wave, was focused on contention in the requirement of gender equality among men and women, which is gender equality. It was also asked in civil and political rights, against aristocratic privilege stress. Men and women in intellectual ability have no difference. The most important objective is to fight for political rights, which is often called the feminist movement.

The second women's liberation movement, in general, is from the 60 years-70 years during the 20th century. It is believed as the earliest origins in the United States. This campaign continued until the 80's. The tone is to eliminate gender differences. In fact the difference between the sexes as in relations, women are subordinate to men based. Requirements are open to the public in all areas, and so on. Beauvoir's *Second Sex* is produced in this period.

The second feminist movement has brought about another result which is for gender studies, feminism and the rise of academic research. Therefore, there are all kinds of schools of feminism. For a long time, a sense of male-centered social ideology is the main stream in the community. So people in this concept of ideology is that they formed from the male point of view to describe the world, and to confuse the truth of this description, which is, this description is true, it is unalterable. They have become accustomed to those people in some of the concepts and challenges.

Although there exists a lot of schools, the basic point is that the struggle for gender equality, changing the status of women and being discriminated against oppression.

3. Impact of Feminism on Western Society

Most feminists take a holistic view of the political course of action, and they believe any place where injustice is a threat to all manners. It means a threat to justice anywhere is a threat to justice everywhere. Therefore, some feminists usually go to support other social movements, such as civil rights movement, gay rights movement, and the recent father rights movement. Meanwhile, many black feminists such as Belle Hooks, criticized the feminist movement dominated by white women.

Feminists claim that women under the disadvantages are usually the situation of women in Western society, but the lives of women and blacks do make no sense. This concept is the key to post-colonial feminist point. Many black feminists would prefer a woman Doctrine as a term to express their views.

Sometimes, cross-sex feminist movement would keep alert distance, because the latter challenged differences among men and women. Cross-sex persons with gender identity as female transsexual will be excluded from certain female only beyond the occasion and will be excluded by some other feminists, because they think that a person born to men and can not truly understand the oppression suffered by women. This view has been criticized for the cross-gender sexual phobia, and discrimination on gender diverse persons is another face of heterosexism and patriarchal oppression.

Some feminists argue that the efforts in these areas where there are still many needs, but some do not agree, and even claimed to win this fight.

Feminism in the West has made many important social impacts, including voting rights to women; more equal wages; the initiative for divorce and no-fault divorce; the right to safe abortion and sterilization; the right to obtain a university education and so on.

Many English-speaking feminists support the use of gender-free language, such as Ms refers to all married and unmarried women, or gender is not clear when the use of he (she) or she (he) specified and not just uses he. Feminists also support the use of language which contains two of the elements, such as using humanity to replace mankind. Feminists want to change the use of language, not the hope that women have equal rights to obtain influence in the political discourse. It can be seen as changing the sex discrimination element of the language of the attempt, many with important examples of male color, such as the use of "he" to referring to the babies. Feminists believe that language directly affects the concept of reality.

In the post-colonial feminism, language does not receive the same attention as Western countries, because many non-Indo-European languages have no gender grammar.

Feminism is not recognized by the general mainstream of academia, and to the birth to all, without careful consideration, because of the lack of any depth of analysis, and everyone will be so accordingly issued to the public announcement of the theory, suffering from all walks of life, such as psychiatry, sociology, economics and education of modern academic criticism. In addition to religious and moral conservatives, the critical school of sociology also holds

the undermining women's rights activity as one of the main structures in modern society.

IV. FEMINISM IN JANE EYRE'S STRUGGLING FOR SELF-REALIZATION

A. *Pursuit for Equality and Independence*

Jane lost her parents when she was young, and thanks to her uncle Jane could live a good life, but unfortunately her uncle died after a few years. Her aunt, Mrs. Sarah Reed, regarded Jane as a jinx and her three children (John, Eliza and Georgiana) neglect and abuse Jane. They dislike Jane's plain looks and quiet yet passionate character. These only relatives of Jane Eyre do not show any sympathy or care to this pitiful little girl, instead they always criticize and bully her. Cold and disparaging, Aunt Reed always treats Jane Eyre as an encumbrance inferior to a maid and takes her as a doll to show her hypocritical generosity. Eventually one day, little Jane had an argument with her cousin and was beaten. After being locked in a room for a night, Jane was ill and at that time, her early feminism came out. In the face of Mrs. Reed, Jane refuses to be treated as an inferior being and finally speaks out against discriminations to her with sharp and cold exposure. When Mrs. Reed reproaches Jane for telling a lie out of all reason, Jane defends herself perversely: "I'm not deceitful. If I were, I should say I loved you, but I declare, I don't love you. I dislike you the worst of anybody in the world except John Reed, and this book about the liar, you may give to your girl, Georgiana, for it is she who tells lies, and not I" (Bronte, 2002, p.63).

In other people's opinion, Jane should be great thankful to her aunt rather than being rude. When Jane is about to leave Gateshead to the charity school, Mrs. Reed thinks she can make Jane frightened by her status and decides to give a hypocritical and sanctimonious talk to guide Jane to express gratitude in front of Mr. Lloyd, the apothecary. But Jane refuses to be this rich lady's doll, being treated as unemotional and shameless. She retorts back straightly and powerfully:

"How dare I, Mrs. Reed? How dare I? Because it is the truth. You think I had no feelings, and that I can do without one bit of love or kindness, but I can't live so, and you have no pity. I shall remember how you push me back-roughly and violently pushed me back into the red room, and locked me up there-to my dying day. Though I was in pain, though I cried out, have mercy! Have mercy, Aunt Reed!" (Bronte, 2002, p.64)

Jane's rebellion against Mrs. Reed and John represents her feminist consciousness in getting esteem from other people as a decent and respectable person.

Then little Jane was sent to Lowood boarding school where she learnt a lot and became much stronger and independence. During Jane Eyre's staying in the orphanage of Lowood, which is a benevolent institution in name, but a hell in fact, her understanding of esteem becomes deeper. She is aware of a fact that, even in the face of powerful and authoritative people like the chief inspector of this charity school, Brocklehurst, as long as her esteem and dignity hurt ruthlessly, she will never submit but rebel against it decidedly.

B. *Pursuit for Esteem*

The whole time spending in Thornfield is the most splendid part of the whole book. Meeting with Rochester and fell in love with him reflected the feminism in Jane and her new thoughts. Jane loves Rochester with all her heart and Rochester's status and wealth make him so high above for Jane to approach, yet she never feels herself inferior to Rochester though she is a humble family teacher. She believes they are fair and should respect each other. In fact, it is her uprightness, loftiness and sincerity that touch Rochester. Rochester feels from the bottom of his heart that Jane is the spiritual partner he always longs for. When the heroine is moved by his whole-heartedness, they fall in love deeply. But at the time of their wedding, she finds the fact that Rochester has had a legal wife. Jane feels heartbreaking on this news, and it makes her trapped in a dilemma whether to stay or to leave. She says to Rochester:

"I care for myself. The more solitary, the more friendless, the more unsustained I am, the more I will respect myself. I will keep the law given by God, sanctioned by man. I will hold to the principles received by men when I was sane, and not mad as I am now, laws and principles are not for the times when there is no temptation, they are for such moments as this when body and soul rise in mutiny against their rigor, stringent are they, inviolate they shall be." (Bronte, 2002, p.343)

Although she had a deep affection for Rochester, she could not stand any compromise in her marriage. She is the whole one and cannot be laughed or argued by others in this aspect. She wouldn't give up her independence and self-respect. So she chose to leave her beloved one and wanted to make a new life.

As the end is known to all, Jane returns to Ferndean Manor and marries Rochester. Mr. Rochester then loses sight of both eyes and disabled. But in this circumstance, Jane Eyre comes back to Mr. Rochester caring for nothing but this man. She says: "I find you lonely, I will be your companion, to read to you, to walk with you, to sit with you, to wait on you, to be eyes and hands to you. Cease to look so melancholy, my dear master; you shall not be left desolate, so long as I live" (Bronte, 2002, p.310).

Jane Eyre does not think that she is making a sacrifice. She says: "I love the people I love is that to make a sacrifice? If so, then certainly I delight in sacrifice" (Bronte, 2002, p.451). In most people's eyes, nobody would like to marry a man who loses his sight and most of his wealth. But as to Jane, she is different. In her mind, pure love is the meeting of hearts and minds of two people.

Jane Eyre is unique in Victorian period. As a feminist woman, she represents the insurgent women eager for esteem.

Without esteem from other people, women like Jane can not get the real emancipation.

C. Pursuit for True Love

In all Jane Eyre's life, the pursuit of true love is an important representation of her struggle for self-realization. Love in Jane Eyre's understanding is pure, divine and it cannot be measured by status, power or property and so on. Having experienced a helpless childhood and a miserable adolescence, she expects more than a consolable true love. She suffers a lot in her pursuit of true love. Meanwhile, she obtains it through her long and hard pursuit.

During this period, Jane covered her name and wanted to make a new living. Being a teacher in a small village, she made friends with John and his sisters. Though John is a handsome guy and he proposed to Jane, she cannot accept him, this is the reflection of her iron determination in pursuing true love. In a word, she does not want an affectionless love. A decent and handsome man as John is, Jane Eyre cannot accept him because his love would be "one of duty, not of passion" (Terry, 1987, p.29). She knows clearly that humiliated marriage is not true love. He makes an offer of marriage to Jane only because he thinks that Jane Eyre is a good choice for a missionary's wife. He finds Jane Eyre docile, firm and tenacious. Because he just needs this kind of assistant. Jane says if she joins St. John, she is abandoning half herself and if she goes to India, she is going to premature death. Jane Eyre insists that true love should be based on equality, mutual understanding and respect. So she refuses John's proposal.

Jane is in great unconformity with the social environment at that time. She dares to fight against the conventional marriage ideas, which well reflects all feminists' voice and wish for a true love. Maybe Jane's choices are considered something shocking, but it really gives a blow to the Victorian society.

V. CONCLUSION

Charlotte Bronte is the eldest of the three Bronte sisters whose novels have become enduring classics of English literature. Jane Eyre is widely acclaimed as her masterpiece. Bronte sisters grew up in a poor priestly family. Their mother died of lung cancer when they were very young. Their father taught them reading at home. As a priest, Mr Bronte went around to spread gospel and the family had to move to a new, isolated place. The children's childhood was desolate and without joy. Also, the children were sent to a charity school, where the living conditions were bad. Unfortunately, the two little young sisters died of tuberculosis. The miserable childhood life also exhibited in novel. As they grew up, the Bronte sisters made a living by teaching in a private school. These experiences offered the available materials for the prospective creation.

Charlotte Bronte depicts Jane Eyre's image through three steps. The first step is her feminism thought starts to sprout from her fighting to her poor child life. The second step is her feminism thought shapes from the miserable experiences in boarding school, where she comes to understand that the survival of the fittest. The impressive part is the third step of her pursuit for true love, independence and equality, where the feminism thought grows to mature. The growth of Jane Eyre mirrors the growing up of Charlotte Bronte.

Jane Eyre's uncompromising pursuit for esteem leaves a deep impression on every reader of *Jane Eyre*. She struggles for equality on economy, and marriage. Her love is based on equality and independence that has nothing to do with status, power or property. She is not tempted by money and does not want to be a mistress of Rochester for money. Her love is loyal and steadfast. Jane Eyre aspires after true love and she overcomes the obstacles in the process of pursuing true love. At last, she succeeds and lives a happy life with her lover.

Through the detailed analysis of Jane Eyre's struggle for self-realization, it is known that whatever difficulties one encounters in his life, never be a quitter is the only way that one can do. Jane Eyre proves to the world of the 1800s that a woman beating the odds to become independent and successful on her own was not as far-fetched as it may have seemed.

Jane goes against the expected type by "refusing subservience, disagreeing with her superiors, standing up for her rights, and venturing creative thoughts" (Margaret, 1997, p. 325-346). She is not only successful in terms of wealth and position, but more importantly, in terms of family and love. These two needs that have evaded Jane for so long are finally hers. Adding to her victory is her ability to enjoy both without losing her hard-won independence. Everybody has the rights to pursue happiness, to pursue the true spirit of life, which can be seen from Jane Eyre's struggle for independence and equality.

Jane Eyre's story tells us that in a man-dominated society, a woman should strive for the decency and dignity. In face of hardships in life, the courageous woman should be brave enough to battle against it. Self-esteem is the primary element to protect. And the feminism taught how to defend ourselves. Whenever we are helpless in the bad conditions, we should try to survive the life. As to a happy marriage, a certain amount of fortune is necessary. A woman with a little dowry is basic for a match. While as to the lover, the independence and equality as a human is the first task. Marriage without love is lifeless, therefore, a perfect match is based on love, equality in status and a good fortune.

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Interaction and Interactive English Teaching in the High School Level

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Abstract—One of the main principles of education is interaction. In language classes, learners should have more autonomy to have interactions among themselves as well as with the teacher. Second language learners are more likely to achieve better levels of comprehension of the new input in their effort to communicate through interaction. Based on socio-cultural theory, language has both functions of communicative tool and a psychological tool which mediates meaning between the individual and the linguistic goal and therefore assists the cognitive development process. This study investigates interactive language teaching among the English high school teachers. The researcher investigated the effect of individual factors, gender, educational background, teacher education, and marital status of teachers on their tendency to interactive teaching. The results of the study showed that some of the above factors influence the teacher's tendency to interactive teaching.

Index Terms—interaction, interactive teaching, textbooks, teaching method

I. INTRODUCTION

There are many factors that are involved in education. These factors may also vary based on time, place and context. Teachers are also facing many challenges. In the 21st century, Gass (2003) asserts that education should have the following features:

- Education in schools should focus on critical thinking, creative thinking, active in-group learning, and teacher learner interaction.
- Education in schools should not be teacher-centered, learner-centered, knowledge-centered, or society-centered. Rather, it must include all these factors and should look at the issue from a holistic point of view.

The developed countries in recent decades have shifted from the traditional approaches to learning and teaching by a meticulous educational system, the excessive numbers of researches conducted have shown that traditional approaches to learning are no more working for the current time (Ellis, 1999). In Iran, traditional teaching methods such as grammar translation have been used for a long time. GTM is still used in high schools of Iran. We may also see the use of some aspects of new approaches in classrooms. However, the goal of this study is not to suggest a specific method for language teaching in high schools. Rather, we are emphasizing the benefits of interaction and interactive teaching in meeting the educational needs and gaining better educational objectives in high schools in Iran.

Sometimes, teachers face some problems in engaging students in the class activities. Teachers might think that interactive teaching is a small part of the classroom teaching along the other activities, and interactive teaching requires some extra time which is a wrong conception (Allwright, 1984). This means that they have mostly been experiencing teacher-centered classes and have provided less chance for student's autonomy and an interactive relationship between the teacher and the language learners. Interactive teaching is not limiting the control of the teachers and giving more power to students.

By teaching interactively, teachers can students to activate their prior knowledge of the content, to use it for their present and future learning tasks. Sometimes, there are some flaws in what student have learned previously, and by reviewing it teachers can provide corrective feedback for eliminating those flaws.

There are many definitions for teaching. One is that teaching is an activity, but not any kind of activity. It is an activity which is done consciously, and is designed to follow a specific objective (Littlewood, 1981). Interaction is necessary for effective teaching. Teaching has two special characteristics:

- The existence of interaction and relationship between the teacher and the learners
- Goal-oriented activities of the teachers

Teaching is not doing a set of unrelated and one-directional activities, and by considering the concept of "interaction" does not include learning from other sources such as movies, T.V, or books. What is emphasized here is interaction. There are some factors like the individual characteristics of the teachers, educational, and professional characteristics which are influential in pre-teaching, in-teaching, and post-teaching of teachers (Burns & Myhill, 2004). Teachers should have a meticulous, goal-oriented design to make progress in the student's learning. Interactive teaching is

referring to those more, and totally learner-centered approaches which are carefully designed to motivate students to learn and gives more responsibility to the students for their own learning.

The present study aims at investigating the following questions:

1. Do the individual characteristics of the high school male and female English teachers (such as age) influence their tendency to teach interactively?
2. Does the educational background and professional development of the high school male and female English teachers influence their tendency to teach interactively?
3. Is there any difference between the male and female high school teachers in their tendency to teach interactively?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In recent decades, there are been various views in the area of language teaching on the influential factors that leads classroom language learners to achieve mastery of a second or foreign language. It is mostly believed that classroom language learning is greatly dependent on the nature of the classroom interaction in order to meet the desired outcomes. This fact has been noted and given importance in the literature by different scholars (Allright, 1984; Breen and Candlin, 1980; Long, 1981). Such studies have provided important considerations for language learners for language development. Vygotsky (1978) asserts that based on the sociocultural theory, a dialogical approach holds that learning should be in the manner that arouse a diversity of internal developmental processes which operate just at the time of a child's interaction and cooperation with others in the environment, and these processes become internalized when they turn into a part of independent developmental achievement of the child. As a result, sociocultural and institutional realities that exist outside the classroom should be reflected as much as possible in the classroom, and classroom interaction covers the elements of negotiation, co-construction, and collaborative dialogue.

Classroom interaction and its components

a. Collaborative Dialogue

Collaborative dialogue refers to when a dialogue occurs efficiently between learner and learner or learner and assistant interaction. The potential level of development of the individual was the focus of Vygotsky rather than the individual's current level of development. Test scores might show the same level of actual development for two individuals. However, as Johnson (2000) says, these two may demonstrate different levels of potential development which is shown by their distinctive abilities and performances in solving similar problems with regard to varying assistance degrees from an adult. When learners interact with other members of their sociocultural environment including family members, friends, teachers, classmate, and coaches it leads to dialogic interaction. Vygotsky states that learning is an essential activity of the learner's self and adult's assistance or cooperation with more capable peers.

As a result, Gass (2003) says that collaborative dialogue is "a knowledge of building dialogue, in which language use and language learning can co-occur. It is language use mediating language learning. It is cognitive activity and it is social activity" (p. 227). Its realization might be in an everyday conversation format. As collaborative dialogue take a significant role in communicative language teaching, classroom interaction should also take the same role in classroom language learning which facilitates SLA development if the classroom setting take an influential role in social setting.

b. Negotiation

According to Ellis (1990), Interaction Hypothesis holds that L2 learners can acquire a new language when they encounter communicative problems which provide them with the opportunity of negotiating solutions to them. The input needs negotiated interaction to be comprehensible. This is not in line with Krashen's Input Hypothesis, which focuses on input as simplified along with contextual support as necessary for comprehensible input.

Negotiation generally is seen as discussion to find agreement. Allright (1984) asserts that interactive negotiation needs to be person-to-person communication in order to lead to satisfactory outcomes. Reading a text and analyzing it silently includes three basic processes of interpretation, expression and negotiation. Negotiation is viewed as using real life language which is related to the learner's learning purposes.

Negotiation has also an essential role in classroom interaction. When more opportunities are provided for L2 learners for negotiation of comprehension problems, they are more successful. More L2 vocabulary is learned when learners are involved in peer negotiation and interactive situations. By negotiating the input, learners reach higher vocabulary acquisition scores in doing the immediate post test, and more importantly, they kept this benefit over time (Allright, 1984). As a result, negotiation should be viewed as a n assistance to L2 comprehension and SLA. Negotiation modifies the students' input in classroom settings which does not always result in their immediate comprehension of meaning but through them the form is manipulated.

Classroom interaction has two main negotiated forms: face-to-face peer negotiation and corrective feedback negotiation given by the instructor. Self-negotiation might be used by some researchers as the third form of negotiation. They consider it as a kind of self-regulation or construction because it needs the high cooperation between learners themselves, and learners and teachers.

c. Co-construction

Jacoby and Ochs (1995) define co-construction as "the joint creation of a form, interpretation, stance, action, activity, identity, institution, skill, ideology, emotion or other culturally-related meaning reality" (p. 171). According to Long (1981), interactional competence refers to the language knowledge which is co-created by all those who participate in

interaction. It is required that all the participants have the duty to make a successful and appropriate interaction in a special social context. Through face to face interaction, participants negotiate meaning and also co-construct it together in a locally specific social context.

The awareness of self-regulation is gradually constructed from dialogic interaction by the L2 learners in classroom interaction while negotiating with peers and teachers. According to Aljaafren and Lantolf (1994), "The learner becomes more consistent in using the target structure correctly in all contexts. In most cases, the individual's use of the correct target form is automatized. Whenever aberrant performance does arise, however, noticing and correcting of errors does not require intervention from someone else, so the individual is fully self-regulated" (p. 470). Classroom interaction helps in developing the ability of constructing second language acquisition.

Therefore, the organization of classroom interactively and culturally classroom is greatly important in SLA. Classroom interaction have various forms including individual activity, group activity, collaboration, closed-ended teacher questioning, teacher initiates and student answers, self-access, full-class interaction, etc. The most interactive form among these patterns is pair or group. Pair or group work has three value systems of choice, freedom and equality besides paying attention to the sociocultural and personal experience that assists students' behavior in the classroom. According to Johnson (2000), choice as an idea is inserted in the notion of pair work or group work since there is a choice of partners or groups for students; Freedom is seen since students can and have the right to talk freely in pairs or groups without the teacher's control; and equality is seen since students are equal in groups because the teacher's power is decreased or neutralized within groups.

Jones and Tanner (2002) state that in a socio-constructivist approach to interaction new knowledge is constructed and validated by learners within the classroom's social context. There must be a kind of interaction between the learner and the teaching context to come up with learning. But if we want to achieve more than a superficial level of interaction, learners must be aware that they have to meaningfully engage with the teaching, and bring themselves to the exchange rather than only being one who passively receives preformed information. A level of active participation is required by learners who take part in the development of collective understanding to achieve interactivity.

Black and Wiliam (1998) claim that there is ample evidence to indicate that moving towards fully interactive pedagogies, collective reflection and the development of consensual knowledge results in improving learning and achievement. However, the problem is imposed external assistance which makes teachers concentrate on superficial aspects of interactive teaching including pace and structure rather than pedagogies which have deeper aspects. The initiation of new technology may raise the same pressures on teachers.

Realizing interaction in language classroom

According to Ellis (1999), better results in negotiation are gained when the control of discourse is in the hands of beginner language learners than when native speaker, language teacher, or capable language speaker has the control of discourse. Ziglary (2008) says that "in the case of not controlling the discourse, the language learner either waits or abandons to speak later. Based on the socio-cultural view, if the discourse control is in the hand of the teacher, it makes learners outside the ZPD. So in the area of discourse control, the notion of topic is hidden" (p. 451).

If students are provided with tasks in the classroom, they are involved in topic not merely activity-based condition. Ellis (1999) states that in a task learners need to pay attention to what is being talked about rather than the language use. Van Lier (1988, cited Kaufman, 2004) asserts that "talk" in the classroom is concentrated on the way we say or do things, rather than on what is talked about. Activity is the term that he makes use of and emphasizes that the class must be in the form of activity or topic. It is believed that learners have control over the discourse in classrooms which are topic-oriented. Conversation or interview is the second aspect of discourse control.

Discourse is collaboratively constructed by participants who take part in conversation or interview. Ellis (1999, cited in Ziglary, 2008) states that "in language acquisition, mother provides a supportive role to the child and helps him to proceed in the discourse; whereas in the classroom, the teacher controls the discourse by providing an IRF exchange to conform the language to the goal of the activity. IRF means that the teacher initiates, learner responds and the teacher provides feedback. Another suggestion is to provide topicalisation in the classroom (p. 451). There are also other ways of bringing talking circle in the class or assure that communication is happening in the classroom in the target language. According to Johnson (1995, cited in Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991), the basic features of an acquisition rich classroom are providing a context for language use, giving chances to learners to make personal meanings, assisting learners to take part in activities which are beyond their current level of proficiency, and presenting a series of contexts that cover full performance in the target language.

III. METHOD

In order to carry out this study a sample of 60 high school English language teacher have been selected. In this sample, 30 of them were male and 30 were females. They ranged from 23 to 40 years old and had different teaching experiences from 1 to 25 years. For data gathering a Likert-scale questionnaire consisting of 16 items was designed and was later validated in a pilot study. For measuring the reliability of the questionnaire, it was given to group of high school teachers and after giving it to the same group after a while, the estimated reliability was /085, which shows that the questionnaire is reliable. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were used for interpreting the gathered data.

IV. RESULTS

In this part we present the data that has been gathered. The following table gives the frequency of the answers given to all the items of the questionnaire.

	Questions	Very Little	A Little	Somehow	Much	Very Much
1	How much is the age of the teacher (between 20 to 30) influential in her tendency towards interactive teaching?	20	9	4	17	9
2	How much is the age of the teacher (between 30 to 40) influential in her tendency towards interactive teaching?	20	10	7	17	6
3	How much is the marital status of the high school teachers is influential in their tendency towards interactive teaching?	16	11	8	17	8
4	How much is the marital status of the secondary school teachers is influential in their tendency towards interactive teaching?	19	8	5	18	10
5	How much is the high school school teacher's university degree (Diploma, B. a, Ma) influential in their tendency towards interactive teaching?	25	14	5	11	5
6	How much is the secondary school teacher's university degree (Diploma, B. a, Ma) influential in their tendency towards interactive teaching?	22	15	4	14	5
7	Do you think that a high school teacher with the TEFL degree (not literature, or translation) can teach English better in high school?	20	11	4	18	7
8	Do you think that a secondary school teacher with the TEFL degree (not literature, or translation) can teach English better in high school?	26	10	7	12	5
9	Is it important where a high school English teacher has graduated from in her tendency towards interactive teaching?	13	21	19	7	0
10	Is it important where a secondary school English teacher has graduated from in her tendency towards interactive teaching?	7	21	20	12	0
11	Is it important when a high school English teacher has been graduated (in terms of experience) in her tendency towards interactive teaching?	3	2	15	21	19
12	Is it important when a secondary school English teacher has been graduated (in terms of experience) in her tendency towards interactive teaching?	29	10	15	6	0
13	How much teacher education programs are useful increasing the high school teacher's tendency towards interactive teaching?	19	8	5	18	10
14	How much teacher education programs are useful increasing the secondary school teacher's tendency towards interactive teaching?	23	10	8	12	7
15	Is interactive language teaching useful for high school level ?	22	10	5	17	6
16	Is interactive language teaching useful for secondary school level ?	16	10	8	16	10

Beside the frequency of the answers, a Chi-Square test was also conducted for each item of the questionnaire. The results obtained from some the items are presented in this part. The first item is about the relationship between the individual factors of the high school school teachers (such as age, and marital status) and the tendency towards interactive teaching. The results of the Pearson Chi-Square showed the value of 22.5, it is represented as: $(P(16) = 22.5 > 9.49)$. This shows that individual factors influence the teacher's tendency towards interactive teaching. The following table shows this:

CHI—SQUARE TEST

Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	df	Value	
Pearson Chi-Square	22.548 (a)	16	.126
Likelihood Ratio	28.272	16	.029
Linear-by-Linear Association	.219	1	.639
Number of Valid Cases	60		

The second item presented here is about the effect of the high school teacher's educational background and their tendency to teach English interactively. The results of the Pearson Chi-Square showed the value of 17.4, it is represented as: $(P(16) = 17.4 > 9.49)$. This shows that the educational background influences the teacher's tendency towards interactive teaching.

Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	df	Value	
Pearson Chi-Square	17.474 (a)	16	.356
Likelihood Ratio	20.566	16	.196
Linear-by-Linear Association	.173	1	.678
Number of Valid Cases	60		

The second item presented here is about the effect of the high school teacher education programs and their tendency to teach English interactively. The results of the Pearson Chi-Square showed the value of 18.5, it is represented as: $(P(16) = 18.5 > 9.49)$. This shows that teacher education programs influences the teacher's tendency towards interactive teaching.

Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	df	Value	
Pearson Chi-Square	18.576	16	.282
Likelihood Ratio	19.404	16	.248
Linear-by-Linear Association	.019	1	.889
Number of Valid Cases	60		

One of the major questions of the study was whether interactive teaching is used more by the high school English teachers or the secondary school English teachers. In this regard, a T-test was conducted on the data and the result showed the value of ($p = .000$). It is represented as: ($P(59) = .000 > .05$). This shows that interactive teaching is used more by high school English teachers. The results are represented in the following table.

ONE SAMPLE T-TEST					
Test Value = 0					
95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean Difference	Sig. (2. tailed)	df	t
Upper	Lower				
2.9751	2.2249	2.6000	.000	59	13.870
Interactive teaching in high school and secondary school teachers					

The results of the study showed that teaching is context based and we cannot use a one design, syllabus, method or curriculum for different situations. There the ministry of education in Iran should make some programs for different regions, levels and contexts. This does not reject a national school curriculum. Rather, our suggestion is to involve these smaller, local programs into the national, general framework. The present study suggests the following implications to be implemented by the teachers and policy makers for the high school context:

- Using various learning materials and approach
- Involving and engaging students more in the process of learning instead of a teacher centered class
- Besides teaching, constant research project should be conducted to be always aware of the changes that occur in students, teachers, society, etc.
- Providing teacher education programs for the high school teachers one a year or one in a couple of years
- Engage in a continuous process of developing the teaching skills based on the recent research findings
- Teachers' motivation to teach interactively should be increased by providing their needs
- Peer observation should happen in the high school context and it should involve encouragement for their improvements.

V. CONCLUSION

In language teaching the classroom environment in which learner are involved in has to be seen as an essential part of broader contexts such as the broader sociocultural and institutional context. Its role is to provide a context in which learners can pay attention to various discursive practices. Moreover, the classroom environment and its interactions should be able to reflect the existing social reality outside the classroom. In this regard, classroom interaction has essentially the role of cooperative negotiation and co-constructive work so that L2 learners achieve language development as well as self-development. If teachers, students, and researchers work cooperatively on the importance of classroom interaction, the obtained results will surely assist language teaching. There is certain need of mutual understanding of an effective interaction among the teachers and the students. As a result, teachers should act as facilitators for building this effective interaction so that interactive teaching comes more into practice.

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The Strategies in C-E Translation of Public Sign—Based on the Study of Public Sign Translation of Qingdao*

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Abstract—On the basis of investigation carried out in Qingdao, the paper points out that there are a lot of mistranslations and errors in Chinese-English translation of public signs. In order to improve and standardize the public sign translation, the paper tries to classify translation errors, compare English and Chinese signs and propose some feasible translation strategies and suggestion for the C-E translation of public signs.

Index Terms—public signs, error analysis, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

With China's fast economic development, especially with the host of the 2008 Olympic Games and the World Exp. in China, the study of bilingual public signs has become a very hot topic. There will be more and more international events held in China, more and more foreigners from all over the world coming to China to travel and do business. All these international practices and activities make the translation of public signs essential, while mistranslated signs may provide some real challenges for the organizers, spectators and tourists from various countries. Public signs in China play the role of more than a "name card" of a city but the international image of our country.

Review of Research on Public Sign Translation in China

Previous researches on the C-E translation of public signs largely focused on the micro-level of primary data-enumerating and specific error-correcting, but often failed to work out a feasible theoretical guidance on the macro level. Word-for-word translation is still a frequently employed strategy at present, leading to English signs of poor readability and acceptability.

Most essays only discuss the problem from a special perspective and give much consideration to individual cases. Therefore, there has not been a thorough and systematic study of the distribution of error frequency and the causes of these errors in C-E translation of public signs.

Functionalism, emerging in 1970s in Germany, has been mainly used as the guideline to analyze the existing problems in translating public signs in China recently. Skopostheorie, the core theory of functionalism, regards translation as an act of communication. Any act of communication contains an aim or purpose which leads to a certain result. It claims that the aim or purpose of translation is of utmost importance in the act of translation — "the end justifies the means" (Nord, 2001, P. 29). Functionalists believe that translation has come to be considered as the production of a specific text for certain people of the target language with a specific aim. Any method becomes valid if it fulfills the aim of translation or the intended function.

Luo Xuanmin (2009) said that functionalism has its own disadvantages while it does shed light on the translation of public signs. If we do not have a thorough, correct and detailed understanding about a theory, it is likely to be abused. Functionalism is one of those theories that have been abused, which would lead to the absence of professional ethics in public sign translation. Within the framework of Skopostheorie, the translators tend to adopt a liberal strategy in order to cater to the target audience's convenience. Anything difficult or culture-specific in the translation process tends to be omitted, deleted or replaced intentionally.

Skopostheorie is quite effective to solve some problems in translation practice when the intended function of target text is exactly the same as the function of source text. However, functional approaches overemphasize the function of translation. Furthermore, what Skopostheorie focuses on is not the function of the original, but the function the target text is to achieve. A good translation is one which performs the same or similar function in the target culture. Translation strategy depends on whether the translated TT can serve its expected purpose instead of whether it is maximally faithful and equivalent to the ST. The status of ST is greatly reduced from the "sacred original" to merely "information offered" while much more importance is attached to target receivers and target culture. Therefore, it destroys the ST and neglects the obscure and specific style of the original language and culture.

Thus, this paper, based on Skopostheorie, attempts a multi-perspective study, examines the current practice in C-E translation of public signs and tries to propose some feasible and practical strategies for translators, using real cases of

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Qingdao to illustrate.

II. THE INVESTIGATION OF C-E TRANSLATION OF PUBLIC SIGNS IN QINGDAO

A. *Present State of Public Sign Translation in Qingdao*

C-E translation of public signs get improved after Qingdao became the host city for 2008 Olympic Games, since China began its campaign of correcting and standardizing translation of public signs throughout the country. However, the current situation of sign translation in Qingdao is still far from satisfactory, with so many mistakes existing in the English version of public signs.

B. *Classification of Errors of Public Sign Translation*

1. **Mistranslation on the Linguistic Level**

1.1. **Spelling Errors**

As the most common and easiest errors to be corrected, misspellings simply arise from carelessness or painting mistakes, which also comprise underuse or overuse of capitals, space etc..

E.g. 1 通往卫生间 *Acess* to Toilet (Access to Toilet)

E.g. 2 请沿站台过往 *Please Pass along the Plat Form* (Please Pass along the Platform)

1.2. **Diction Errors**

Diction errors, wrong choice of words, often cause confusing or misunderstanding of public signs. The reasons may be lacking of understanding the source text or the related background of the target culture or just misusing some words.

To avoid the mistakes in diction, a systematical checking mechanism should be brought in. We need to check whether the translation match the situation well in C-E translation of public signs.

E.g. 3 如遇火警, 请勿使用电梯。 *Don't Use Lift When In Fire.* (Do Not Use Elevator In Case Of Fire.)

E.g. 4 请给老、弱、病、残、孕让座。 *Please Offer the Seats to the Old, Weak, Sick, Crippled and Pregnant.* (Please Offer Your Seat for the Senior, the Weak, the Sick, the Disabled and Pregnant Woman.)

1.3 **Grammar Errors**

Traditionally grammar was analyzed in terms of morphology and syntax, with morphology dealing with word structure and syntax the structures larger than word. Therefore, grammatical errors in this paper include both morphology and syntax errors.

The grammatical mistakes usually arise out of translators' language incompetence, the sentence just being translated word by word without minding its grammatical and syntactical structure.

E.g. 5 我们承诺减少您的等待时间 *Reduce Your Waiting Time by Every Second in Cashier Line Is Our Commitment.* (Reducing Your Waiting Time by Every Second in Cashier Line Is Our Commitment.)

E.g. 6 香烟售出 概不退换 *Cigarettes Can Not Return After Selling* (Cigarettes Are Nonreturnable)

2. **Mistranslation on the Cultural Level**

2.1 **Word-for-word Translation**

This kind of errors often result from over-literal translation in which the translators rigidly adhere to the original form and content and the source text is just translated word by word at its face level. "Some translators simply cannot figure out the meaning of the original, and they resort to a word-for-word translation due to a mistaken notion that this is an easy way out." (Jin Di and Nida, 1984, P.1)

E.g. 7 谨防扒手! *Be Careful with Thieves.* (Beware of Pickpocket.)

E.g. 8 买一赠一 *Buy One, Present One.* (Buy One, Get One Free.)

2.2. **Poor Acceptability**

Poor acceptability occurs when the readers of the target text find it difficult to understand the translation, though it is grammatical correct and there is no spelling mistake. The translator fails to express the exact meaning of the source text, due to his wrong inference coming from his contextual information or his real-world encyclopedic knowledge of the schema for the text.

E.g. 9 软座 硬座 *Soft Seat, Hard Seat* (Firs-class Seat, Standard Seat)

E.g. 10 紧急制动 *Emergency Braking* (Emergency Use Only)

2.3 **Harsh Tone** (Command Rather Than Request):

Public signs bear the function of directing, but in English they usually present the information without any intention of compelling or restricting. Therefore, a proper translation should offer the content of the service rather than command the public to do so.

E.g. 11 必须穿救生衣 *Must Wear Life Jacket* (Please Wear Life Jacket)

E.g. 12 禁止球类运动 *Ball Games Is Forbidden* (No Ball Games Allowed)

2.4 **Informativeness**

Errors in Informativeness refer to the cases in which a text contains more or less information than is necessary, which leads to information redundancy or text inaccessibility.

To enhance the informativeness of the messages transferred from the source language to the target language, the

translator should try his best to preserve the cultural messages, and the cultural background should also be conveyed, if necessary.

E.g. 13 安心购物, 正在摄像中。Be Recording (For Your Personal Safety and Security, CCTV is in Operation.)

E.g. 14 严禁非本部门人员入内 No Entry Except This Department's Staff (Staff Only)

2.5 Eyeball-effect

Eyeball-effect refers to errors producing different communicative effects. Sometimes public sign translation is like literary translation where there is no standard reference for translators to look up, especially for those signs in tourist attractions, which are often written literally. For instance, there is a sign in a botanical garden in Missouri of America, "Please Give Me a Chance to Grow", which is not the usual English sign "Keep off the Grass".

E.g. 15 小草有生命, 脚下请留情。Keep off the Grass. (Grass Grows in Silence. Please Leave It Alone.)

E.g. 16 爱晚亭 Aiwan Pavilion (Autumn-admiring Pavilion)

TABLE 1.

Subjects	Errors	Total	Percentage
Linguistic Level 34%	Spelling	12	8%
	Diction	25	17%
	Grammar	9	6%
Culture Level 59%	Word-for-word	32	21%
	Harsh Tone	10	2%
	Poor Acceptability	18	12%
	Informativeness	9	6%
	Eyeball-effect	8	5%

150 items of public sign samples are collected randomly in the study, including road & traffic signs, institution names, visiting signs, public slogans and shopping signs etc. in Qingdao. All the samples are chosen from sources of recent years so that the data analysis ensures the topicality of the study and the novelty of the problems. After the error analysis on the C-E translation of public signs, we can see that translators need to improve their English proficiency especially in diction on the linguistic level, and pay more attention to the problems of word-for-word translation and poor acceptability on the culture level.

From the perspective of diagnosis of errors, most of them are attributed to interlingual errors on the culture level, which are mainly caused by mother tongue interference. Therefore, suggestions should be put forward from the perspectives of cultural adjustment and aesthetic equivalence.

III. SYSTEMATIC STUDY OF PUBLIC SIGNS

A. Definition of Public Signs

Public signs is a phrase which is adopted from English to refer to the concept of 公示语 that is right under discussion in this paper. In Oxford English Dictionary (2000), sign refers to a characteristic device attached to or placed in front of an inn or shop, as a means of distinguishing it from others or directing attention to it; in later use commonly a board bearing a name or other inscriptions, with or without some ornament or picture.

Belonging to social phraseology, public signs cover a wide range including catering, shopping, traveling, recreation, accommodation, medical and financial service as well as educational institution. With a lot of social communicative functions, public signs are employed widely on all sorts of occasions, ranging from warnings, notices, instructions, road markers, traffic signs, travel signs, construction signs, outdoor advertisements and government slogans etc.

B. The Comparative Study of English and Chinese Public Signs

Nord points out that every language is influenced by its own history, background and humanity and in turn reflects itself. Therefore, differences do exist in structure, language background, thinking pattern and expressing way between different languages. Linguistic translation problems arise from structural differences in the vocabulary, syntax and suprasegmental features of the SL and TL (Nord, 2001).

1. Word Order

The thinking patterns in Chinese culture differ apparently from that of English one, so the centre of power in Chinese is also greatly different from that in English. In English, signs often emphasize the point at the beginning, whereas in Chinese, signs are quiet implicit with the focus placing at the end of a phrase.

E.g. 17 非指定区域严禁吸烟 No Smoking except in Designated Areas

E.g. 18 坐定后系好安全带 Fasten Seat Belt While Seated.

2. Diction

Differences can also be observed in diction practice. Verbs or verbal phrases are more frequently used in Chinese signs to fulfill functions like compelling, restricting and warning, while gerunds and noun phrases are very common in English. Besides, English signs have a preference of using kernel words or notional words with articles and auxiliary verbs omitted.

E.g. 19 严禁穿行 No Trespassing

E.g. 20 不收手续费 No Commission Charge

3. Mood

English signs usually sound implicative and euphemistic, but in contrast Chinese signs are quite straightforward and sometimes even impolite, with a touch of authority. Instead of aiming at the prohibited audience, English signs try to display the allowable aspect while Chinese signs tend to leave no space for compromise and consultation.

E.g. 21 禁酒区 Alcohol Free Zone

E.g. 22 此处禁止停车 Please Do Not Park Here

4. Voice

Passive voice is generally employed in English signs; Chinese signs, on the contrary, are more of active voice. Therefore, translators of public sign should take the target reader's identification and acceptability into account.

E.g. 23 禁止携带犬类入内 Dogs Not Allowed

E.g. 24 戴好防护镜和安全帽 Safety Glasses and Hard Hats Required

5. Aesthetic Conceptions

Generally, simplicity, accurateness and clarity highlight the characteristics of English public signs, which read fluently and euphonically. However, Chinese public signs often stress rhyme and parallelism in order to convey aesthetic values and easy remembrance.

E.g. 25 一慢，二看，三通过。 Slow Down, Look Around and Cross.

E.g. 26 安全第一，旅客至上，舒适便捷，优质服务。 Security, Convenience and Satisfaction.

Example 24 is a piece of advertising message at a coach station. The function of advertisement is to stimulate passengers to buy tickets. If it is translated into "With safety first and customer above all in mind, our airlines maintain efficiency and high quality of all the service we provide", it may not produce the persuasive effect and may lead to failure of promoting the company's image.

There comes the need of conducting stylistic analysis. Only after a comprehensive analysis of the features of source text, we can better serve the expected purpose of target text. However, this kind of stylistic analysis should focus on its functional significance rather than on the formal features of texts in the sign translation. We should also achieve functional equivalence from the perspectives of cultural adjustment and aesthetic equivalence.

After the analysis of different properties of Chinese and English public signs, we argue that the communicative translation strategy is still suitable for the translation of public signs, as they share many similarities: the language styles are quite concise, conspicuous and convenient. Furthermore, the figures of speech are frequently adopted both in Chinese and English public sign, although a series of differences exist, as mentioned above.

IV. TRANSLATION STRATEGIES OF C-E TRANSLATION OF PUBLIC SIGNS

Public signs, as a crucial communication material, have exhibited increasing importance in the global communication. The function of the special text is strong, the style quite distinctive and the communicative purpose very clear. Hence, the translation strategies should be based not only on the text's function but also on its literary style.

A. Translation Strategies for Universal Signs

Readers from different cultures may vary to a greater or lesser degree, but different languages could be culturally equivalent when performing some similar functions in their respective cultures. When the function of the target text is exactly the same as that of the source text, it would be called an "equi-functional" translation, where the functional equivalence comes true perfectly, where the receivers ideally do not notice that they are actually reading a translation. Therefore, if the corresponding expressions of the target language can be consulted, translators should borrow it directly.

E.g. 27 请走旁门 Please Use Other Doors.

E.g. 28 如需帮助请按钮 Please Press for Assistance

In this case, the conventional English signs are used so that the translation seems familiar to the readers and acceptable in English culture. This approach is very realistic and practical in the sign translation. Properly translated signs, while not as funny, would be more helpful to target readers and improve their experience – possibly enough to convince them to make a response.

B. Translation Strategies for Culture-similar Signs

Functionalism claims that the translation approaches should be determined by the function or expected purpose of the target text. If translation is to keep the original function of the source text, translators should be adapted to the target culture, namely, make slight change based on the similar expression in the target language. Target language would guide translators to make flexible linguistic choices, especially when they render some culture-specific information. Their choices in language have to be based on the acceptability level of target readers.

E.g. 29 八荣八耻 Eight Do's and Eight Don'ts (do's and don'ts)

E.g. 30 保护环境 人人有责 Working Together We Can Make a World of Difference (Working Together for a

Cleaner Thames)

The translation of Example 30 mimes the well-known sign for environmental protection in London “Working Together for a Cleaner Thames”, which is much better than a literal translation “Protect the Environment Is Everyone’s Business”.

Mistranslated signs can actually be a lot worse than no translation at all. As sign translation is aimed at intended readers, the translator should try to achieve a familiar tone to touch the target readers. Based on this approach, the translators facilitate building up a so-called “cultural comfort zone”, in other words, to achieve similar context, to cater to the acceptability and aesthetic values of the target readers. Thus, if the similar expressions do exist in English signs, translators should adapt them without hesitation.

By the approach, the translation should achieve the persuasiveness of the sign, arouse the amiableness on the part of target readers and justify the translators’ choice of language in a given situation.

C. Translation Strategies for Signs with Chinese Characteristics

The language expressions present diversity, triggered by the different thinking modes, social values as well as cultural backgrounds between Chinese and English. Some public signs have very unique Chinese characteristics that are difficult to translate properly when no established expressions can be borrowed and no similar expressions can be adapted from English signs. For example, the use of parallel phrases, clauses and sentences is one of the most prevailing ways in Chinese public signs. Therefore, translators should create the proper translations according to the style and purpose of the target text.

E.g. 31 青岛是我家，清洁靠大家。Everything We Do, We Do It for a Beautiful Qingdao.

E.g. 32 弘扬主旋律，提倡多样化。Promote Mainstream Values and Uphold Diversity.

As in Example 31, in English culture, the similar sign is not expressed as that in Chinese. In Chinese, comparing one’s city to one’s family is to stimulate one’s prompt response to keep it clean. In addition, “我家” rhymes with “大家”. To keep the original formal beauty in Chinese, it is better to be rendered as “Everything We Do, We Do It for a Beautiful Qingdao” so as to form a rhyme and give an emphasis.

Some public signs contain things that are particular to Chinese culture and have no equivalents in English. Therefore, when doing the translation of signs with unique Chinese characteristics, translators should do more creative work to enhance the charm of the source language. By the strategy of foreignization, the translation maintains the original flavor as much as possible to keep the foreignness of the sign. One thing needs to be noted here: the difference between Chinglish and China English.

The term “Chinglish” is commonly applied to ungrammatical or nonsensical English in Chinese contexts, and may have pejorative or deprecating connotation (Wikipedia, 2012). It is quite different from China English, which is based on Standard English and acceptable in English communication. Some words describe the peculiarities of Chinese culture, which will make China known to the outside world. On the other hand, they are also a contribution to the English vocabulary and expressions.

The quality of a translation should be assessed by the response of the intended readers, and the criterion should be whether the target readers have a good understanding of the source text. We adopt this creative strategy in order to make the translated version really intelligible and acceptable to the target readers. By the approach, the translation should also be reader-centered and target-culture-oriented, namely, considering reader’s acceptance of languages, expectations and aesthetic view.

V. CONCLUSION

This paper sums up the current conditions and normalization of the C-E translation of public signs in Qingdao, based on the results of on-the-spot investigation applied with functionalist theory, and points out that the translation of public signs is the adaptation to the mental, social and cultural contexts as well as the lexical, semantic and syntactic structures of English. The dynamic adaptation to both language and context will enhance the quality of the translation of public signs and achieve effective cross-cultural communication.

The translation of public signs is by no means easy though they may contain just a few words. Public sign, as a crucial means, exhibits increasing importance in the global communication. Thus, in the process of the culture exchange, a systematic study on public signs and their translation will, no doubt, contribute a lot to better understanding the outside world. On the other hand, the standardizing of the bilingual signs will also be a way for China to be internationalized and propagate our own culture. By writing this thesis, the author aims at drawing more attention in the translation of public signs and inspires more valuable researches in this field.

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C-E Translation of Children's Literature from the Perspective of Relevance Theory

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Abstract—Children's literature is a unique form that adds brilliance to present splendor of the literature. An effective translation is the precondition to restore the essence of Chinese children's literature. The research of history and theory in children's literature is marginalized and excluded. Because of the language barriers and the cultural differences between Chinese and English, it is difficult for target audience to get adequate cognitive context to understand the original correctly. Besides, the particularity of children's cognitive development makes the translation more challenging and tough. The translator of children's literature should adopt the most applicable approaches according to the children's language ability so that they could easily achieve optimal relevance. This paper mainly discusses the application of the relevance theory on the phonetic level, lexical level, rhetorical level and cultural level.

Index Terms—translation, children's literature, relevance theory, contextual assumption

I. INTRODUCTION

There is no doubt that the study of children's literature weak in the field of literature translation. Both in the research of history and theory, children's literature is marginalized and excluded. The reasons are as follows: firstly, compared with adult's literature, children's literature plays a less important role in the translation field; secondly, scholars pay little attention to its translation features. In other words, scholars tend to focus on the similarities rather than differences between children's literature and adult's.

Translation of children's literature, particularly C-E translation, plays a more important role in bringing abroad the essence of Chinese literature. As an indispensable part of literature, children's literature reflects the respect for children as an individual. It calls for more academic research to meet the need of large group of readers.

This paper attempts to make an effort to apply relevance theory to the C-E translation of children's literature. It discusses the application of the relevance theory on the phonetic level, lexical level, rhetorical level and cultural level. From the perspective of relevance theory, the paper provides a new angle for the translation of children's literature so that translators can make use of it and put it into practice.

II. RELEVANCE THEORY

Relevance Theory is proposed in *Relevance: Communication and Cognition* by Sperber and Wilson in 1986 on the basis of Grice's Principle of Relevance. In 1991, Ernst-August Gutt, student of Sperber and Wilson, is the first one to apply relevance theory into translation. He points out that translation is an inferential process of verbal communication closely related to the brain mechanism, consisting of code and dynamic inference, and its basis is relevance. Relevance Theory is a branch of pragmatics probing into the laws of language and behavior.

The context of Relevance Theory is different from conventional idea. The context of an utterance is the set of premises adopted in interpreting. As such, it is a psychological concept-- A context is a psychological construct, it is a subset of the listener's assumptions about the world (Sperber and Wilson, 1986). We name the Relevance Theory context as cognitive environment to differentiate it from other contexts. The notion of "cognitive environment" takes various external factors into account, such as situational circumstances, cultural factors, background knowledge and social representation etc. Social representation refers to the collective consciousness. For example, Western people are considered as open and creative among Chinese people even if most of them haven't contacted with them.

The central claim of relevance theory is that human communication crucially creates an expectation of optimal relevance, that is, an expectation on the part of the hearer that his attempt at minimal processing cost.

Maximum relevance and optimal relevance are two relative concepts in the theory. Maximum relevance refers to the acquisition of maximum contextual effects with minimum processing effort. Optimal relevance means the acquisition of enough contextual effect with effective processing effort. One's cognition is in accordance with maximum relevance and expects to create optimal relevance.

The ignorance of either maximum relevance or minimum relevance would lead to failure in communication. To avoid

this mistake, the translator must pay attention to cognitive environment and contextual assumption. The process of translation involves the author, source reader, target reader, cognitive environment of target reader and contextual assumption. The lack of contextual assumption results from three reasons: Firstly, with the development of times, people have little knowledge of certain age. Popular language and culture of that age thus cause barrier to modern people. The second one is ethnic difference. Different races have different history and customs that are embodied in their language. Last but not least, lack of knowledge, such as exotic words and specialized words would lead to lack of contextual assumption.

Relevance Theory is the basis of one's communication skills, and the same is true in translation. The ignorance of readers' cognitive environment may lead to mistakes in translators' understanding. Relevance Theory is a natural norm that objectively exists. Gutt points out that Relevance Theory is the origin of translation principles, while other translational principles are the application of it.

Due to different cognitive environment, target language audience may lack some background information. As a result, the build of contextual assumption should be clarified. Some theorists also provide strategies for translation of word: using a common word, foreign word or alternative culture.

Gutt solved a series of problems based on Relevance Theory, such as rigid translation, clarity of utterance in oral translation, synchronic variations in translation. All the translation principles are results of optimal relevance, but vary according to different texts.

III. FEATURES OF CHILDREN'S LITERATURE

When it comes to the study of children's literature, its concept must be clearly defined. Different scholars hold totally different views to its concept. From the perspective of attribution, we reach the conclusion that: children's literature is books written for children. With rich artistic and aesthetic value, children's literature is beneficial for children's mind in the combination of education and recreation and inspires children's feelings. (Wang, 2000) Children's fiction rests on the idea that there is a child who is simply there to be addressed and speaking to it might be simple. It is an idea whose innocent generality covers up a multitude of sins. (Rose, 1984) World-known children's literary works, such as *Alice in Wonderland*, *Fairy Tales* by Andersen, *Harry Potter*, stands in culture as a monument, for they represent the child, speak to and for children, address them as a group which is knowable and exists for the book. The difference between adult literature and children's lies in the target reader. Age and cognitive development determine their understanding level and acceptability. Detailed differences can be found in language, content and cultural specificity.

Children's literature is usually understood to comprise books intentionally for children to read. Children's literature deserves a special attention because it plays a fairly important role in children's growing-up process. From the angle of linguistics, children's literature is basically child-centered, dialogue-based and event-oriented. The language of children's literature is featured by accuracy, simplicity, vividness and rhyme. Its educational function suggests that too much language variation and untraditional ways would mislead children. With regard to mental and physical characters, obscure words also deprive them of interest of reading. The rhyme means that the language of children's literature presents a sense of music and beauty. Imaginal thinking, as the primary thinking pattern of children, let them be accustomed to thinking in terms of images concrete, audio-visual language inspire sense of image in children.

The content of children's literature can be generally described as dualism, such as the relationship between hero and villain, beauty and ugliness, truth and lies, conquer and failure, freedom and bondage. Dualism is generally applied in plot, narrative method and perspective.

In addition, the prominent feature of children's literature is cultural specificity. According to its educational function, children's literature is used as an indispensable tool to conveying moral values and ethic identity, which is widely applied in school and family learning. In the process of narration, the author builds a cultural utopia for children to some extent. Children, at the same time, have 'access' to visit imaginary places, adventure with the hero and accomplish achievements they ever dreamed of. Experiencing the sense of achievement, children are unconsciously taught to be what the society wants them to be. The society by this way successfully sets examples for the new generation, cultivating them according to a long-standing tradition. For this reason, children's literature is developing under a clear and designed moral structure. Cultural convention is thus widely applied, which combines the literature and its particular culture.

The features of children's literature above are so important that they distinguish children's literature from other forms of literature, at the same time, provide basis for further research on translation skills.

IV. THE APPLICATION OF RELEVANCE THEORY IN CLT

Based on Relevance Theory discussed in the last chapter, C-E translation of children's literature should keep the relevance between original and contextual assumption to achieve the same processing as source readers. Its application focuses on the phonetic level, lexical level, rhetorical level and cultural level.

A. *Keeping the Relevance between Original Text and Contextual Assumption*

Relevance Theory has a unique understanding of the meaning of utterance. Meaning of utterance includes overt

meaning and covert meaning. Only by activating covert meaning in specific situational use of language can we reach communicative aims of the original text. Based on the analysis of contextual assumption discussed before, we know that the lack of contextual assumption result from that of necessary knowledge, such as foreign exotic word. The following text is a typical example.

e.g.1

Source Text: 老人接着又说: "你造的'重'字, 是说有千里之远, 应该念'出远门'的'出'字, 而你却教人念成'重量'的'重'字。反过来, '出'字本该为'重量'的'重'字, 你倒教成了'出远门'的'出'字"(仓颉造字)

Translated Text: The old man continued: "You made the character for 'Heavy'. It was the character 千 with 里 joined together, meaning a great distance 重, yet you make it sound like and mean 'weight'. '出' was supposed to mean 'heavy' (one mountain heaped on another), yet the character reads like and means 'leaving home'. These two characters are so confusing"(Cang Jie Creates the Words)

For foreigners, Chinese characters are complex and difficult to understand, let alone for foreign children. The annotation in the translated version 'one mountain heaped on another' explicitly explain the covert meaning of Chinese character 出 and creates a contextual assumption. Therefore, the relevance between original text and contextual consumption is well kept so that readers could well understand its meaning.

B. Making the Same Processing Effort as Source Readers

Contextual effect is not only related to the context, but also processing efforts of the readers. According to Relevance Theory, the readers must make processing efforts to get enough contextual efforts, which can be measured in two ways: The first is maximum relevance, which refers to getting greatest contextual effect with least processing efforts. While optimal relevance means taking more effort to get greater contextual effect. The second is taking no unnecessary processing effort, namely the effort taken by the readers must be worthy.

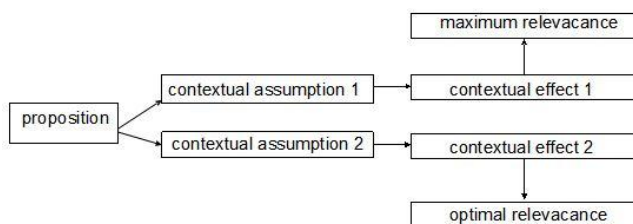


Figure 1

From figure 1, we can see that there are two types of contextual assumption. In the process of C-E translation, the text should be seen as a proposition. If all the conventional translation strategies are regarded as the stimulation of contextual assumption 1, then the recommended principles in section 4.2 should be seen as contextual assumption 2 that stimulates contextual effect 2 leading to optimal relevance.

The translated language of children's literature is featured by accuracy, simplicity, vividness and rhyme. Translator of Chinese children's literature must take the same processing effort as children so that the foreign readers can get similar contextual effects. Therefore, the translated text should also preserve the style of Chinese language.

C. Application of Relevance Theory on Phonetic Level

The phonetic features of Chinese children's literature are embodied in onomatopoeia, rhyme, alliteration and the like. Chinese children are more likely to accept it, but original text is a foreign language to the foreign readers without that strong language sense. In order to preserve the phonetic features, translators shouldn't neglect but restore them in its translation with scientific method.

1. Rhythm and Rhyme

Children usually pay attentions to rhyme and rhythm at first when reading books. In many cases, stories are read aloud by children or told by their parents. Thus the sense of hearing also plays an important role in getting contextual effect. Rhyme and rhythm in children's literature would amuse children in understanding the content. Rhyme is a repetition of arrangement of some vowels and consonants at the end of lines, or sometimes in the middle. Rhythmic sounds are easy to draw children's attention. Therefore, translators of children's literature should take it into account and reach the maximum effect.

e.g.2

各种猛兽、恶禽纷纷窜出来危害人类。(女娲造人与补天)

All kinds of wild beasts and wicked birds ran about in abundance to harm people. (Nv Wa Creates the World)

e.g.3

她一刻不停地从她住的发鸠山上衔了一粒小石子, 或是一段小树枝, 展翅高飞, 一直飞到东海。(精卫填海)

T The little brave bird continued her work, day after day and year in year out, carrying and dropping twigs and stones

into the East Sea and never had a brief moment of rest.

(Jing Wei Determines to Fill up the Sea)

e.g.4

今日东游，明日西荡，云去云来，行踪不定。(西游记第5回)

Today he would wander East, and tomorrow he would go West, coming and going by cloud, and never staying anywhere for long. (Journey to the West Chapter 5)

The version 'wild beasts and wicked birds' in eg.2 is the use of alliteration. Synonyms with the same letter at the beginning of words that are close together create a horrible atmosphere and provide a sense of rhythm. The version 'carrying and dropping' in eg.3 is the use of rhyme, thus emphasizes on Jing Wei's fortitude and unswerving efforts to fill up the sea. Likewise, 'coming and going' by cloud in e.g.4 is a rhyme serving to describe the movement of monkey in detailed and emphasizes on the relaxing life of monkey. All the three examples stimulate contextual assumption for readers. Firstly, lively rhythm pleases children. The meaning of a text stimulates contextual assumption. Secondly, it encourages children's imagination on the atmosphere. Secondly, the use of alliteration and rhyme creates the contextual assumption 2 and stimulates contextual effect 2 leading to optimal relevance.

From the above analysis, we may reach the conclusion that in the C-E translation of children's literature, the translator should put phonetic devices into practice. Other methods include onomatopoeia, rhyme, alliteration and the like.

D. Application of Relevance Theory on Lexical Level

On lexical level, auxiliary words and interjections are commonly used to keep faithfulness to target reader of translated text.

e.g.5

这时，大臣们都纷纷称赞起来：“曹冲真聪明！真是神童啊！”（曹冲称象）

At this time, all the officials praised, "Hurray! How clever Cao Chong is! He is really a wonder child!" (Cao Chong Weighs an elephant)

In the original sentence of e.g.5, there is no interjection "啊！是呀！", but the translator adds 'hurray' in the translated version from which we can feel the admiration and appreciation from the officials. In the original version, the sentence "曹冲真聪明，真是神童啊！" creates contextual assumption 1 and leads to maximum relevance, while the interjection "Hurray" stimulates contextual assumption 2 and creates optimal relevance. The combination of maximum relevance and optimal relevance forms a harmonious relevance. The interjection arouses the cordial feeling of the officials in a colloquial way so that it would draw closer the distance between the story and children, who are more likely willing to listen to the story.

From the perspective of Relevance Theory, the application on lexical level in C-E translation of children's literature can be understood as the addition of auxiliary word and interjection. Besides, the translation of proper noun would also create optimal relevance.

E. Application of Relevance Theory on Rhetorical Level

Generally speaking, rhetoric devices such as metaphor, hyperbole, personification, comparison is widely used in both Chinese and foreign children's literature. Rhetoric with an appeal is indispensable in children's literature. The following examples are typical use of rhetorical devices. The first one is the use of simile and the second is parallel.

e.g.6

这样又过了一万八千年，盘古的身体长得又九万里高，像一根巨大无比的柱子，立在天地中。(盘古开天辟地)

After another 18,000 years, Pan Gu had grown with them and acted as a pillar standing 90,000 Li between them. (Pan Gu Creates the World)

The contextual assumption in readers' cognitive environment: 1. Pan Gu 2. A pillar, the author connects the two different things together and implies the similarity. The translator easily finds equivalence of original version and builds harmonious relevance that makes the description vividly and lively.

On the basis of generality of cognition, the translator should copy the contextual assumption in the translated text. Likewise, e.g.7 of parallel keeps the relevance by using the same structure of sentence. the personification of the source text of '吹' in e.g.8, similarly, is translated into 'ruffle' instead of 'blow', which makes the scenery vivid and graphic. Thus, it is more acceptable to target readers.

e.g.7

沉香翻过白茫茫的雪山，穿越一望无际的大沙漠，途径黑暗恐怖的鬼谷，在荆棘丛中被刺得伤痕累累...(宝莲灯)

Chengxiang climbed over the snow-covered mountains, walked across the endless desert, went through the ghost valley, and was injured in the thorn bushes... (Lotus Lantern)

e.g.8

却又值三春景候，那时节：轻风吹柳绿如丝，佳景最堪题。时催鸟语，暖烘花发，遍地芳菲。(西游记第32回)

A light breeze ruffled the silky green catkins of willow. And the view was splendid. The season encouraged the birds to sing. The flowers bloomed in the warm sun, making the whole world fragrant.

Therefore, the use of rhetoric devices would improve children's understanding on children's literature.

F. Application of Relevance Theory on Cultural Level

Translation is not only a transfer of meaning between two languages, but also involves a cultural background. Since the original Chinese fairytales are put into a different cultural background, some Chinese elements taken for granted by Chinese readers could cause misunderstanding to target readers. What a translator should do is to produce a text with similar meaning to receivers whose native language is English. As a text for child readers that lack life experience, the Chinese-English translation of children's literature asks for even more attention to the cultural problems.

The translation of interjection can be a good example to explain this point.

In the chapter 17 of translated version of *Journey to the West*, when Monkey leapt up with a somersault, the senior and junior monks, the novices, the page-boys all kowtows to him and call him 'Master.' However, the word in the source text is 爷爷啊. To achieve the optimal relevance, it is not advised to translate 爷爷 into 'Grandpa', for it may lead to misunderstanding of children readers. The similar example can be found in e.g.9 in translating the interjection '我儿啊'.

e.g.9

“我儿啊，不禁打，就打得不见了。果是打死，好道也有些脓血，如何没一毫踪影？想是走了。”(西游记第 31 回)

"Wow," exclaimed Monkey in astonishment, "I didn't just hit him—I knocked him out of existence. But if I really killed him there ought at least to be some blood and pus, and there's no sign of any. Perhaps he got away."

Another example can be found in the story of Nian. Nian is a terrible monster that brings disaster on every New Year's Eve. After it was killed by people with fire crackers, Chinese people called celebrating the New Year as Guo Nian. Therefore, the title of this fairy tale should have an annotation: celebrating the New Year. The annotation creates contextual assumption 2 and brings optimal relevance. In this case, foreign readers would have a better understanding of the meaning of Nian. Thus addition of annotation would help clarify the background information in the translation of C-E translation.

V. CONCLUSION

An effective translation is the precondition to restore the essence of Chinese children's literature. The difference of understanding a text between translator, target reader and source reader lies in the context of their cognitive environment. The change of times, cultural difference and knowledge structure would result in lack of context. The search for context mostly depends on understanding communicative clues of original text.

According to Relevance Theory, the author tries to analysis how to use Relevance Theory to keep the similar contextual effect of original text and reaches the following conclusion: Keeping the relevance between original text and context; Target readers making the same processing effort as source readers. Combined with the language features of children's literature, the author puts Relevance Theory into practice from four levels including phonetic level, lexical level, rhetorical level and cultural level. The given examples explain the feasibility of the methods.

Due to the great difference between Chinese and English and the uniqueness of children's literature, it's hard to achieve complete equivalence by using the methods and approaches proposed in this thesis. What the author has done is just a preliminary exploration of Relevance Theory for C-E translation of children's literature, and the author still hopes the paper can contribute a little to translational studies of children's literature.

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Repair Strategies in EFL Classroom Talk

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Abstract—This study investigated the repair strategies employed by Iranian female and male intermediate EFL learners to find out if there were differences in the usage of repair strategies by class type (single-gender vs. mixed-gender) and the gender of the learners and the teacher. The participants of the study were 32 EFL learners (16 males and 16 females). At first, all of the learners were assigned to a mixed-gender class and the textbook was taught to them during 16 sessions (eight sessions with a male teacher and eight sessions with a female teacher). Then the learners were divided into two single-gender classes and teaching of the textbook continued for the two classes. All the sessions were video recorded. Then, the learners' repair strategies were analyzed through the study. The results revealed three important findings. First, single-classes used more repair strategies than mixed-classes. Second, there was no difference in using the repair strategies based on the gender of the learners, irrespective of the gender of the teacher. Third, there was no difference in using the repair strategies based on the gender of the teacher. The findings add new information to L2 research on repair strategies and, pedagogically speaking, the findings of the study have implications for EFL teachers and students.

Index Terms—conversational analysis, repair, repair strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

The number of students who are enrolling in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes continues to increase. Typically in EFL classes, the instruction is delivered in English, although many EFL students have limited English competence (Cho, 2008; van Lier, 1988). The students' limited competence can create miscommunication between the students and their teachers and the students themselves. In many situations, students try to solve these miscommunication problems between the teachers and other students to gain an appropriate understanding. Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) call these kinds of activities conversational repairs, which are defined as strategies used by students for resolving miscommunication problems involving speaking, hearing, and understanding. Therefore, repairs may be defined as the treatment of trouble occurring in interactive language use. Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2003) define conversational repairs as the persistent behaviors that are observed immediately subsequent to the occurrence of a communication breakdown, defined as a situation in which the goal or intent of the behavior is not understood or is misunderstood by the communication partner and, therefore, is not followed by a desired outcome within a reasonable length of time. Understanding how students treat these communication breakdowns will provide teachers with more insights into how to develop lessons to assist students in the development of their language proficiency. It is proposed that if educators are aware of the types of conversation breakdowns and the employed repair strategies, they can utilize the necessary instructional strategies to assist students in the development of more sophisticated repair strategies (Cho & Larke, 2010, p. 2).

From the previous researches, adult language learners employed nine types of repair strategies. Five of these adult language learners' repair strategies are from Schegloff et al. (1977), which include unspecified, interrogatives, (partial) repeat, partial repeat plus question word, and understanding check. Egbert (1998) provides one-request for repetition—and Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2003) have another, request for definition, translation, or explanation. Cho (2008) adds 2 more-correction, and nonverbal strategies. Goodwin (2000) said that nonverbal resources have been included in that they affect the meaning making process. Participants in conversation use not only verbal resources but also nonverbal resources to accomplish their communication (Hayashi, 2003; Streeck, 2003 cited in Cho & Larke, 2010, p. 8). These repair strategies are used for communication breakdown from their natural conversation to classroom conversation. Among these nine types of repair strategies—that are described below one by one - understanding checks are the most common repair types and requests for repetition are the least frequent one. Students do not use some repair types such as interrogatives and partial repeats with question words because those repairs require a combination of cognitive, linguistic and interactive skills that may not yet be highly developed. Students show a preference for more specific repair initiation techniques when interacting with the teacher (Cho & Larke, 2010, p. 2). Students use this type "to avoid committing face-threatening acts that would seem inappropriate to their role in the classroom as learners". The following description of these nine types of repair strategies is based on Cho & Larke (2010):

1. Unspecified Repair Example

This type of strategy does not specify what the trouble source is (e.g., huh? pardon? I'm sorry? etc.). This repair initiation usually yields a repetition of the trouble source, which the repair initiator could not hear or understand the meaning of on the previous turn.

An example of unspecified repair:

T: Alright, we get to read a book today. Have you been at a zoo?

S: Uh?

T: Have you been at the zoo?

S: ((shrug his shoulder))

T: You've been in the zoo?

S: Yes (p. 14)

2. Interrogatives Repair Example

This type of strategy starts with a single question word such as who, where or when as repair initiations. This type of strategy specifies trouble source of prior turn.

An example of interrogatives repair:

T: Let's see and we are gonna read a book. Have you read it before?

S: That's easy

T: Easy: I'm glad you all think easy. Ok start on the first page. This is Silvia. This is her papa. They are from Mexico or Spain.

S: Who?

T: Silvia. It is Spanish name. (p. 15)

3. Partial Repeat plus a Question Word Repair Example

This type includes repetition of the trouble source turn with a question word.

An example of partial repeat plus a question word repair:

T: Ok. On the paper where are the back paws (.) can you circle that for me? Back paws?

S 1: (pointing at the wrong word on the worksheet)

T: Right here, see that? Those are the back paws, they use like hands. See that? Right there. Ok, look at your little finger.

S 2: Where is back paw?

T: (pointing at the word 'paw' on the worksheet) right there

S 2: Back paw?

S: Uh huh

S 2: Back paw (p. 17)

4. Partial Repeat Repair Example

In repeats and partial repeats, some of the trouble source turn is used again in the repair initiation, which makes them more specific than unspecified repair initiations.

An example of Partial Repeat Repair:

S: Which means useless and hind?

T: Hind? Uhm, hind means the back

S: Back?

T: Uh Huh. And useless means that they don't have any work. They don't have any purpose. (p. 12)

5. Understanding Check Repair Example

This type of repair strategy provides an alternate for understanding the trouble source. The speaker targets the trouble source more specifically than other strategies. In providing an understanding, the speaker indicates his or her interpretation of the trouble source turn. This type also refers to the students' repair moves where they explicitly say, "I don't know" or "I don't understand" to show their understanding problems and initiate repair.

An example of Understanding Check Repair:

T: Everybody's gonna have surprise party, everybody has to be very quiet, the person is not gonna know. Opposite of quiet is what?

YEAH: everybody says happy birthday very noisy, noisy, loud. Noisy.....quiet

S: Magic?

T: It's magic birthday I guess

S: Is it turning up?

T: Yes it is turning up. Ok. Everybody needs to be really really quiet, shh::: now want to be noisy? Can you be noisy? WOW AH::: those are opposite. Ok. (p. 11)

6. Request for Repetition Example

This type is similar to the unspecified category in that it can also yield a repetition of the trouble source turn as response.

An example of Request for Repetition:

T: Ok. Today I sneeze wobbly. Yesterday I, what verb form?

S 1: Uhm? One more time

T: Today I sneeze wobbly

S 2: Sneezed

T: Yeah sneezed.

S 1: Aha (p. 17)

7. Request for Definition Example

Here the student initiates repair to the word which she needs translation. The teacher provides the definition of the word.

An example of Request for Definition:

T: There you go. You wanna read this?

S: Male seals and sea lions are called bulls, females are called cows, their babies are called pups, the pups are usually born on land.

S: Um, what is female and pups?

T: Females and pups?

S: Yeah

T: Females are girls

S: Aha

T: Yeah male seals, boy seals, are called bulls like big cow female seals are called cows, this is a little baby called pup. (p. 16)

8. Nonverbal Resources Repair Example

This category of nonverbal strategies includes students' gesture, bodily movement, gaze, facial expression and silence.

An example of Nonverbal Resources Repair:

T: What day of the week tomorrow?

S: (patting his hand with making squint eyes)

T: What's tomorrow? It starts with f

S: Friday

T: See? You know that. (p. 15)

9. Correction Repair Example

The students tended to use this strategy explicitly in their classroom conversation. Correction is related to not only linguistic errors but also comprehension of the trouble source turn.

An example of Correction Repair:

T: What's the opposite of new? You are wearing new shoes.

S 1: I got new shoes too.

T: These shoes are not new. They are what?

S 2: (gazing at the teacher)

S 1: Old

T: Old. New and old. Those are opposites. (p. 16)

Based on the above literature, the following research questions were addressed in this study:

1. Does the use of repair strategies differ according to class type (single-gender vs. Mixed-gender)?
2. Does the use of repair strategies differ according to the gender of the EFL learners?
3. Does the use of repair strategies differ according to the gender of the teacher?

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants were female and male intermediate EFL learners of Kooshesh Institute in Najafabad, Iran, native speakers of Persian, ranging in age from 15 to 20 and studying English as the second language and selected based on their English proficiency scores. They took an Oxford Placement Test [OPT, Allan, 2004]. Thirty-two participants (16 males and 16 females), whose scores were between one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected for the subsequent stages of the study. They were studying *Interchange 1* (2005).

Materials

Three kinds of materials containing OPT, video records of 48 sessions of teaching, and transcriptions of the video recorded sessions were used in the study:

A. Oxford Placement Test (OPT): this test was developed by Dave Allen (2004). This is a 50-item multiple-choice test that homogenizes the participants in terms of English proficiency level; it contains 25 grammar items and 25 vocabulary items and took 40 minutes to administer.

B. Video records of 48 sessions of teaching: the video records were prepared in 48 sessions, when the textbook was taught to the participants. All the interactions between the teachers and the learners and among the learners themselves were video recorded.

C. Transcriptions of the video recorded sessions: each video recorded session was transcribed in order to extract the repair strategies used by the participants based on 9 types of repair strategies taken from Schegloff et al. (1995), Egbert (1998), Liebscher and Dailey-O'Cain (2003), Cho (2008), as described in Introduction.

To determine each strategy, two coders were used. Every one transcribed each session and extracted the repair strategies used in that session. When there was an agreement between the coders, the strategy was given a label. However, when there was no agreement between the coders regarding the label given to the strategy, a third coder was consulted.

Procedures

At first, 16 male and 16 female participants in a mixed-gender class were taught by the male teacher in eight sessions. After that the mixed-gender class that consisted of 32 learners was taught by the female teacher in eight sessions. Then the mixed-gender class containing 16 male and 16 female participants was divided into two single-gender classes: one class contained 16 male participants and the other contained 16 female participants. The male single-class containing 16 male participants was taught by the male teacher in eight sessions and then by the female teacher in eight sessions. These male and female teachers were those who taught the mixed-gender class.

The female single-class containing 16 female participants was taught by the male teacher in eight sessions and then by the female teacher in eight sessions. These male and female teachers were those who taught the mixed-gender class and the male single-class too.

Figure 3.1 represents the summary of these steps:

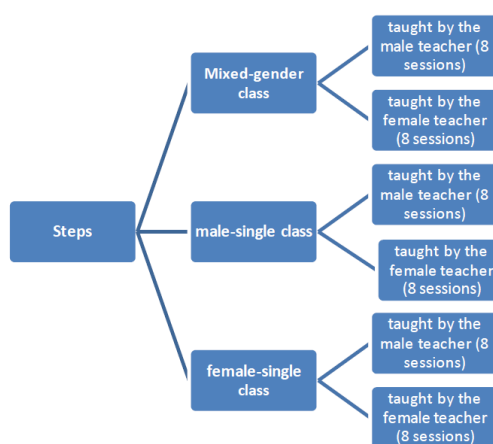


Figure 1: the steps of data collection in the mixed-gender class, the male single-class and the female single-class

III. DATA ANALYSIS

To analyze the data, one point was given to each strategy used by the participants and zero point to those unused strategies. Then all numbers were added together and the comparison was started. The researchers used the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 16) to answer the research question.

IV. RESULTS

Repair strategies according to class type (single-gender vs. mixed-gender)

In order to see if the differences were statistically significant, first a test of homogeneity of variances was run. Table 1 shows the results.

TABLE 1
THE TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES ON THE USE OF REPAIR STRATEGIES IN SINGLE-CLASSES AND MIXED-CLASSES

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
strategy			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
10.873	5	1146	.000

Table 1 indicates that the level of significance is less than .05. Thus variances of the means are not equal. After the homogeneity test, a planned comparison one-way ANOVA was run. Table 2 shows the results. So in the contrast tests table, we use the level of significant and the *t* index in the second row (does not assume equal).

TABLE 2
CONTRAST TESTS ON THE USE OF REPAIR STRATEGIES IN SINGLE-CLASSES AND MIXED-CLASSES

Contrast Tests						
	Contrast	Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
strategy	Assume equal variances	1	.19823	-4.309	1146	.000
	Does not assume equal	1	.19827	-4.308	998.334	.000

The results of the planned comparison test is displayed in Table 4.5: $F(5, 1146) = 18.55, p = .000$. Then the difference between the use of repair strategies in single-classes and mixed-classes is significant and according to the mean plots, single classes used more strategies.

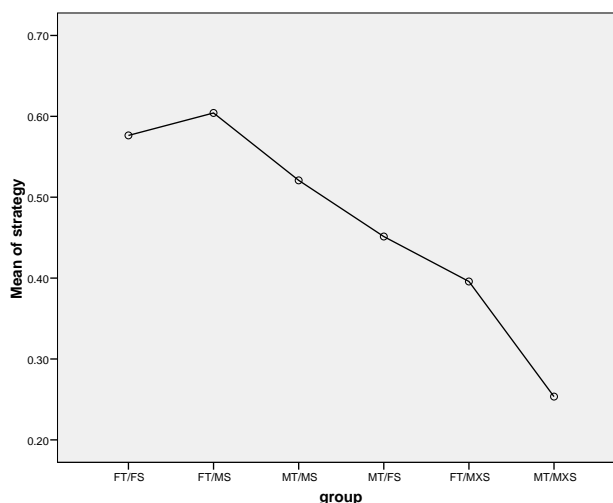


Figure 2: means plots

Repair strategies according to the gender of the participants

In order to see if the differences were statistically significant, first a test of homogeneity of variances was run. Table 3 shows the results.

TABLE 3.
THE TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES ON THE USE OF REPAIR STRATEGIES BASED ON THE GENDER OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
strategy			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
10.873	5	1146	.000

Table 3 indicates that the level of significance is less than .05. Thus variances of the means are not equal. After the homogeneity test, a planned comparison one-way ANOVA was run. Table 4 shows the results. So in the contrast tests table, we use the level of significant and the t index in the second row (does not assume equal).

TABLE 4.
CONTRAST TESTS ON THE USE OF REPAIR STRATEGIES BASED ON THE GENDER OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Contrast Tests						
	Contrast	Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
strategy	Assume equal variances	1	.0972	.694	1146	.488
	Does not assume equal	1	.0972	.629	558.557	.529

The results of the planned comparison test is displayed in Table 4: $F(5, 1146) = .39, p = .529$. Then the difference between the performances of participants on the use of repair strategies is not significant. It means there was no difference in using the repair strategies between females and males in general, irrespective of the gender of the teacher.

Repair strategies according to the gender of the teacher

In order to see if the differences were statistically significant, first a test of homogeneity of variances was run. Table 5 shows the results.

TABLE 5.
THE TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES ON THE USE OF REPAIR STRATEGIES BASED ON THE GENDER OF THE TEACHER

Test of Homogeneity of Variances			
strategy			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
10.873	5	1146	.000

Table 5 indicates that the level of significance is less than .05. Thus variances of the means are not equal. After the homogeneity test, a planned comparison one-way ANOVA was run. Table 6 shows the results. So in the contrast tests table, we use the level of significant and the t index in the second row (does not assume equal).

TABLE 6.
CONTRAST TESTS ON THE USE OF REPAIR STRATEGIES BASED ON THE GENDER OF THE TEACHER

Contrast Tests						
	Contrast	Value of Contrast	Std. Error	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
strategy	Assume equal variances 1	-.2083	.14017	-1.486	1146	.137
	Does not assume equal 1	-.2083	.15445	-1.349	558.557	.178

The results of the planned comparison test is displayed in Table 4.11: $F(5, 1146) = 1.81, p = .178$. Then the difference between the performances of participants on the use of repair strategies is not significant. It means there was no difference in using the repair strategies based on the gender of the teacher.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The study was intended to analyze the differences of Iranian students' use of repair strategies in single and mixed class. It showed that the participants used more strategies in single-gender class than mixed-gender class. In addition, the study was aimed to determine the influence of the gender of the teacher and the learners on the use of repair strategies. As it was illuminated in the preceding section of the study, the findings of the study reveal that:

First, the participants used more strategies in single-gender class than mixed-gender class.

Second, no relationship between the gender of students and the use of repair strategies was found. In other words, there was no difference in using the repair strategies between females and males in general, irrespective of the gender of the teacher.

Third, based upon the findings of the study, there were no significant differences between the performances of the learners on the use of repair strategies when the gender of the teacher was a variable. In other words, no significant differences were observed when the students and the teacher were of the same or different gender.

Jim Duffy, Kelly Warren, Margaret Walsh (2002) suggested that some boys and some girls feel more comfortable and more motivated in single-sex classes, and that academic achievement can be enhanced. Then, there has been a renewed push for single-sex education. Riordan (2002) said that there has been a resurgence of interest in single sex schools in modern societies across the globe, both in the public and private sector. Single gender classes provide students with another type of learning style that may be beneficial to them. Gray and Wilson (2006) argued that some parents do not want their children to be in mixed-gender classrooms because, especially at certain ages, students of the opposite sex can be a distraction. Also, single-sex education enhances student success when teachers use techniques geared toward the gender of their students. For example, girls learn better when classroom temperature is warm, while boys perform better in cooler classrooms. If that is true, then the temperature in a single-sex classroom could be set to optimize the learning of either male or female students.

The results of Billger's study (2009) indicated that there are three reasons for choosing a single sex school:

1. *Let them be themselves:* Boys tend to soften their competitive edge and become more collaborative in a single sex setting. They can just be boys and not worry about what the girls might think. Boys enjoying poetry and playing in an orchestra as opposed to a marching band are the kind of thing you will see in a boys' school. Girls drop their shyness and begin to take risks in a single sex setting. They become more competitive. They embrace sports like field hockey and soccer with gusto without worrying about appearing like boys.

2. *Academics:* If the teacher understands how to teach girls, they will quickly feel comfortable exploring non-traditional subjects such as mathematics, advanced sciences, computers and technology, wood-working and so on. Boys participate in choirs and orchestras and learn Latin in single sex settings. Children will break out of their stereotypical roles and behavior when they are left to their own devices. Single sex education has a delightful way of encouraging children to be fearless, to be curious, to be enthusiastic - in short, to just be themselves.

3. *Socialization:* Children are subjected to an avalanche of pressures from every quarter to become adults before they are ready to do so. They grow up too quickly. Why not let them be children for a few more years? Single sex education with its gentler, more controlled social outlets is just the ticket for many children.

The same thing is true about the classrooms in Iran: When working with students raised in a culture where strict gender roles are the norm, and boys and girls are not normally allowed to socialize with one another, students performed considerably better when segregated by sex. Negative gender roles are often sharpened in coeducational environments. When boys and girls sit next to each other in class, it is easy to get distracted. When girls have boys in the class, girls do not feel comfortable saying things because they are scared of answering the question wrong. Girls and boys are motivated differently, and separating them helps them reach their full potential. For instance, when a teacher asks a question in a mixed-gender class, boys raise their hand in the air while a girl raises it to her shoulder. The girl might know much more than the boys but she is more shy. The boys speak with no idea what they are talking about. In an all-girls class, girls are encouraged to speak up without inhibition. It seems that young girls are more willing to ask and answer questions in classrooms without boys and young boys in classrooms without girls.

VI. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Implications of the current study are presented in three respects:

- This study raises the need for EFL teachers and researchers to be aware of factors that affect the use of repair strategies, for example, if the gender of the teacher or the students influences on the use of the repair strategies.
- Teachers will be able to respond to the communication problems of students more effectively when they understand the students' ways of resolving the conversation problems and the factors that affect them.
- Instead of analyzing linguistic products of students, this study also focused on the processes toward mutual understanding between students and teachers.

The present study suffered from several limitations such as small sample of participants and limitations of fund and time. Also, this study explored only intermediate level of proficiency; therefore, it hinders generalization of the findings to a broader range of proficiency levels.

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The Effects of Tasks on the Learning of Lexical Bundles by Chinese EFL Learners

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Abstract—This study investigated the effects of task-induced involvement load on the learning of lexical bundles. One of the three tasks with varying involvement load was assigned to 70 non-English major students. The three tasks were reading comprehension, reading comprehension plus gap-filling, and sentence writing. Upon completion of the tasks, the students were given an immediate posttest. One week later, the students were given the same test. Sentence writing group significantly outperformed the other two groups on both immediate and delayed posttests. A one-way ANOVA was performed to analyze the relationship between the learning of lexical bundles and various involvement loads. The results of the study showed that task has an impact on the learning of lexical bundles, which supported the involvement load hypothesis that higher involvement induced by the task was more beneficial to the learning of lexical bundles.

Index Terms—involvement load, lexical bundle, reading, task

I. INTRODUCTION

It is widely acknowledged that vocabulary is an indispensable foundation for language learning. Learning vocabulary is not just acquiring individual words, but phraseology. Lexical bundles, as an important constituent of language, play a vital part in language learning. A learner's language competence is closely related to the accumulation of lexical bundles. Lexical bundles are becoming an increasingly important topic in second language acquisition. Various terminologies, such as chunks, formulaic sequences, multiword units, prefabricated expressions, formulaic speech, and routinized expressions were used to express lexical bundles. Lexical bundles may not only provide language learners with more than a convenient way to communicate but also facilitate further language learning (Norbert Schmitt and Ronald Carter, 2004).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The Involvement Load Hypothesis was put forward by Laufer and Hulstijn in 2001, which assumed that vocabulary acquisition is conditional upon the degree of involvement in processing these words. The construct of involvement is composed of three components: need, search, and evaluation.

"The need is the motivational, noncognitive dimension of involvement. Need is moderate when it is externally imposed (e.g., when the teacher asks the learner to fill in the gap in a sentence with previously unknown words) and the need is strong when it is self-imposed (e.g., when the learner decides to look up a word when writing a sentence)" (Hulstijn and Laufer, 2001, p.543).

"Search is the attempt to find the meaning of an unknown L2 word from expressing a concept by consulting a dictionary or another authority. Evaluation is a comparison of a given word with other words, a specific meaning of a word with its other meanings, or combining the word with other words in order to assess whether a word does or does not fit its context" (Hulstijn and Laufer, 2001, p.543-544).

Involvement is operationalised by designing tasks with varying degrees of need, search, and evaluation. Many empirical studies have demonstrated the influence of involvement load on language acquisition. Numerous studies have shown that incidental vocabulary learning can be enhanced from reading (Mason & Krashen, 1997; Dupuy & Krashen, 1993; Nagy, Anderson & Herman, 1987; Nagy, Herman & Anderson, 1985).

Many researchers have examined the relationship between tasks and their effects on incidental vocabulary learning in recent years. Their studies have revealed how incidental vocabulary learning is enhanced through text-based tasks. Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) conducted two parallel experiments on learners of English to investigate the effects of task-induced involvement on the initial learning and retention of 10 vocabulary words in two countries. Three tasks with different levels of involvement were assigned: reading comprehension with marginal glosses, reading comprehension plus gap-fill, and writing a composition with the target words. Short-term retention and long-term retention of the words were measured by providing the L1 translation or English explanations for 10 target words. As predicted, the retention of the word was correlated with the amount of the involvement.

Gai Shuhua (2003) investigated the incidental vocabulary acquisition of English majors in reading. The results of her study showed different tasks had different effects on vocabulary acquisition and students' vocabulary size also had impact on the acquisition as well.

In the study of Duan Shiping and Yan Chensong (2004), three tasks with varying involvement load were administered to three parallel classes. The three tasks were reading a passage with multiple word annotations, one word annotation, and no annotation. The results revealed that both the multiple word annotations and the one word annotation facilitated incidental vocabulary learning, but students benefited more in vocabulary learning from the multiple word annotations than the one word annotation.

Keith S. Folse's study (2006) used a within-subjects design to test the impact of the type of written exercise on L2 vocabulary learning. The participants practiced target vocabulary in three types of written exercises: one fill-in-the-blank exercise, three fill-in-the-blank exercises, and one original-sentence-writing exercise. An unannounced posttest tested the meaning of the word (L1 translation or L2 synonym) and usage of the word in a student-written sentence. The findings indicated that the important feature of a given L2 vocabulary exercise is number of word retrievals required, but not depth of word processing.

Kim (2008) conducted two empirical experiments to examine the Involvement Load Hypothesis in vocabulary learning. Experiment 1 was to investigate how tasks with different involvement loads influenced the by L2 learners' learning and retention of target words. The results showed that the higher involvement induced by the task resulted in better initial vocabulary learning and retention. Experiment 2 tried to test whether two tasks claiming to have the same involvement load would produce the same effect in initial learning and retention of target words. The results of Experiment 2 showed that different tasks with the same involvement load would result in equivalent amounts of initial learning and retention of new words.

In the study of Jing & Jianbin (2009), they assigned two listening comprehension passages with different involvement indexes to three classes of non-English major students. Both immediate and delayed tests showed that there was a significant difference among the three different tasks and confirmed that tasks with higher involvement load resulted in higher retention.

Nassaji, Hossein and Hu, Hsueh-chao Marcella (2012) investigated the relationship between task-induced involvement load and ESL learners' inferring and learning word meanings from context. Thirty-two ESL learners were randomly divided into three groups, with each group receiving a different version of a text which differs in terms of the level of involvement load. The results showed a significant correlation between level of involvement load, learners' use of lexical inferring strategies, and subsequent retention of successfully inferred words.

Gregory D. Keating's study (2008) tests whether vocabulary learning and retention in a second language are contingent upon a task's involvement load. Three vocabulary learning tasks with different involvement load: reading comprehension, reading comprehension plus fill in, and sentence writing were administered to beginning learners of Spanish. Passive and active recall posttests were given immediately after treatment and two weeks later. The results were consonant with the predictions of the Involvement Load Hypothesis.

Zabih O. Javanbakht (2011) investigated the impacts of three tasks: reading comprehension, reading comprehension with fill-in gaps, and sentence writing, on incidental vocabulary learning. The tasks were assigned to three groups of male Iranian elementary EFL learners. After the completion of each task, two unannounced tests were given to measure short term and long term retention of the words. The results showed evidence of significant impact of task involvement on incidental vocabulary learning.

The studies reviewed above supported Involvement Load Hypothesis and provided evidence for the task effects on incidental vocabulary learning.

Compared with the abundant research done on task effects and single word learning, the amount of research into the relationship between task types and lexical bundles is not much.

Researches that have been reviewed above tests the involvement load hypothesis to some extent though, these experiments only have tested its effects on single words. Few studies that compare the effects of various involvement loads on the learning of lexical bundles have been done. In order to test the effects of tasks with varying involvement loads on lexical bundles, the present study was conducted.

III. METHOD

The current study sought to address the following research question:

How do tasks with varying involvement loads influence learners' initial learning and retention of lexical bundles?

A. *Participants*

The participants of the study (70) were non-English major students in their second year of college. The participants were all native speakers of Chinese learning English as a foreign language, aged between 18 and 20. They took English as a compulsory course. They were randomly assigned to three groups with different tasks.

B. *Target Lexical Bundles*

Altogether 10 target lexical bundles were selected for investigation. Students with higher English proficiency but did not take part in the experiment were asked to recognize lexical bundles from a list of 10 bundles picked out from the reading material. Most of bundles were unfamiliar to them. As I mentioned earlier, the proficiency of these students was higher than that of the experimental students, so these bundles were selected as target bundles.

C. Tasks

In this study, three tasks with varying involvement loads were used to explore their impacts on the learning and retention of lexical bundles. The tasks were adapted from Hulstijn & Laufer (2001) and Zabih O, Javanbakht (2011).

Task One: reading comprehension. The students assigned to this task (Group 1) were assigned a passage and five comprehension questions. The passage and the questions were taken from the internet. The students were required to read the passage and answer the comprehension questions. The 10 target bundles were underlined and their Chinese meanings were listed at the bottom of each page. So, in terms of involvement load, this task induced moderate need, but no search and evaluation were present. It indicated its involvement index was 1 (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001).

Task Two: reading comprehension plus gap-filling. The students assigned to this task (Group 2) were presented with the same passage and comprehension questions as those in task one. The difference between task two and task one was that the 10 underlined target bundles were deleted and therefore having 10 gaps. Five additional bundles worked as distracters and the 10 target bundles were listed randomly for the students to choose from to fill in the gaps on a separate paper. Each of the ten bundles was followed by its Chinese meaning at the bottom of each page. The involvement index of this task was 2. The task induced moderate need but no search. It induced moderate evaluation because it provided the context (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001).

Task Three: sentence writing. The students allocated to this task (Group 3) were presented with the passage to read and the same ten target bundles were underlined. They were required to write a complete and meaningful sentence for each bundle. In terms of involvement load, this task induced a strong evaluation, moderate need and no search, so its involvement index was 3 (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001).

D. Tests

Two unannounced posttests were conducted to evaluate the initial learning and retention of the target bundles: an immediate posttest (immediately after the completing of the tasks) and a delayed posttest (one week after the completion of the tasks). In both posttests, the students were presented with the 10 target bundles to give their Chinese translations to evaluate their knowledge of the bundles. The tests were scored by the researcher. The scoring procedure was adopted from Hulstijn & Laufer (2001), in which not translated or wrongly translated bundle got zero, a correct translation obtained 1 point and partially correct translation obtained half a point.

E. Procedure

The experiment was performed on 2 separate days over 1 week. The three groups of students were given a worksheet with one of the three different tasks mentioned above. The time on task was not controlled, which indicated that the students spent however much time they needed to complete the tasks. Once tasks were completed, the worksheets were gathered. Afterwards, the students were assigned an immediate unannounced posttest. They were required to give the L1 translations or English explanations of the given bundles. A week later, the students were given the same unannounced test.

IV. RESULTS

The research question examined how tasks with varying involvement loads influence students' initial learning and retention of lexical bundles. In order to address it, the scores the students gained in the three tasks (reading comprehension, reading comprehension plus gap-filling, and sentence writing) were compared.

The scoring method of the tests was in line with Laufer and Hulstijn's (2001). Not or wrongly translated was scored zero; relative but not exact translation was scored 0.5 point; exact translation was given 1 point. Data collected from the two posttests was analyzed using SPSS17.0. The descriptive statistics of the scores on the immediate and delayed tests of the target bundles were displayed in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PERFORMANCE ON IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED POSTTESTS

Groups	N	Immediate Posttest		Delayed Posttest	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Group 1	22	6.1364	1.77403	4.4318	2.30577
Group 2	24	8.2917	1.73779	4.5000	2.57918
Group 3	24	9.5625	0.99250	6.3542	2.00260
Total	70	8.0500	2.06796	5.1143	2.44678

Note. Group 1 = Reading comprehension group; Group 2 = Reading comprehension plus gap-filling group; Group 3 = Sentence writing group.

As shown in Table 1, the descriptive statistics showed that the mean scores of the three groups differ significantly from each other, with Group 3 ($M = 9.5625$, $SD = 0.99250$) acquiring the highest mean score, followed by the Group 2 ($M = 8.2917$, $SD = 1.73779$) and Group 1 ($M = 6.1364$, $SD = 1.77403$) on immediate posttest. On delayed posttest, Group 3 ($M = 6.3542$, $SD = 2.00260$) also performed better than Group 1 ($M = 4.4318$, $SD = 2.30577$) and Group 2 ($M = 4.5000$, $SD = 2.57918$). In addition, for all the three groups, there was a decline of the mean scores in delayed posttest compared with that of immediate posttest.

To figure out the statistical difference in the mean scores of immediate and delayed posttests among the three groups,

a one-way ANOVA was performed.

TABLE II
ANOVA FOR IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED POSTTEST SCORES

Test		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Immediate posttest	Between Groups	136.870	2	68.435	28.982	0.000
	Within Groups	158.205	67	2.361		
	Total	295.075	69			
Delayed posttest	Between Groups	56.198	2	28.099	5.275	0.007
	Within Groups	356.887	67	5.327		
	Total	413.086	69			

As reflected in Table 2, the results of the ANOVA revealed a statistically significant difference in the immediate posttest among the three groups, $F(2, 67) = 28.982$, $p = .000 < .001$. The results also showed that there was a significant difference in the delayed posttests, $F(2, 67) = 5.275$, $p = .007 < .05$.

As the F value was significant, Scheffé post hoc tests were conducted for the two posttests to locate the differences. From the results demonstrated in Table 3, we can see that there was a significant difference among Group 1, Group 2 and Group 3 in the immediate posttest ($p = .000 < .05$, $p = .000 < .05$ and $p = .021 < .05$ respectively). While Scheffé post hoc tests for delayed posttest only showed significant difference between Group 1 and Group 3 ($p = .023 < .05$) and between Group 2 and Group 3 ($p = .026 < .05$). No difference was revealed between Group 1 and Group 2 ($p = .995 > .05$).

TABLE III.
SCHEFFÉ POST HOC MULTIPLE RANGE TEST FOR IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED POSTTESTS

Test	(I) Groups	(J) Groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Immediate posttest	Group 1	Group 2	-2.15530*	.45356	.000	-3.2908	-1.0198
		Group 3	-3.42614*	.45356	.000	-4.5616	-2.2906
	Group 2	Group 1	2.15530*	.45356	.000	1.0198	3.2908
		Group 3	-1.27083*	.44359	.021	-2.3814	-.1603
	Group 3	Group 1	3.42614*	.45356	.000	2.2906	4.5616
		Group 2	1.27083*	.44359	.021	.1603	2.3814
Delayed posttest	Group 1	Group 2	-.06818	.68122	.995	-1.7736	1.6373
		Group 3	-1.92235*	.68122	.023	-3.6278	-.2169
	Group 2	Group 1	-.06818	.68122	.995	-1.6373	1.7736
		Group 3	-1.85417*	.66625	.026	-3.5221	-.1862
	Group 3	Group 1	1.92235*	.68122	.023	.2169	3.6278
		Group 2	1.85417*	.66625	.026	.1862	3.5221

*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

V. DISCUSSION

The results of immediate posttest strongly supported the Involvement Load hypothesis that greater involvement in processing resulted in better effects on initial learning of lexical bundles. Of the three tasks, the sentence writing was the most effective in vocabulary learning, followed by reading comprehension plus gap-filling and reading comprehension tasks. While in the delayed posttest, Group 3 also produced the highest scores. This might result from the fact that sentence writing task which demands deeper cognitive effort contributed more to retention than noticing the glossary, answering comprehension questions and fill in the gaps. Compared with immediate posttest, the scores of delayed posttest showed decline in all the three groups. The decline might arise from the one-week interval between the two posttests, and that the students participating in the study were not exposed to the ten target bundles between the test interval. Therefore, another factor--multiple exposures, which might facilitate the retention of lexical bundles, was worth considering.

As was shown by the experiment, the task of sentence writing produced best initial learning and retention, followed by the tasks of reading comprehension plus gap-filling and reading comprehension. In the current study, each task was significantly different from the other two tasks in initial learning. Students in Group 3 gained the highest scores in both tests which showed that, among the three tasks, the sentence writing task was most beneficial in initial learning and retention of lexical bundles.

A one-way ANOVA was performed to find out the relationship between the learning of lexical bundles and task involvement load. ANOVA for immediate posttest scores showed that, with $F(2, 67) = 28.892$, $p = .000$, there were significant differences in the mean scores among the three groups. Similarly, ANOVA for delayed posttest scores showed, with $F(2, 67) = 5.275$, $p = .007$, significant differences among the three groups. The results implied that the degree of involvement load did have influence on the learning and retention of the lexical bundles.

Scheffé post hoc tests were conducted for the purpose of locating the differences. The results revealed significant differences among the three groups in the immediate posttest. While Scheffé post hoc tests for delayed posttest only showed significant difference between Group 1 and Group 3 ($p = .023 < .05$.) and between Group 2 and Group 3 (p

= .026 < .05.). No difference was revealed between Group 1 and Group 2. Though the mean score of Group 2 was higher than that of Group 1 in delayed posttest, they did not show significant difference. This may be due to the fact that although the task of reading comprehension plus gap-filling demanded moderate evaluation in completing the task compared with reading comprehension task, the involvement was not high enough to guarantee acquisition of lexical bundles.

Finally, based on the results of the present study, it can be concluded that students benefit more from sentence writing task which demands deeper cognitive effort than reading comprehension and reading comprehension plus gap-filling in the acquisition of lexical bundles.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The present study was designed to examine the relationship between tasks with varying involvement loads on learners learning of lexical bundles. Its aim was to find out how different involvement loads influence learning and retention of lexical bundles. The results of this study support the evidence of L2 vocabulary learning as a result of task-induced involvement. The findings were partially in accordance with those of Hulstijn and Laufer's (2001), which showed that the task with a higher involvement elicited more effective words learning and retention. In addition, the current study provided evidence for acquisition of lexical bundles. As to the learning and retention of lexical bundles, output task (sentence writing task) was more effective than input tasks (reading comprehension and reading comprehension plus gap-filling tasks).

Therefore, it was concluded that the results of this research on learning of lexical bundles provided support for the involvement load hypothesis in second language vocabulary learning and proved that Involvement Load Hypothesis is applicable to the acquisition of lexical bundles. To conclude, the addressing of the research question would facilitate further understanding of involvement load.

VII. LIMITATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Based on the findings of the current study, L2 pedagogical implications can be drawn. Teachers should consider designing tasks with various involvement loads for different bundles to enhance the acquisition. As mentioned above, tasks with higher involvements were more beneficial for initial learning and retention of lexical bundles than those with lower involvements. The results of the current study provide L2 teachers with a theoretical basis, especially in the teaching of lexical bundles.

The students in this study participated in each task only once. Therefore, in order to gain full understanding of effectiveness of each task on vocabulary learning, multiple tasks should be administered to the students.

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Discussion on the Relationship between Language and Culture

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Abstract—This paper discusses three cultural issues about English language teaching and learning and culture. The first issue touches upon the problem of Chinese English learners naming after English ones; the second probes into the debate if non-native English learners should use Anglo-American rhetoric structure in academic writing; the third debate is about if non-verbal language should be taught in English as a second or foreign language classroom. The three debates are important issues in the EFL or ESL context and of positive significance in the language education.

Index Terms—language and culture, English names, rhetoric structure, non-verbal language

I. INTRODUCTION

Language and culture has become a pair which is closely related to each other. The research and study in the field is gaining an increasing momentum all over the world and is playing an important part in language education. This essay will analyse three debates concerning language and culture that bears impacts on English teaching and learning. One debate discusses the practice of Chinese learners adopting English names. Another debate talks about if non-native English users should adopt the Anglo-American rhetoric structure in academic writing. And the last one is about non-verbal language and discusses if it should be taught in the micro classroom.

II. DEBATE 1 ON THE PRACTICE OF CHINESE LEARNERS ADOPTING ENGLISH NAMES

The phenomenon that Chinese people adopt English names to the extent which any other Asian country has never reached is not unusual in English or English-related fields (Edwards, 2006). Many English learners within and outside of China at various levels from kindergarten to tertiary level tend to use English names, and even those Chinese business people like to use English names when doing business with English native speakers. The debate focuses on the different people's ideas on the phenomenon (if they argue for or against the adoption of English names among Chinese people) rather than how their English names were produced.

There are those who strongly resist or disagree with the adoption for several major reasons. One reason is that they believe that adopting English names means 'losing their own (Chinese) identity' (Edwards, 2006). A person's name is very much a part of who s/he is. Our names reflect our sense of identity, who we are in relation to the world around us. This identity can be social identity, socio-cultural identity, cultural identity and ethnic identity (Norton, 2000). It can be roughly inferred that to change a Chinese identity seems to change any sort of identity above (Kiang, Harter & Whitesell, 2007). Another reason that they reject English names is that they believe adopting English names is the result of linguistic imperialism. Linguistic imperialism is defined as 'ideologies, structures, and practices which are used to legitimate, effectuate, and reproduce an unequal division of power and resources' (Kramsch, 1998). The resources can be both material and symbolic and language and education are typical symbolic resources (Norton, 2000). The fact is that English, the global language, is being learned by more than 1 billion people in the world as a second language or foreign language. Besides, the scientific and technological resources in English dominantly occupy the world market. China, a country with the largest population learning English as a foreign language, shows a more salient unbalance. With the highly out-of-balance global and national environment, the practice of adopting English names seems inevitable. This out-of-balance may result in any change in terms of cultural factors including name changing. Therefore, name changing can be the product of linguistic imperialism in the sense.

There are others who regard this as a manifestation of social improvement in China because they believe Chinese people are becoming more open to the world. One of my friends insists that adopting English names should indicate that Chinese people are seeing the world in a new or international perspective rather than in a 'pure' Chinese way. In today's society, a person is expected to take on new identities through life, dropping some, changing others, and take on new ones (Gee, 2006). Furthermore, for the Chinese students, the adoption of an English name is undoubtedly 'investment' in the target language and in a learner's own identity, an identity which is constantly changing across time and space. The notion of investment conceives of the language learner as having a complex social history and multiple desires. The notion presupposes that when language learners speak, they are not only exchanging information with target language speakers, but they are constantly organizing and reorganizing a sense of who they are and how they relate to the social world (Norton, 2000). Besides, many people argue that name changing can be seen a flexible approach to enter a new

discourse community and conduct social activities. Learners learning English in a native country find it easier to involve in classroom discussion and interaction with teachers and peers. Chinese business people believe they can make more profits when doing business with native English speakers if an English name is introduced because a Chinese with a real Chinese name is often unequally treated by native speakers. In this case, name changing is a sort of strategy to approach western discourse communities or adapt to new cultures. This has little to do with identity change because an individual can have more than one cultural identity (Campbell, 2000).

As far as I am concerned, the issue of name changing is a very complex phenomenon in communication, which involves various factors like traditional, historical, social, economic and cultural ingredients. It is a both collective and personal, both social and cultural (including home and foreign cultures) construct. All these factors co-construct the appearing of the issue in a certain time and space. Of course it does not exclude that the chances that some people gave themselves an English name with the motif of following suit (blind belief) or self-fashioning (to have a foreign name is a sort of fashion). But it also shows one's personal or internal culture is changing at a certain period of time and space with the changes of external cultural factors. Nevertheless, I strongly disagree with such assertions like Blum's (as cited in Edwards, 2006) that '(Chinese) people are accustomed to being addressed and referred to by an assortment of names, and they do not necessarily retain any of them as their real name or as the one that they feel reflects their identity'. The assertion centres on the internal factors (one side of the coin) without considering the influences of external factors (the other side of the coin) and therefore it is not comprehensive or sufficiently grounded. To sum up, a post-structuralist understanding is that a person constructs multiple identities over time and in diverse contexts; that each such identity is capable of change; and that some may be in tension, even in conflict with others (Lemke, 2002).

In addition, I like to turn to the distinction between a *self* and a *person* to explain the question. A *person* is the publicly recognized human individual who is the focus of overt practices of social life, while a *self* is the still centre of experience to which various conscious states, including organizations of memory, perception, and agency, are attributed (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). A name is more a *person* than a *self*. So changing a name is changing what the *person* is in the public socialization and the *self* is not necessarily changing. Personally, I think a *self* is relatively stable even though it is a coherent dynamic system according to Penuel & Wertsch (as cited in Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). However, I take the position that the *person* and the *self* should keep balance. Our *self* is accumulated in one or more than one cultures over many years and personal cultures should be valued. When the person goes too far from the *self* (for example, a person got a ridiculous English name like 'dog or monkey'), a kind of cultural returning or letting our *self* stands a point may be a solution. But the cultural returning process must be realized in a complicated context where all the factors play a part.

As for the questions like why English names are so widespread in China while in other Asian countries is not, I believe it is because the collaborative function of the dominant language English and perceptions of Chinese people. First of all, English is the only dominant foreign language in China, so anglicized names are more popular than other foreign names. Secondly, in the whole Chinese history continuum, China has been an open country since Qin Dynasty and the openness lasted over one thousand years otherwise China would not have been a leading country in ancient times (Tiexue Forum, 2007). The historical openness and modern open policy and English education at present may contribute to the phenomenon of naming changing.

III. DEBATE 2 ON NON-NATIVE USERS OF ENGLISH ADOPTING ANGLO-AMERICAN RHETORIC STRUCTURE IN ACADEMIC WRITING

Since Kaplan (1966) proposes the diagram of cultural thought patterns, the relationship of language and culture has gained increasing momentum in the past decades, and as an aspect of the relationship of language and culture, the interaction of cultural meaning and rhetorical style in the written mode across languages and traditions of literacy has been concerned by many educators and researchers (Kachru, 1999). Variation in discourse which can only be understood in terms of the sociocultural contexts; that is, patterns of discourse use are socially and culturally shaped (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Since different speech communities have different ways of organizing ideas in writing (Kachru, 1999), should non-native users of English employ rhetorical progressions of text that are congruous with the expectations of Anglo-American readers and researchers? Or to narrow down the question to within academic writing and English language teaching in outer circles, should Anglo-American styles be regarded as the standard paradigm in academic and therefore be taught in the classroom? As for the topic, there is a heated debate as follows:

Many researchers argue that it is both necessary and desirable for the non-native users of English to learn to construct text according to paradigms commonly found in Anglo-American writing if they wish to participate in and contribute to the pool of scientific and technological knowledge (Kachru, 1999). It is echoed with the perception that each language and each culture has a paragraph order unique to itself, part of the learning of a particular language is the mastering of its logical system or of the logos immanent in the language (Kramsch, 2004). And Kaplan (as cited in Kramsch, 2004) also maintains his original position that the acquisition of a second (or foreign) language really requires the simultaneous acquisition of a whole new universe and a whole new way of looking at it. In addition, to be academically literate in English, non-native users of English have to acquire not only certain linguistic skills, but also the preferred values, discourse conventions, and knowledge content of the academy (Canagarajah, 1999). To some extent, the academic discourses are historically associated with the values and interests of centre-based English speaking

communities. To sum up and put simply, their basic idea is that 'to play a game is to follow the rules'. 'Without rules, the game is a mess.' Their implication is that the characterization of non-Anglo-American writing as indicative of flawed logic and idiosyncratic reasoning presents non-native users of English as incapable of contributing to the growth of relevant knowledge (Kramsch, 2004).

Opposite to this, others see the issue differently. Their main claim is that the institutionalized varieties of English used in the countries of the outer circle have developed their grammatical and textual forms to express their contexts of culture (as cited in Kachru, 1999). The lexicogrammar and discursal patterns they use represent their ways of saying and meaning. In other words, discursal patterns must be dependent on context of culture otherwise meaning could not be well negotiated or represented. At the same time they point out the advantages of coexistence of various rhetorical styles in academy. The rhetorical styles include Anglo-American style represented by a straight downward arrow, oriental style represented by a spiral circling toward the centre, the romance style by a downward crooked arrow broken up by several horizontal digressional plateaux (Kachru, 1999; Kramsch, 2004). In view of the findings of the research on socialization through language, it is not possible to train the entire English-using population of the world to the way of thinking and writing in American, British, or any other variety of English. In other words, not all the English-using world can become identical to the Anglo-American society. Furthermore, it would be a pity to deny large numbers of people of the western and non-western worlds the opportunity to participate in and contribute to the development of knowledge in all fields, including science and technology (Kachru, 1999). To think about the issue from the perspective of world knowledge base, excluding the outer circle means even inner circle cannot benefit the publications and contributions from outer circle.

I strongly agree with the idea that it is necessary to foster an awareness of different rhetorical structures among English inner and outer circles, that is to allow having different discourse accents (writing styles that bear the mark of a discourse community's ways of using language) in academy (Kachru, 1999; Kramsch, 1998). Both Anglo-Americans and non-Anglo Americans ought to develop such a global awareness and it is quite partial to distinguish Western and the Other (Oriental) or Anglo-Americans and the Other (Pennycook, 1998) in terms of knowledge base in the world. After all, in academic writing transmission of a message is of prime importance; the topic or message and its transferability from one context to the other is the main concern (Kramsch, 1998). Plus, English teachers should also develop more than constrain a certain rhetorical structure because I believe each culture deserves the right to express themselves in their own way. In addition, there is evidence that writing across inner circle Englishes does not follow identical conventions (Kachru, 1999).

IV. DEBATE 3 ON NONVERBAL LANGUAGE BEING TAUGHT IN LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

Nonverbal communication appears to be swift and subtle. Much study has been carried out on the domain of nonverbal research (Wiemann & Harrison, 1983). Nonverbal language refers to tone, intonation, emphasis, facial expressions, gestures and hand movements, distance, and eye contact, in short, nonverbal signals, or the silent language (Varner & Beamer, 2005). Since it is named some sort of 'language', should language teachers teach nonverbal language in language classrooms? Or put it more specifically, can English teachers in China teach nonverbal language in the Chinese context? There are two extremes on the issue. One is that nonverbal language is really playing an important role in interpersonal communication, in particular face-to-face interaction and it must be taught in language education. The other stresses the difficulty of teaching nonverbal language in the classroom.

On one hand, the importance of nonverbal language in communication is highlighted in the statistics: some researchers maintain that in face-to-face communication up to *ninety-nine* percent of an oral message is communicated nonverbally and that the nonverbal elements are a much better indicator of the true meaning than the actual words are (Varner & Beamer, 2005). It can be inferred that verbal language sometimes can be not so real and attempt to deceive or hide something while nonverbal language is 'real' representative of meaning making in discourse. In fact, nonverbal behaviours can sometimes be deceptive because people can consciously control nonverbal signals (Patterson, 1983). For example, somebody is very angry with another but they may show a happy reaction with some special purposes. Nevertheless, it is generally agreed that nonverbal signals are often a real reflection of people's true feelings and reactions.

To apply this to classroom teaching, it is of great significance in interpersonal communication and in language classroom. Firstly, a good understanding of nonverbal signals can become an effective strategy of enhancing learning (Galloway, 1970). In the Chinese context, some non-English major students characterise as silent and unwilling to respond to the teacher for various reasons. When they may demonstrate nonverbal signals such as frowning or puzzled look to show they do not understand well or disagree, the teacher may approach to them and ask if what the teacher makes sense to him or if they have any different ideas. By so doing, the students not only feel the warmth from the teacher and can more positively get involved in the teacher-student interaction. Besides, appropriate use of nonverbal language can assist understanding and learning the classroom. When explaining 'wrinkle' to my students, I did the wrinkling action and the students got the exact meaning of the word immediately. Secondly, students' nonverbal signals can affect teaching. For example, some positive nonverbal behaviour from the students like smiling or nodding, the teacher can manipulate teaching process in an appropriate way. On the contrary, if the students never give any such signals the teacher may feel less confident in the teaching process and consequently affect investment and motivation in

education. Therefore to understand the nonverbal signal may turn out to be an effective strategy to enhance teaching and learning.

On the other hand, it is never an easy job to integrate nonverbal education into classroom because nonverbal communication is influenced by a number of factors including cultural background, socioeconomic background, education, gender, age, personal preferences and idiosyncrasies (Varner & Beamer, 2005). All these factors complicate the interpretation of the nonverbal aspects of communication. The reason why we must interpret such nonverbal signals in communication is because they decode and convey meanings and get our messages across more effectively (ibid). However, considering the following issues determines the difficulty of teaching nonverbal language in English classrooms.

The first issue is the extent to which teachers understand nonverbal language which carries on cultural and cross-cultural elements. An overwhelming majority of Chinese teachers of English (teaching non-English major students) have never had international residential experiences, which constrains them from access to teaching nonverbal language in an international and intercultural manner. Furthermore, nonverbal behaviours are not static but changing across time and the variables per se make the language teaching difficult.

The second issue is which country's nonverbal language should be taught or be emphasized if more than one cultures' nonverbal behaviours are to be introduced into classroom. When it comes to the issue, there will be a discussion on that. Some people believe of course the nonverbal teaching should focus on the English speaking or anglicized countries because it is English language learning not others. But in fact, English is a global language and people from outer circle and expanded circle out populate those from inner circle. With the globalization of economy, English, the lingua franca is playing a very important role in the interaction between people from non-inner circle. In this case, people begin thinking of to what extent it is necessary for them to adopt nonverbal language in communication. Opposite to this, others argue Chinese nonverbal language should be highlighted in the classroom. Their reasons are because in English teaching all the interaction is implemented between Chinese students and Chinese teachers. Nonverbal language teaching should serve the purpose of enhancing learning by smooth nonverbal communication in the language classrooms between peer and teacher/students.

As a matter of fact, I believe the discussion above shows exactly two sides of a coin. Nonverbal language is important in communication and should stand a point in language teaching despite various difficulties. I think it acceptable to develop nonverbal communication in classrooms in terms of forming a pleasant classroom culture, to borrow the term from Breen (2001). In the meantime, it is necessary to strategically develop students' international and intercultural nonverbal understandings because of the open policy of China to the world and more and more opportunities to contact non-Chinese. International consciousness can help them clear or reduce misunderstandings caused by different interpretations of nonverbal signals in different cultures. It is equally important that some strategies should be introduced for obtaining compliance (Robinson, 2003). For example, when a gesture is used by Party A who believes it shows positive meaning but it is misunderstood as an offensive signal by Party B. In face-to-face communication, Party A should be sensitive enough to realize the gap from other nonverbal signals like frowning or unhappy facial expressions and an explanation or enquiry should be given in order to minimize the negative consequences. At the same time I suppose a 'no-offend' perception ought to be a useful way to reduce unnecessary misunderstanding. By no-offend perception, it means that in usual interactions no one means to harm others by using so-called nonverbal behaviours and they are just different ways to negotiate meanings by different people. Put simply, form (the way of nonverbal language) is different but purpose (to facilitate understanding not to offend) is the same. In addition, there is little position of nonverbal language education in Chinese context, and teachers and researchers should explore further in order to achieve the goals of enhancing education and international communication because teachers' openness and awareness of the occurrence and significance of nonverbal events and expressions is very important (Galloway, 1970).

V. CONCLUSION

The essay discusses the three topics, which are English names, multiculturalism in rhetoric structure and nonverbal language. Different people may see the issues from quite different perspectives and draw different conclusions. The purpose of the essay is not to see which argument is more convincing but to arouse English teachers' reflection on English teaching and learning in different contexts. Their reflection on English and culture may play an indispensable role in influencing English education.

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The Effect of Methodology on Learning Vocabulary and Communication Skills in Iranian Young Learners: A Comparison between Audiolingual Method and Natural Approach

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Abstract—In countries in which English is learned as a foreign or as a second language, children's language education has been recognized as an important factor. The present study aims to investigate the progress of EFL young learners via the two methods of Audiolingual and Natural approach. The focus therefore is on the acquisition of English words and communicative skills in a certain period of time, and on the best method for improving communication in English for EFL young learners. The participants in this study were 40 Iranian female young learners aged between 7 and 9. They were chosen randomly from two elementary schools where English was taught as an extra-program subject. In one school, English was taught through Audiolingual method and in the other, via Natural approach. The final tests' scores of each group were analyzed to see the improvement of the young learner's vocabulary and communicative skills in each method. The results indicated that young learners' vocabulary learning and communication skills improved significantly in Natural approach compared in that of Audiolingual method.

Index Terms—audiolingual method, natural approach, young learners, vocabulary learning, communicative skills

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the English language has become the dominant international language, the importance of learning English has become more evident and hence teaching English has become more important. In the same way, teaching English to young learners (TEYL) has attracted many people in the last decades around the world, and therefore, English education has been increasingly practiced at the primary levels. Learning is among everyday experiences for everyone, but it is most obvious for young learners who acquire new behaviors, facts, languages, ideas and concepts very rapidly (Bartsch, Horvath, and Estes, 2003).

“While teaching English to young learners, a number of challenges occur most of which stem from the young learners' characteristics that are different from those of older ones” (Cameron, 2003). Therefore, considering the young learners' characteristics and also the language instruction is of utmost importance. Young learners tend to learn language more implicitly rather than explicitly (Cameron, 2001; Pinter, 2006; Slatterly and Willis, 2001). Recognizing meaningful messages is easy for them, but they cannot analyze the language as a system. Thus, presenting the language within 'meaningful contexts' is crucial while teaching English to young learners. In this way, language use will be reflected authentically (Cameron, 2001; Halliwell, 1992).

In contrast, recent research on young learners' course-books and materials used in foreign language classes shows the implementation of a variety of methodologies and teaching strategies that focus specifically on the acquisition of particular grammatical structures and sets of vocabulary items. (Cameron, 2003). This goes back in the history to around 50 years ago, from the time that Grammar-translation method was introduced, to Direct method, after that to Audiolingual method, to Cognitive code and a host of variations in each. Other methods have also been introduced to the field such as Silent way, Total Physical Response, Suggestopedia, Natural approach, etc. So, the problem is which of these methods is more beneficial in teaching English to young learners and which one motivates the learners more in their learning of English.

The present study therefore aims to investigate the effect of two of the above methods, namely Audiolingual and Natural approach on the progress of Iranian EFL young learners in learning English. The focus here is on the acquisition of English words and communicative skills in a certain period of time.

The present study addresses the following questions:

1. Are Audiolingual method and Natural approach significantly different in the acquisition of English vocabulary for EFL young learners?
2. Do EFL young learners communicate better in English through Audiolingual method or Natural Approach?

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

A. Audiolingual Method

The Audio-lingual method, like the direct method, is also an oral approach. However, it is very different in that "rather than emphasizing vocabulary acquisition through exposure to its use in situations, the Audio-lingual method drills students in the use of grammatical sentence patterns" (Anggraeni, 2007, p.13). It was believed that to acquire the sentence patterns of the target language, conditioning can help learners to respond correctly to stimuli through shaping and reinforcement.

Larsen-Freeman (2000) provides some typical techniques which are closely associated with the Audio lingual Method:

(1) Dialogue memorization, (2) Backward Build-up (Expansion Drill), (3) Repetition drill, (4) Chain drill, (5) Single-slot Substitution drill, (6) Multiple-slot Substitution drill, (7) Transformation drill, (8) Question and Answer drill, (9) Use Minimal Pairs, (10) Complete the dialogue, (11) Grammar games.

Repetition as an important factor in learning a language is emphasized in many studies, especially regarding child language learning. "Child discourse at the early stages of language acquisition is extraordinarily repetitive in nature. Children often repeat a large number of utterances addressed to them (other-repetition); they also often repeat their own utterances (self-repetition). The role of repetition in language acquisition has been much-discussed in psychology, linguistics, and anthropology" (Huang, 2010, p.1).

Studies which consider other-repetition (often referred to as 'imitation'), emphasize the importance of the role that repetition has in learning vocabulary and syntax but they have shown inconsistent results. Some studies (Moerk, 1977; Stine and Bohannon, 1983; Tager-Flusberg and Calkins, 1990) have resulted in only a limited or maybe no role of repetition in linguistic development. Other studies, however, have reported that it can facilitate grammatical and lexical improvement (Corrigan, 1980; Snow, 1981, 1983; Kuczaj, 1982; Speidel and Nelson, 1989; Speidel and Herreshoff, 1989; Pe'rez-Pereira, 1994).

The contradictions that have been found among these studies might be the result of differences in methodology among them, as assumed by Pe'rez-Pereira (1994). It means that different definitions of imitation have been used in different studies. Some studies adopted a narrower definition of imitation and considered only exact and reduced imitations. These studies concluded that imitations have no influence or just a little influence on linguistic development. On the other hand, other studies adopted a broader definition and included modified and expanded repetitions as imitations. These studies supported the claim that imitations promote grammatical development.

In one study, Hebb (1961) gave 24 lists of nine digits to each participant in order to measure the effect of the regular repetition of a sequence on immediate serial recall. While the participants were not aware, a sequence was repeated every third trial, resulting in eight repetitions of that sequence while all other sequences were non-repeating. The results showed that the participants' performance improved with repetition. This 'learning through repetition' effect is well known (e.g., Cumming, Page, & Norris, 2003; Hitch, Fastame, & Flude, 2005 ;) and, importantly, has been shown irrespective of whether participants become aware of the repetition or not (Couture & Tremblay, 2006; Hebb, 1961; McKelvie, 1987).

Finally, it is worth mentioning that the popularity of Audiolingual method did not last for a long time "because of its failure to teach long-term communicative proficiency. It was discovered later that language was not acquired through a process of habit-formation and over learning and it is not necessary to avoid errors at all costs" (Brown, 2007 ,p.112).

B. Natural Approach

In 1983, *The Natural Approach* was published by Krashen and Terrell, in which a comprehensive second language acquisition theory is combined with a curriculum for language classrooms. "Krashen and Terrell see communication as the primary function of language, and since their approach focuses on teaching communicative abilities, they refer to the Natural Approach as an example of a communicative approach" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 129). In this approach, the nature of language is described with emphasis on the meaning. For example, the importance of vocabulary is highly focused on, suggesting that a language is essentially its lexicon and only inconsequently the grammar. Krashen (1987) presents five hypotheses in second language acquisition:

1) *The Acquisition- Learning Hypothesis*: It makes a distinction between learning and acquisition (Krashen, 1985; VanPatten & Williams, 2007; and Mitchell & Miles, 2004). Acquisition takes place naturally without the learner being consciously aware of it. In learning, on the other hand, the learner is gaining explicit knowledge about and is working consciously with the language. An important part of this hypothesis is that the two systems are separate.

2) *The Monitor Hypothesis*: It states again that learnt knowledge is not very useful (Mitchell & Miles, 2004). Learning is just a monitor, or editor, and its function is to edit the acquired knowledge when the learner is producing language and even then the learnt knowledge is only useful in very restricted exercises when there is time to retrieve it.

3) *The Natural Order Hypothesis*: It claims that learners follow sequences in their acquisition of specific forms of the language; a phenomenon already noticed both in L1 and L2 research (Mitchell & Miles, 2004).

4) *The Input Hypothesis*: It focuses on the input. The point made here is that humans acquire language only by receiving comprehensible input. Language must be slightly above the level of the learner to make the optimal learning environment, i.e., $i+1$.

5) *The Affective Filter Hypothesis*: This is mainly about the learner's inner state. To be receptive for the input leading to language acquisition it is important that the learner is relaxed and comfortable. On the other hand, learners in a stressful environment where they are forced to produce language before they are ready will have high affective filter, and the processing of input will be blocked (VanPatten & Williams, 2007).

Input is an important part of Krashen's theory. It is through the comprehensible input that learners acquire the language. Many researches have been done on the importance of input on acquisition. In a study conducted by Rodrigoa, Krashen, and Gribbons (2004), fourth semester Spanish students, who were learning Spanish as a foreign language at the university level in the US, accepted to participate in two kinds of comprehensible-input based instruction. One of them was an extensive reading class, where assigned and self-selected reading was combined, and the other one, a "Reading-Discussion" class that included both assigned reading and discussions. Regarding a check-list vocabulary test and a grammar test, the result of this study indicates that students in both classes outperformed those in a traditionally taught class in these two type of tests. The results confirm the efficacy of comprehensible-input based pedagogy at the intermediate level.

Reading texts which are at an appropriate level of difficulty can be a good method to receive high comprehensible input. Krashen believes that "those who read more in a second language perform higher on comprehension exams than those who read less. Language can be acquired through reading material that includes vocabulary and structure just a little bit beyond language learners' current level of competence, i.e., " $i+1$ " (Krashen, 1993b). When the material is too far below their current ability, it will not be useful enough for their progress in language learning and when the material is well beyond their comprehension, it will overwhelm them and cause discouragement. Krashen relates his Input Hypothesis to reading in the following:

The reading hypothesis is a special case of the comprehensible input hypothesis. It claims that reading for meaning, especially free voluntary reading, is comprehensible input, and is the source of much of our competence in literacy, our reading ability, writing style, much of our vocabulary and spelling competence, and our ability to use and understand complex grammatical constructions. (Krashen, 2002c, P.5)

Krashen (1993b, 1994) especially supports extensive reading for pleasure, or free voluntary reading. Extensive reading can be defined as the reading of large amounts of material just for pleasure and information, in which the material is usually chosen by the students and is comprehensible to them. According to Sims (1996) the value of such reading may be summarized as follows:

1. Several studies suggest that more reading leads to greater literacy development;
2. Students who participated in free reading programs outperformed children who were taught by traditional methods;
3. People, who reported more free reading, read and wrote better than those who reported less free reading;
4. Language is too vast and complex to teach and learn one rule or item at a time, thus traditional instruction cannot account for literacy development;
5. Literacy development is quite possible without conscious learning or output (Sims, 1996, pp.22-23).

Furthermore, Krashen's affective filter hypothesis plays an important role in receiving comprehensible input and therefore, acquiring the language. "Affect came to be considered as a very important contributing factor to success in learning. Some even went so far as to stress that affect was more important than cognitive learner abilities because without, say, motivation to learn cognitive learner abilities would not even start to be engaged in the process of learning" (Mihaljević Djigunović, J., 2006, p.11)

Motivation, as one of the affective filters considered by Krashen, has been a controversial issue for a long time with researchers on second and foreign language learning (Brown, 2001; Dornyei, 2003; Gardner, 2000; Manolopoulou-Sergi, 2004; Ryan, & Deci, 2000; and Skinner, & Madden, 2009). All of these researches emphasized the importance of motivation in second language learning.

Self-confidence and anxiety also have attracted the attention of many researchers. The results of the study conducted by Gardner et al. (1997) showed that "anxiety was low in confident learners and they feel that they are able to do well, whereas less confident learners experience higher anxiety and feel that they lack the ability to perform well" (Gardner., Smythe, Brunet, 1977, p.22). Kitano (2001) investigated the anxiety of college learners of Japanese and reported a correlation between anxiety and self-perception in male students.

C. Vocabulary Learning

It is universally recognized that vocabulary learning is a fundamental component both of acquisition of one's native language and of learning a foreign language. Vocabulary learning has been researched extensively in different ways such as individual difference studies of young children's acquisition of words in their native language, older children's and adults' acquisition of words in a foreign language, and experimental studies of nonword learning. The latter method

simulates learning new words in a controlled way, for instance, manipulating the structure or phonological features of the new “words” to be learned.

Baddeley, Gathercole, and Papagno (1998) proposed the most influential theory of vocabulary learning. They claimed that “phonological short-term memory has a very important role in constructing representations of the phonological form of new words both in one’s native language and in a foreign language” (Baddeley, Gathercole, Papagno, 1998, p. 65). Baddeley and colleagues (see also Gathercole & Baddeley, 1993) based their claim on an extensive review of manifold research. This included correlational studies on young children’s first language acquisition and experiments on children’s learning of new names as well as on learning word pairs versus word–nonword pairs. It also included adult experiments on the effect of manipulations such as articulatory suppression, word length, and phonological similarity on learning nonwords or the vocabulary of a foreign language. Furthermore, they considered the performance of neuropsychological patients, children with disabilities, and polyglot adults. Converging evidence from those different sources led the authors to the generalization that new word learning is linked to “phonological memory skills.” Subsequent studies (e.g., Duyck, Szmalec, Kemps, & Vandierendonck, 2003; Gathercole, Service, Hitch, Adams, & Martin, 1999; Masoura & Gathercole, 1999; Palladino & Cornoldi, 2004) also supported that conclusion.

A language consists of a huge amount of words and for a language teacher it is essential to recognize what words to focus on and also how to work with vocabulary learning. Word knowledge is a multifaceted matter, and what kind of knowledge is the aim for the training is also important to reflect on. Stahl (1999) sees the importance of vocabulary learning and puts it this way: “Our knowledge of words determines how we understand texts, define ourselves for others, and define the way we see the world. A richer vocabulary does not just mean that we know more words, but that we have more complex and exact ways of talking about the world, and of understanding the ways of thinking more complex thinkers see the world... The more words we know, the more distinctions we make about the world, the more clearly we see things in our world. We use words to think; the more words we know, the finer our understanding is about the world” (p.1).

Two aspects of vocabulary knowledge, i.e., size and depth have been separated in the field of vocabulary learning and teaching by researchers (Bogaards and Laufer, 2004; Haastrup and Henriksen, 2000; Milton, 2009; Read, 2000). However, Milton (2009) in reviewing a large number of studies, *Measuring Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition*, states that these two aspects are inseparable and they might be closely related.

The number of words that language learners know at a particular level of language proficiency is referred to as the *size* of vocabulary knowledge (Nation, 2001). Nassaji (2004) states that “one widely used measure to assess the size of vocabulary knowledge in the literature is Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT), which has a word meaning matching format and is composed of words representing different word-frequency levels, ranging from high-frequency (2000-word level) to low-frequency words (10,000-word level)” (p.87). Milton (2009) states that through these tests “we get believable and stable results and they have good content validity” (p. 11).

Depth of vocabulary knowledge is related to how well the language learner knows a word (Read, 1993, 2000). According to Nassaji (2004), researchers have indicated “the complexity and multi-dimensionality of word knowledge and have suggested that knowing a word well should mean more than knowing its individual meanings in particular contexts” (p. 112). A learner must know a variety of knowledge that associate with a word such as: knowledge of its pronunciation, register, spelling and stylistic and morphological features (Haastrup and Henriksen, 2000; Nation, 1990; Richards, 1976), knowledge of the word’s syntactic and semantic relationships with other words in the language, including collocational meanings and knowledge of antonyms, synonyms, and hyponyms (Chappelle, 1994; Henriksen, 1999; Read, 2000). One measure which is used widely in assessing only some of these aspects is Word Associates Test (WAT) that was originally developed by Read (1993, 2000).

Learning vocabulary is easier for young learners than learning structures because they can relate words to tangible and immediate meanings but structures do not seem very useful to them. It is better for children to see and use the words in relevant contexts, so that the words will be fixed in their mind and in this way, a vocabulary network is built up to relate the newly learned words to other ones. Duffelmeyer and Duffelmeyer (1979) point out that “how the words are learned is very important because it affects how well they are really understood” (p.15). Knowledge obtained by the learner is often just the surface meaning of the word and the essential meaning of that is missing.

D. Communicative Language Teaching

The focus of language teaching in the past was mostly on the form of language rather than the meaning (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979). However, “even complete mastery of grammatical forms does not guarantee using the target language effectively in communication” (Berns, 1984, p.56; Johnson, 1979, p.98). Therefore, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was developed with the purpose of developing the learners’ communicative competence (Richards & Rodgers, 1986).

The central characteristic of CLT is that “almost everything that is done is done with communicative intent” (Larsen-Freeman cited in Rao 2002, p.81). Second language acquisition is an unconscious process of using language, not directly acquired by conscious learning (Krashen, 1985). So, “this is the responsibility of the teacher is to create a proper setting for students to practice and acquire English in the classroom through activities. But the main problem is that the class time is limited and how to use this limited time to improve students’ language competence through communication is important” (Singh and Li, 2005, p.97).

As Widdowson (1978) claimed “an overemphasis on grammar would make the learners decrease their communicative abilities” (p.12). For instance, teachers’ detailed explanations and exercises of grammar in grammar-translation classes may lead the students to have little chance to communicate with language (Singh and Li, 2005, p.43). According to Littlewood (1981), many aspects of language learning happen only through natural processes, i.e., when the learner is learning the language for communication and using it as an ultimate goal. In addition, Snow (1996) believes that when the learner is involved actively in communication with language, he/she can learn more effectively.

Widdowson, (1978) states that “the students in developing countries still have difficulties in using the language both in spoken and written forms because they have been taught formal English for many years” (p.24). In order to understand Chinese students’ perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classroom and the difficulties they perceived, Rao (2002) conducted a case study. The results of the questionnaire revealed that

Although the students liked many of the communicative activities done in the classroom, they liked the non-communicative activities more. Items including communicative activities were based on student-to-student interaction with or without the teacher monitoring. Items about noncommunicative activities emphasized formal correctness included workbook type drills and practice exercises. Six of the ten non-communicative activities were liked by more than half of the students while four of the nine communicative activities were favored by most students. Chinese students started to feel independent in the classroom. Just one third of the students needed their teachers to explain everything to them. Apparently, nearly all of the students liked student-student interaction while only a few pupils stated that they like interacting with each other by moving around the classroom. Lack of motivation for communicative competence, traditional learning styles and habits, EFL learning situations, lack of funding, etc. were among the reasons that caused some difficulties for the participants to participate in the communicative activities.

As a result of the study, all of the students participated in this study are aware that there is no single best way to teach. They all know that they need a combination of communicative and non-communicative activities. As Thompson (1996) indicated that “English learning can be facilitated if teachers can develop their own locally appropriate version of the communicative approach” (p.36).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants in this study were 40 female Iranian young learners aged between 7 to 9, in grades 1, 2, and 3 of elementary school and beginners' in learning English. They were chosen randomly from two elementary schools in Isfahan where English was taught as an extra-program subject. In one school, English was taught through Audiolingual method and in the other, it was taught via Natural approach.

B. Instrument

The only instrument used in this study was the final test used at the end of the school year in each method. The final test in Natural approach consisted of 8 questions, in which 2 questions were "matching the pictures with the correct answer", 5 questions for "drawing and coloring", and 1 "multiple choice question" but the choices were pictures. The final test in Audiolingual method consisted of 18 multiple choice questions. There were 4 "wh-questions", 4 "Yes/No questions" and 8 "fill in the blank questions".

C. Procedures

I asked the teachers in each school to give me the test papers of twenty of their students randomly. I then classified the questions into vocabulary and communicative items based on the definitions of vocabulary and communicative tests provided before (see 2.3. and 2.4.). An expert then reviewed my categories and confirmed them. Table 3.1. represents the number of items in each test related to each of the above categories.

TABLE 3.1.
QUESTIONS AND THEIR RELATED CATEGORY IN EACH FINAL EXAM

Teaching methodology	Vocabulary Questions	Communicative Questions	Both
Natural approach	1- 7a, 7b, 7c	-	2-3-4-5-6-7d,7e-8
Audiolingual method	1-2-5-6-10-14-15-16	3-4-7-8-9-11-12-13-17-18	-

As the above table shows, the final exam for Audiolingual method consisted the items which were either vocabulary or communicative. But in the final exam for Natural approach, the items were either vocabulary questions or both vocabulary and communicative questions. There was no item which could be considered as a communicative item. So, in analyzing the scores for vocabulary questions, the items related to both categories and vocabulary items grouped together and in analyzing communicative items, items related to both categories were used as communicative items.

Furthermore, I observed five full sessions of each class in each school to find out how the teachers employed each method in their teaching and also how the young learners used English while learning it.

IV. RESULTS

The data obtained through the scores of 20 young learners' final exams in each group were put into t-test analysis. After calculating the mean scores on the vocabulary questions and applying a t-test on them, the results indicated a significant difference for vocabulary acquisition between two groups. The results are represented in Table 4.1. below:

TABLE 4.1.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR VOCABULARY ITEMS IN FINAL EXAMS IN EACH METHOD

		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
vocabulary	Equal variances assumed	27.655	.000	-5.878	38	.000	-5.82750	.99146
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.878	19.526	.000	-5.82750	.99146

As indicated in the above table, there is a significant difference in the acquisition of vocabulary between two groups of this study ($t=-5.878$, $df=38$, $p<0.05$). Young learners in Natural approach outperformed those in Audiolingual method in the acquisition of vocabulary.

Moreover, the mean scores of the 20 young learners in two groups on communicative questions in final exams were calculated and a t-test was run on the data. The results are presented in Table 4.2.:

TABLE 4.2.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR COMMUNICATIVE ITEMS IN FINAL EXAMS IN EACH METHOD

		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
communicative	Equal variances assumed	4.688E1	.000	-4.571E0	38	.000	-3.06500	.67059
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.571E0	1.988E1	.000	-3.06500	.67059

As indicated in Table 4.2., the students in Natural approach outperformed those in Audiolingual method in communicative items ($t=-4.571$, $df=38$, $p<0.05$). Therefore, it can be concluded that EFL young learners acquire communicative skills significantly better when English is taught through Natural approach.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

As the results of this study indicate EFL young learners learning English vocabularies via Natural Approach outperform those leaning through Audiolingual Method (see 4.1.). The reason might be that unlike Audiolingual Method in which "vocabulary is kept to a minimum while the students are mastering the sound system and grammatical patterns" (Larsen Freeman, 2000, p.46), the emphasis of Natural Approach is "on the primacy of meaning. The importance of vocabulary is stressed" (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 130).

The difference between teaching vocabulary through two methods of Audiolingual and Natural approach, as the observation of two groups show, is that in Audiolingual method, repetition of the new words is the key element in learning vocabularies but in Natural approach, the teacher is the input provider (in this case vocabularies) and the learners are not forced to use the new language until they feel ready. Some studies mentioned before (see 2.1) have reported that "grammatical and lexical development is facilitated through repetition" (Corrigan, 1980; Snow, 1981, 1983; Kuczaj, 1982; Speidel and Nelson, 1989; Speidel and Herreshoff, 1989; Pérez-Pereira, 1994). On the other hand, a number of studies have concluded that "imitation plays no role or only a limited role in linguistic development" (Moerk, 1977; Stine and Bohannon, 1983; Tager-Flusberg and Calkins, 1990). This is in line with the results obtained from this study. The improvement of young learners' vocabulary learning through repetition in Audiolingual method was not that much significant compared to their improvement in the natural way. Emphasizing the importance of input comprehensibility in SLA, Krashen and Terrell (1983) claim that:

Acquisition depends crucially on the input being comprehensible. And comprehensibility is dependent directly on the ability to recognize the meaning of key elements in the utterance. Thus, acquisition will not take place without comprehension of vocabulary (p. 155).

Furthermore, a significant difference was observed in communication between two groups. Young learners in Natural approach communicate better than those in Audiolingual method (see 4.3.). It is again in relation with the theory of language underlying Natural approach. Language is viewed as a vehicle for communicating meanings and messages. Hence Krashen and Terrell state that "acquisition can take place only when people understand messages in the target language" (Krashen and Terrell, 1983, p. 19). Although they have a communicative approach to language, "they view

language learning, as do audiolingualists, as mastery of structures by stages” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 98). This is, in fact, based on Krashen's natural order hypothesis.

As Widdowson (1978) claimed “an overemphasis on grammar would lead preventing the learners from developing their communicative competence” (p.33) and teaching grammar through different techniques is the main aim of Audiolingual method. Its overemphasis on learning grammar rather than communication skills caused the young learners in this study to perform poorly in communication skills. However, the emphasis of Natural approach on communication caused the improvement of communication skills in young learners in this study. According to Krashen, “acquisition takes place when we understand the input-language that contains ‘structure’ that is ‘a little beyond’ our current stage” (Krashen, 1987, p. 21). The idea is that “‘meaning’ has priority over ‘structure’. Language a little beyond current competence is facilitated, according to Krashen, by the use of extra-linguistic input, context and knowledge of the world” (Krashen, 1987, p. 21). According to Krashen’s second stage of the input hypothesis, “we acquire by understanding language that contains structure a bit beyond our current level of competence ($i + 1$). This is done with the help of context or extra-linguistic information” (Krashen, 1987, p. 21).

The conclusion drawn from Krashen's five hypotheses in relation to this study is the acquisition of English vocabularies, as the most important part of Natural approach, by providing input to learners, not forcing them to produce the language until they feel ready to do that. In this way, learners acquire the language and it improves their communicative skills.

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Techniques of the Translation of Culture

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Abstract—This article discusses the basic principle of the translation of the culture and explores some techniques of the translation of culture. It also studies the impact of cultural differences on translation in several aspects. Language is a social behavior that reflects culture. Being ignorant of the target language culture, we would be a failure in translating, thus translating a language into another foreign language necessarily involves culture integration. It is not enough to be aware of the importance of integrating culture into translating. To integrate culture into foreign language translating, it is necessary to be clear about the cultural differences between the foreign language and the native language and how the target-language-culture is reflected in its language.

Index Terms—techniques, translation, cultural differences

I. INTRODUCTION

The translation of culture is more difficult to master than article translation. Sometimes even a word and a phrase takes much time to establish in translation. Translation of words and phrase should obey three translation criteria like faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance. These standards are useful to the translation of culture.

But sometimes we cannot translate words and phrases only according to the above standards. There is one more important thing we should not neglect: culture influence upon the translation of words and phrases. There are several ways of translation, such as pure translation, pure semantic translation etc. Culture factor is an important part we should consider. So in the translating, culture should be integrated in translating.

Cultural differences are a social phenomenon. Translating culture does not mean making one culture conform to the other, and cultivate the cultural sensitivity of translating. As has been mentioned before, the lady got angry because Calvin made sudden visits without making an appointment ahead of time. It shows two completely different cultural attitudes toward making a visit. There are many such examples. Different cultures take different attitudes towards the scope and place of making an apology.

It can be seen that translation is indeed in the broad context of research. How to find the best way of translation on the premise of foreign culture. What's the basic principle of the translation of culture? The author talks about a little shallow opinion about these questions.

Translation is one kind of action by which different nations can communicate thought and culture. It realizes by the transform of different languages. Many aspects impact this kind of translation. Here we study the techniques of the Translation of Culture.

Language is a social behavior that reflects culture. Being ignorant of the target language culture, we would be a failure in our communication, thus teaching English in China as a foreign language necessarily involves culture integration.

II. CULTURAL INFLUENCE ON LANGUAGE

Following the definitions of sociologists and anthropologists, the term “culture” refers to the total patterns of beliefs, customs, institutions, objects and techniques that characterize the life of a human community. “Culture consists of all the shared products of human society.” (Smith, 1987) This means not only such material things as cities, organizations and schools, but also non-material things such as ideas, customs, family patterns, and languages. Putting it simply, culture refers to the entire way of life of a society, “the ways of a people.” Members of a particular culture have certain things in common, a certain way of life, a certain way of behavior. What the share includes certain values and beliefs, certain customs, perhaps certain gestures or certain foods. They may also share distinctive artifacts, a distinctive art, a distinctive music and a body of literature and folk stories.

Language is a part of culture and plays a very important role in it. Some social scientists consider it the keystone of culture. Without language, they maintain, culture would not be possible. And every social institution is maintained by language; law, religion, government, education, and the family are all set in place and carried out with language. People use language to reveal or conceal their personal identities, their characters, and their background, often wholly unconscious that they are doing so.

On the other hand, language is influenced and shaped by culture; it reflects culture. In the broadest sense, language is the symbolic representation of a people, and it comprises their historical and cultural backgrounds as well as their approach to life and their ways of living and thinking. Cultural patterns, customs and ways of life are expressed in language; culture specific worldviews are reflected in language.

As language and culture are inseparable, a newborn baby learns his mother tongue and its culture at the same time. When children are growing up, they learn how to do within their own culture. They get to know what languages and behaviors are appropriate in a given situation, how to interact the actions happening around them. At the same time, they get to learn to communicate with others with their language. Language and culture are, of course, inextricably linked; so learning a language means learning culture. For example, when we grow up in Chinese cultures we learn to say "Can I have a drink?" rather than "Give me a drink"; we don't address our brothers and sisters by their first names except they are younger than us; we learn to say "thank you" when accepting something. In other words, in learning how to speak, we must not only master the vocabulary and grammar of a certain language, we must also absorb the social rules that govern how we should use vocabulary and grammar in concrete situations. The social rules are sometime the cultural factors. Everyone knows that cultures differ from one another, that every culture is unique. Since cultures are diverse, so are the languages. Cultural influence on language embodies mainly in two aspects: cultural similarities cause language similarities, and cultural differences cause language differences.

Every nation has its own way of viewing the universe, and each develops from its own premises a coherent set of rules, which will be handed down from generation to generation. Gradually, they are accepted as the essential part in people's life. This is the formation of culture. Since the social background and geographic situations are different from nation to nation or even from place to place in the same country, cultures in different nations have more differences' influence on language. So, more emphasis will be put on cultural differences' influence on language, though there are cultural similarities between China and western countries. Cultural differences will be discussed in details, which cause language differences. Geographic situations, social backgrounds, and cultural patterns all belong to cultures.

A. *Geographic Situations' Influence on Language*

England has a peculiar meteorological condition. In no country other than England, it has been said that one can experience four seasons in the course of a single day! Day may begin with a balmy spring morning; about an hour later, there may be black clouds appearing from some place and the rain may be pouring down. At noon it may be wintry with the temperature down by about eight degrees centigrade. After that, about in the late afternoon, it will be clear up, the sun will begin to shine, and for an hour or two before darkness falls, it maybe like a summer day.

In England, one can experience almost every kind of weather except the most extreme. You never can be sure what type of weather condition will appear. We not only do get several different sorts of weather in one day, but also we may experience the spell of winter in summer and vice-versa. The uncertainty about the weather has had a definite influence on the Englishman's language. When they meet each other, after a "Hi" or "Hello", they like to talk about the weather, for example, they often say: "It's a fine day, isn't it?" But we Chinese like to ask food and places, because to us Chinese where our friends are going and whether they have eaten is about our concern. So we often start our conversation or greeting by enquiring such things.

The geographic situations' influence on language can also be testified by the following example. In Chinese opinion, the east wind stands for warmth, spring and also the beautiful things. The famous poet Li Shangyin has a famous poetry entitled "wuti" in which there is a sentence use east wind. In Chinese, the east wind should be the messenger of urging the flowers to blossom. This poem used to be translated as a good exemplification

The Englishman finds it hard to understand. Because according to England's location, in their eyes, the east wind should be bitter cold wind while the west wind symbolizes warmth. John Mansfield's famous poem "Ode to the West Wind" is a good example in point.

The different understanding towards west winds and east winds between Westerners and Chinese is caused by the influences of culture on language. According to England's location, west wind can bring warmth to them. So, in English, they use west wind to stand for the beautiful things, while in China, we use east winds to stand for beautiful things.

B. *Social Background's Influence on Language*

China is a country with a history of five thousand years. And Confucianism plays an important part in Chinese history. The Chinese distinguish their relative relationships seriously. This is caused by the feudalism culture. In this culture, any social relationship must be stipulated by the relative titles. No matter it is at funeral or wedding or when one inherits the heritage, it must also be dealt with according to relative titles. This strict distinction causes the complexity of relative titles in Chinese. In traditional Chinese family, there are usually a large number of people, including uncles, aunts, brothers and sisters, etc. So they tell elder brother from younger brother and also tell elder sister from younger sister. But in a traditional English family, which is usually a nuclear family, only the parents and their children live together. So they don't tell father's younger brother from father's older brother, not because they can't do so, but because on most occasions, they don't have to. The feudal culture enriches the Chinese vocabulary, and causes Chinese have more words about relative titles. And also because of the influence of western culture, English doesn't have many words about relative titles.

China used to be an agricultural nation. Agriculture plays a very important part in the daily life of Chinese people. This feature is often reflected in our Chinese language. So there are many idioms and expressions related to agriculture in Chinese. These all attribute to the influence of Chinese culture.

The history of Britain is a history of invasion. Britain invaded many countries in the history, and it used to be called

“The sun never setting empire”. The Britain once defeated the “Invincible Fleet” of Spain on the sea in Elizabeth age and became the imperialist power in the world at that time. So there are some English phrases related to sea and fishing such as “be all at sea”, “know the ropes”, while the language related to agriculture is rare.

One important factor to maintain harmonious relationships with others is to be courteous with others. There is a little difference in the usage of polite words between Chinese and English. Though it is true that in every culture, people use polite language to be courteous, when and what to say make differences. It can be very impolite not to add the polite words when one is supposed to. Take “thank you” for example.

In Chinese culture people will only say “xiexie”, the Chinese equivalent of “thank you”. When they get help from others, and if it is only a minor help, people always omit that. However, in western countries, it is used in a much broader context. Except from getting help, they use it in occasions like shopping, answering a call, or just for the attendance in a party. It sometimes puzzles the Chinese when a westerner says “thank you” after we sell things to them. For we think it should be we who need to say that, and we sometimes respond that with “thank me for what”. This kind of misunderstanding is due to the ignorance of other’s culture. In fact, “thank you” to westerners does not only show the gratitude in our understanding, rather, it has been used as a custom and of course, they sometimes are prepared for the others to say that. If we treat this situation the same way as we Chinese do, it will not be very polite. There is another point regarding to the difference in using “thank you”.

We Chinese will not use it or use fewer as a sign of intimate relations and just bear the gratitude in mind. For Chinese are more introverted in showing feelings. However, in western countries, people are more open in showing feelings, so they will not omit that even to their parents. This difference in the use of polite words is caused by the difference of culture.

C. *Cultural Pattern’s Influence on Language*

Cultural patterns address the manner in which a culture orients itself to activities, social relations, the self, and the world. In studying cultural differences, many researchers cite the concept of “cultural patterns”. Larry presents that there are five primary differences in cultural patterns. I will also discuss cultural patterns’ influence on language from these five aspects.

III. PRESERVING THE CULTURE FEATURE IN THE SOURCE LANGUAGE

A. *Using Literal Translation, Liberal Translation and Explanatory Notes Correctly*

If the literal translation, liberal translation and explanatory notes are correct, the culture of the source language will be expressed better. In the following text, some examples will be given in order to make readers understand these skills better.

Some English idiom is from the figure of Bible. If the literal translation and explanatory notes are used together, the metaphoric meaning will be expressed vividly. For example: as old as Methuselah, as rich as Jew, as wise as Solomon. Methuselah is the son of Yinnu in Bible. He had lived for 969 years. The ancient Jew is very rich and so the Jew is the symbol of rich man. Solomon who is famous for his wisdom is the king of the ancient Israel.

Sometimes the literal translation may make the original text vivid and supplement the Chinese vocabulary. This kind skill is used frequently in political term. for example: *Lame duck* - the officer who is relieved of his office doesn’t win in the re-election. *Dark horse*-the candidate who is unpopular with people defeats the others we unexpected. This way of translation should be adopted on the premise of the accepting by Chinese.

We rise that the foreign sentiment should be stressed in the translation. It is the so-called foreign flavor, which refers to preserving the culture features of foreign countries in the source language. Do not make the English have the Chinese color. The correct way of translation is better. For example: as gentle as lamb, as gay as a lark. In this way it not only expresses the image of the original text, but also increases the foreign sentiment in the translation. Going after the foreign flavor and image painstakingly may have an exact opposite effect.

B. *Avoiding Put Forcedly the National and Local Color into the Translation*

There is something in English that only exists in the special culture. They cannot be translated into Chinese style. This is so-called the cultural conflict. Such as *yu mi zhi xiang*, It is proper to be translated into the rich place. “When Greek meets Greek, then comes the tug of war.” The proverb describes the indomitable resistance of old Greek. Now, it describes the fierce fight between two warriors or two brave armies. Some in Chinese history is not in Britain’s. So it cannot be found in the translation.

C. *Dealing with the Rustic Flavor in the Foreign Flavor*

When English words and phrases are transformed into Chinese, not only the foreign flavor should be preserved, but also should remain the rustic flavor in it including those substandard English phrases and slang. This kind expression can exaggerate individual characters, the level of knowledge and the social position of the person.

“I keep it from her after I heard on it,” said Mr. Peggotty, “goings-on nigh a year. We were living then in a solitary place, but among the most beautiful trees.” There are many mistakes in the words of Mr. Peggotty in original text, which shows that the education he accepts is little. He is not a person in the upper class. The translation expresses is

according to the facts. The translation should faith to the original text though this kind of translation is clear and coherent. Or the rustic flavor is missing. It is conform to the tone of Peggotty.(Heping,1998,P9)

About the technique of translation, limited by the paper, the author discussed superficially the above little opinion.

IV. THE IMPACT OF CULTURAL DIFFERENCES ON TRANSLATION

In order to translate well besides the techniques, some impacts of cultural differences should be taken attention to.

A. *The Impact of Social Culture*

There is a great difference in the use of the words, the way of thought and the habit of expression in English and Chinese. The translation should focus on the thought and the culture communication. This condition can be found in some examples.

One company invites some foreign experts to a dinner party. Although there are many wonderful foods and wine, the host stands up and says: "Please forgive me because the dishes are not good." These words are very suited to Chinese, but the foreigners will be confused. They don't understand why not receive them with good food. Because of the different social culture, they have some embarrassment.

B. *The Impact of Custom*

The typical custom difference between the English and Chinese are the connotations of some words for instance. Both the Chinese and English languages contain a lot of words denoting animals, plants and seasons. However, because of different history and culture, the connotations of these words in one language do not necessarily coincide with those in the others.

In the view of Chinese, goat is a commendatory term. When British see the word, they will connect it with lecher.

Some words denoting plants have deep metaphoric meanings in China. Willow is often compared to prostitute, frivolous and ruthless woman and brothel. Willow in English was the symbol of miserable fate of Ophelia; she had just sung the song of willow before she died.

In China, when people talk about autumn, they always think of the words "sad, discourage, distressed and grievous." When autumn comes and the cool wind blows, people stepping on the fallen leaves, they feel very depressed. The meaning of autumn in English is opposite. They feel comfortable and pleasant.

C. *The Impact of System, Faith and World View*

In tradition, when building house or tomb, Chinese people believe that the location has an influence on the fortune of a family. The idea doesn't exist in European. In the European culture, when a person dies, he will be buried in the tomb of the church. Although they also choose direction of the building when they build house, it is for the building itself. Chinese people stress to choose lucky day, when they want to do something import. In many areas, people inhibit the odd days. They always choose the even-number days to get married. In the view of European, either the odd-number days or the even-number days are the same. But they inhibit the number 13. They believe the number is not auspicious. Just like the European doesn't understand the meaning of the odd-numbered days and the even-numbered days, the auspicious number is 13.

D. *Being Extensive the Knowledge of Different Culture*

The culture of each nation is one part of the developing of the society. It is easy to deal with the university in translation. But each nation has different culture. There are many differences in religious, custom and social culture excepting in the world view. In order to communicate the differences, the extensive knowledge is required. The abundant culture knowledge is the premise of doing the translation well.

V. GLOBALIZATION AND RECOGNITION OF SOME TRANSLATION

A. *Loanwords and Globalization*

In the recent ten years, the contact between China and other countries become more and more frequent. More and more translation works appear in many fields, such as in economy, politics, trade and tourism. Culture communication is becoming more and more frequent. Different culture phenomenon is familiar to different people. There are some words and phrases being accepted by other cultures and popular in other cultures. Cases in point are qigong, wushu, kungfu, jiaozi, etc. There words have been accepted by English speaking countries. And "kelong", "jiyin", "coco" are popular with Chinese people. Some words like "CD", "VCD", "OK" and "E-mail" are used directly instead of being translated into Chinese.

B. *Recognition of Some Translation like "Telephone"*

In 1930s, "telephone" was translated into "delufeng" and in 1950s "laser" into "laisai". At that time, people did not know what they were. As years passed, people know more about these things and change their names into "dianhua" and "jiguang". "xiangbin" is the transliteration of Champagne where the wine is made in France. The translator is intelligent to combine the euphony with the mellowness of the wine and hospitality of welcoming the guest. All these

examples show the culture influence upon the translation of words and phrases.

VI. CONCLUSION

“Learning a language is a kind of learning the culture and habit of the country where the language is spoken.” Translation, we should learn the different cultures, including its tradition, habits, social customs, morals and so on. Culture exerts strong influence on language. In the translation of words and phrases, culture background is essential. A translator without understanding the culture cannot translate well. We should take the culture factor as an important part in translation and translate words and phrases according to the rules of translation so as to get rid of unreasonable translation.

Cultural difference has great impact on translation. The premise of doing well translation is having extensive knowledge about culture. We should grasp firmly the basic principle of the translation of culture, master the technique and skills of it and the deep connotation of culture, preserve the culture feature of foreign country in the source language. Don't make the English have the color of China.

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Review of Wolfgang Iser and His Reception Theory

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Abstract—Wolfgang Iser is one of the famous advocates of Reception Theory in contemporary literary field. His Reception Theory is different from another famous advocate Jauss in many ways. This paper attempts to give an in-depth analysis of Wolfgang Iser and probes into his Reception Theory in the following seven aspects: the production of meaning; the implied reader model; the functionalist model of the text; processing the text: a phenomenology of reading; literature and communication: interaction between text and reader; Iser's literary anthropology; and reception theory meets cognitive criticism.

Index Terms—Wolfgang Iser, reception theory, text, reader

I. INTRODUCTION

Wolfgang Iser (July 22, 1926–January 24, 2007) was a leading German literary theoretician and co-founder of the Constance School of Reception Aesthetics, professor Emeritus of English and Comparative Literature at the University of Constance and the University of California, Irvine. When Iser died in 2007 in his eighty-first year he was one of the most widely known literary theoreticians in the world. Together with Hans Robert Jauss he had founded the Constance School of Literary Theory. His books had been translated into countless languages; he had taught and lectured all over the world and was honored by multiple honorary doctorates and prestigious memberships.

After the Second World War he studied English, German and philosophy at Leipzig University, the University of Tübingen in the French Occupation Zone then later in Heidelberg University, which was under American administration at the time. His major theoretical works include: 1) His PhD dissertation appeared in German only: *Die Weltanschauung Henry Fieldings (Henry Fielding's World View)*, 1952). Inspired by Wilhelm Dilthey's three types of world views and Karl Jaspers's (1883-1969) psychology of world views, and driven by a determination to give the welter of details connected with and relevant to his project some overall structure, he produced a thorough and detailed analysis of the intellectual, theological, social and historical context in which Fielding worked. 2) *Walter Pater. Die Autonomie des Ästhetischen* (1969), appeared in English translation as *Walter Pater. The Aesthetic Moment* (1987). His "Habilitation", the book that would qualify him for a professorial position within the German system. 3) *The Implied Reader. Patterns of Communication in Prose Fiction from Bunyan to Beckett* (1974). 4) *The Act of Reading. A Theory of Aesthetic Response* (1978). 5) *Prospecting: From Reader Response to Literary Anthropology* (1989). 6) *The Fictive and the Imaginary. Charting Literary Anthropology* (1993), a book in which he is trying to clarify the function of literature in our fraught efforts to understand the world. Later he broadened his approach into what he came to call "literary anthropology", a theoretical tour de force into the fundamental modes of our mental operations and their role in human culture. So come 7) *The Range of Interpretation* (2000) and 8) *How to Do Theory* (2006). (Schlaeger, 2010).

II. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ISER AND JAUSS

The reception of Wolfgang Iser's work was determined largely by general cultural factors, and to an extent it parallels the response to Jauss's writings. The similarities in the German reception of the reception theory should not obscure their fundamental differences. Although both have been concerned with a reconstitution of literary theory by drawing attention away from the author and the text and refocusing it on the text-reader relationship, their respective methods of approaching this shift have diverged sharply. (1) While the Romance-scholar Jauss was initially moved towards reception theory through his concern for literary history, Iser, a scholar of English literature, comes from the interpretative orientations of New Criticism and narrative theory. (2) Whereas Jauss depended at first on hermeneutics and was particularly influenced by Hans-Georg Gadamer, the major impact on Iser has been phenomenology. Particularly important in this regard has been the work of Roman Ingarden, from whom Iser adopts his basic model as well as a number of key concepts. (3) Finally, even in his later work Jauss is most often interested in issues of a broad social and historical nature. His examination of the history of aesthetic experience, for example, is developed in a grand historical sweep in which individual works have chiefly an illustrative function. Iser, by contrast, is concerned primarily with the individual text and how readers relate to it. Although he does not exclude social and historical factors, they are clearly subordinated to or incorporated in more detailed textual considerations. In Jauss is thought of as dealing with the macrocosm of reception, then Iser concerns with the microcosm of response.

III. ISER'S RECEPTION THEORY

Roland Barthes put forward the famous proclamation of "the death of the author" in the 1960s. Iser's work in the realm of reception theory stands as his most significant contribution to literary theory. The background of Iser's own search for answers was the conviction that the literary text as an example for the aesthetic had a function radically different from other types of discourse and that in the text-reader relationship too much had been taken for granted, or not taken into account at all, by traditional criticism.

Reception theory was a reaction to what appeared to be a stalemate in literary studies. Of paramount concern for this theory was the impact a piece of literature has on its readers and the responses it elicits. Instead of asking what the text means, I asked what it does to its potential readers.... The message (of the text) that was no longer to be ascertained triggered interest in what has since been called text processing—what happens to the text in reading. (Iser, 2000, p. 311)

This is the decisive shift in literary theory; it is a shift from meaning to the aesthetic processes constituting it:

Consequently, aesthetic response, as the hallmark of reception theory, is to be conceived in terms of interaction between text and reader. I call it aesthetic response because it stimulates the reader's imagination, which in turn gives life to the intended effects. (Iser, 2000, p. 311)

(1) The Production of Meaning

The final chapter in *The Implied Reader*, "The Reading Process: A Phenomenological Approach" is important. Iser states that there are "two poles" in a literary text: "the artistic refers to the text created by the author, and the aesthetic to the realization accomplished by the reader." Somewhere between the poles is "the literary work," which readers create by reading or realizing a text. (Iser, 1974, p. 274)

What interest Iser is the question of how and under what conditions a text has meaning for a reader. In contrast to traditional interpretation, the widely practiced "digging-for-meaning-approach", which has sought to elucidate a hidden meaning in the text, he sees meaning as the result of an interaction between text and reader, as "an effect to be experienced," not "an object to be defined." Ingarden's conception of the literary work of art thus provides a useful framework for his investigations. For if the aesthetic object is constituted only through an act of cognition on the part of the reader, then the focus is switched from the text as object to the act of reading as process.

The literary work is a combination of text and the subjectivity of the reader. Accordingly Iser maps out three domains for exploration. The first involves the text in its potential to allow and manipulate the production of meaning. Like Ingarden, Iser regards the text as a skeleton of "schematized aspects" that must be actualized or concretized by the reader. Second, he investigates the processing of the text in reading. Of central importance here are the mental images formed when attempting to construct a consistent and cohesive aesthetic objectivity. Finally, he turns to the communicatory structure of literature to examine the conditions that give rise to and govern the text-reader interaction. In considering these three areas Iser hopes to clarify not only how meaning is produced, but also what effects literature has on its reader.

(2) The Implied Reader

Critics have put forward various models of the reader. These models contain special qualities of the reader, and illustrate special theories about reader and reading. For example, the familiar models include the "mock reader" put forward by Gibson, the "implied reader" by Wayne Booth, the "implied reader" by Iser, the "historical reader" by Jauss in 1980, the "ideal reader" created by J. Culler, "the informed reader" proposed by S. Fish, and "the transactive reader" proposed by N. Holland, etc.

An early model of the reader was proposed by W. Gibson, the "mock reader." Gibson begins his argument with a denunciation of the real author whom he regards as "distracting", "mysterious," and "irrelevant", and looks for the "fictitious speaker" in the text. There is an addresser in the text whose voice is heard in the reading process; therefore, an addressee exists, participating in the dialogue with the addresser. The fictitious addressee or "the mock reader" is a theoretical construct and he listens to the fictitious author and agrees with the latter. In the early 1950s the theory of "mock reader" is the first effort that shifts critical attention from the text to the reader and establish a heuristic model of the reader for a reading theory.

W. C. Booth further elaborated the difference between the real author and the fictitious speaker in *The Rhetoric of Fiction* (1961). He argues that the real author creates an "implied author" in the text who is "an implied version" of himself, and his presence is felt through the values and beliefs shown in the work, and the reader must construct his image if he is to respond to the various commitments of the implied author. Booth argues that the real author, in the process of creating his alter ego, or second self, also creates a counterpart of the real reader. The most successful reading is one in which the created selves, author and reader, can find complete agreement.

Wolfgang Iser puts forward a different model even it has the same name of "the implied reader." In *The Act of Reading*, Iser defines "the implied reader" as: "If, then, we are to try and understand the effects caused and the responses elicited by literary works, we must allow for the reader's presence without in any way predetermining his character or his historical situation. We may call him, for want of a better term, the implied reader. He embodies all those predispositions necessary for a literary work to exercise its effect—predispositions laid down, not by an empirical outside reality, but by the text itself. Consequently, the implied reader as a concept has his roots firmly planted in the structure of the text; he is a construct and in no way to be identified with any real reader." (Iser, 1978, p. 34) In *The*

Implied Reader, the implied reader is defined as both a textual condition and a process of meaning production: "The term incorporates both the prestructuring of the potential meaning by the text, and the reader's actualization of this potential through the reading process." (Iser, 1974, p. xii) The "textual structure" of the implied reader is composed of three basic components: the textual perspectives, their convergent place, and the vantage point of the reader. The convergent place and the vantage point of the reader are to be actualized by the real reader; otherwise, they remain potential in the textual structure. The "structured acts" of the implied reader made the actualization possible. In Iser's opinion, the text gets its meaning only when it is read; so the literary work becomes meaningful only with the engagement of the reader. With the concept of the implied reader, the two components the reader and the text are not looked upon as separate entities any more. They are the two sides of a coin and they are united into an organic whole. Therefore, with the reader-text interaction, literary communication appears. Consequently, the implied reader can be comprehended as a phenomenological construct of the actual reader. The "textual structure" of the implied reader is homologous to the response-inviting structure of the text. The "structured acts" of the implied reader is a response-projection mechanism in the reader. That is to say, confronted with the appeal structure of the text, the reader has the feeling of being forced to involve himself in the interaction with the text, in order to actualize the potential meaning.

(3) The Functionalist Model of the Text

The distinguishing feature of literature is that it deals with conventions in a different manner. Literature tells us something about reality by ordering its conventions so that they become objects of our reflection. Iser refers to these conventions as the repertoire of the text. It is the "familiar territory" on which text and reader meet to initiate communication. "The repertoire consists of all the familiar territory within the text. This may be in the form of references to earlier works, or to social and historical norms, or to the whole culture from which the text has emerged." (Iser, 1978, p. 69) Through the repertoire, the literary text reorganizes social and cultural norms as well as literary traditions so that reader may reassess their function in real life. A text should be understood as "a reaction to the thought systems which it has chosen and incorporated in its own repertoire." (Iser, 1978, p. 72) The repertoire assumes a dual function in Iser's model: "it reshapes familiar schemata to form a background for the process of communication, and it provides a general framework within which the message or meaning of the text can be organized." (Iser, 1978, p. 1) The repertoire includes mostly elements that have been traditionally considered "content." As such, it needs a form or structure to organize its presentation, and Iser adopts the term "strategies" to designate this function. Strategies are not mere structural features, rather, they entail both the ordering of materials and the conditions under which those materials are communicated. In Iser's words, "They encompass the immanent structure of the text and the acts of comprehension thereby triggered off in the reader." (Iser, 1978, p. 86) These strategies should not be understood as a total organization, nor be viewed as traditional narrative techniques or rhetorical devices, they are instead the structures that underlie such superficial techniques and allow them to have an effect. "After all, the ultimate function of the strategies is to defamiliarize the familiar." (Iser, 1978, p. 87)

(4) Processing the Text: A Phenomenology of Reading

A modern philosophical trend emphasizing the perceiver's central role in determining meaning is known as "Phenomenology." Of central importance for Iser's phenomenology is the concept of the "wandering viewpoint." "The wandering viewpoint is a means of describing the way in which the reader is present in the text. This presence is at a point where memory and expectation converge, and the resultant dialectic movement brings about a continual modification of memory and an increasing complexity of expectation." (Iser, 1978, p. 118) The reader's travelling through the book is a continuous process of adjustments. We have in our mind some expectations, based on our memory of characters and events, but these expectations and imaginations are continually modified, and these memories are also transformed when we go through the whole text. What we get when we read is not something fixed and completely meaningful at every point, but only a series of continuously changing views.

(5) Literature and Communication: Interaction between Text and Reader

Iser's version of reader-response criticism, unlike that of Norman N. Holland, does not concern itself with investigating empirically the reactions of particular readers to literary texts. For Iser, a given text does not depend utterly upon any particular reader for its meaning but "implies" an ideal reader. Literary meaning inheres in a collaboration between author and reader. Iser draws upon the speech-act theory of J. L. Austin in regarding the author's words as providing instructions to the reader, who acts to fill in the gaps and blanks inevitably encountered in any serious literary text. It is gaps, blanks, indeterminacies and the "in-between" status of literary texts, it is the dialectics between presences and absences that structure his text models, and it is "oscillation" that characterizes the text-reader relationship.

"Blank" has occupied a central place in Iser's speculation. It is initially concerned with connecting various segments of the text. What this entails is perhaps most readily understood in considering the level of plot. In most narratives the story line will suddenly break off and continue from another perspective or in an unexpected direction. The result is a blank that the reader must complete in order to join together the unconnected segments.

(6) Iser's Literary Anthropology

What I have since called literary anthropology is thus a direct offshoot of reception theory, and it tries to handle the issues that the latter left dangling, because the function of literature is by no means entirely covered by its interaction

with its readers and with its referential realities. Moreover, if a literary text does something to its readers, it simultaneously tells us something about them. Thus literature turns into a divining rod, locating our dispositions, desires, and inclinations and eventually our overall makeup. (Iser, 2000, p. 311)

With this programme Iser returns to a crucial component of his agenda: his fundamental epistemological skepticism, his firm conviction that all attempts to subsume the world under one overarching explanatory system are doomed to failure.

The anthropological significance of fictionalizing becomes unmistakable in relation to the many unknowable realities that underlie our existence. The beginning and the end are perhaps the most all-pervading realities of this kind. If fictionalizing transgresses those boundaries beyond which unrecognizable realities exist, then the very means we concoct to repair this deficiency—caught between our unknowable beginning and end—becomes indicative of how we conceive of what is withheld, inaccessible, and unavailable. (Iser, 2000, p. 311)

The world is ultimately unknowable, many important things seem to be unsayable, but literature overcomes these “deficiencies” and offers its readers the chance to transcend their limitedness—on one condition only, however: that we are always conscious in the process of reading of the conditionality of everything that takes us beyond ourselves. This is what Iser tried to encapsulate with the notion of negativity. Negation is one of literature’s major strategies for shaking off the shackles of existing concepts of the real, but negativity is the fundamental anthropological condition which accompanies all our attempts to transcend them, to articulate what is ultimately always unsayable. Negativity is the gatekeeper of the other world to which we have access only in the provisionality of fictionalizing. For Iser negativity also drives the urge in human culture to invent ever new strategies for fictionalized self-extensions. Since all these strategies are stigmatized with the conditionality of their own fleeting existence they are intrinsically unstable. This instability is for Iser the main impetus for ever new attempts. We can’t help doing it, but we know that it is ultimately at best provisional, in need of a controlling consciousness and instant repair. This is why we have to continue trying.

(7) Reception Theory Meets Cognitive Criticism

“Going cognitive” is a useful way to define a current tendency in literary studies. The term “cognitive” is omnipresent with “cognitive rhetoric”, “cognitive stylistics”, “cognitive poetics” and “cognitive theory”. Some might say a “cognitive revolution” has come into being in literary studies.

We like to speak of reception theory when we refer to research in this field, a field with close relations with cognitive criticism. As Terence Wright argues, reader-response refers to “a variety of positions held together only by their concern with what goes on in the mind of the reader when he or she picks up and peruses a book.” (Wright, 1995, p. 530) As such a statement may equally be applied to cognitive criticism, the genesis of these two related areas of research is worth our exploration.

In the essay, “From Iser to Turner and Beyond: Reception Theory Meets Cognitive Criticism”, professor Craig A. Hanulton and Ralf Schneider (2002) critically reviewed the work of Wolfgang Iser and Mark Turner, two important figures with relation to reception theory and cognitive criticism, and discussed the similarities and differences between Iser and Turner. They argue that cognitive criticism should not ignore its roots in reception theory and suggest how a cognitive reception theory can be constructed.

IV. A SUMMARY TO ISER’S RECEPTION THEORY

The contemporary critic and theorist Wolfgang Iser analyses the phenomenological aspect of the reading process put forward by Roman Ingarden. However, there are great differences between the two. Ingarden just makes a general description of the reading process, whereas Iser broadens his study and applies his theory to many specific literature works, even prose fiction. According to Iser, any literary text is a product of the writer’s intentional acts, and it partly controls the reader’s response, however, it includes a great deal of “gaps” or “indeterminate elements”. In order to understand much better, the reader must take an active participation, and try to fill in these gaps creatively, with the given information in the text before him. The whole reading experience thus becomes an evolving process of anticipation, frustration, retrospection, reconstruction, and satisfaction. Iser makes a distinction between the implied reader and the actual reader. The implied reader is formed within the text, and he is expected to respond in many specific ways to the “response-inviting structures” of the text. The actual reader, however, with his own personal experiences accumulated little by little, his responses actually are continuously and inevitably changed and reconstructed. Consequently, literary texts always take on a range of possible meanings according to Iser’s analysis.

Iser presents the text as a potential which is “concretized” by the reader according to their different extra-literary standards, views, values or personal experiences. A sort of oscillation is set up between the power of the text to control the way it is read and a reader’s “concretization” of it in terms of his or her own experience—an experience which will itself be modified in the act of reading. Meaning exists in the continuous adjustments and reconstruction to expectations. These revisions are caused in the reader’s mind in the reading process while they are trying to make sense of his dialectical relationship to the text.

The emphasis in Iser’s analysis is fundamentally phenomenological, because what is at the center of the literary process is the reader’s reading experience. By resolving the contradictions between the various viewpoints which emerge from the text or by filling the “gaps” between viewpoints in various ways, the readers take the text into their consciousness and make it their own experience.

Iser's works can serve both as a catalyst for a thoroughgoing analysis of the present state of theory as well as a springboard for an overhaul, long overdue, of the model of the mind that still governs most research paradigms in the humanities today.

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Determining the Difficulty Level of Listening Tasks

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Abstract—Materials development has distinguished history but this history is exclusively devoted to designing, developing and sequencing language activities. Assessing difficulty level of activities is an integral part of this process whose history is exclusively devoted to reading, writing, and speaking skills. This research aimed at introducing significant elements that trigger potential sources of difficulty for language learners. Since listening skill is the Cinderella skill (neglected by discourse community in comparison with other skills) especially at Asian context, and since difficulty level of tasks has been scientifically proved to have significant effects on language learning and more generally in motivating and demotivating the learners, this research can provide insights for language teachers and learners by helping them to notice how language activities and their inherent features may facilitate or hinder language learning.

Index Terms—learning, teaching, listening tasks, difficulty level, materials development, and syllabus design

I. INTRODUCTION

Determining difficulty levels of tasks has been one of the distinguishing factors that affect language learning candidates. A number of factors that appear to influence task performance in the classroom have been identified (although these have differed to some extent among researchers). Robinson, (2001) examined a number of factors that interact with each other so they are considered as key variables in the design of the listening tasks. These factors include the text itself, other components of the tasks and attributes of individual.

The problem with this study is that the difficulty factors were identified *post hoc* rather than as a pre-existing taxonomy or framework as is the case with the current study. Robinson (2001) identified two set of influential factors in complexity of tasks. These are “resource-directing” factors (e.g., number of task elements, reasoning demands of the task, immediacy of information provided) and “resource-depleting” factors (e.g., planning time, number of tasks, prior knowledge) (Robinson, 2001, p. 30). Robinson claims variations in the quality of language produced by the learners are due to the manipulation in the factors as this manipulation requires varying cognitive demands (e.g., amount of attention, memory, reasoning and other information processing). Skehan (1996) proposed which has three different factors;

- Code complexity: incorporating both linguistic complexity/ variety and vocabulary load/variety;
- Cognitive complexity: involving cognitive processing factors such as information type and organizational structure as well as the familiarity of task topic discourse and genre; and
- Communicative stress: referring to the logistics of task performance e.g., time pressure, nature of the prompt and number of participants.

Skehan and Foster (1999) have proposed that more complex tasks divert learners’ attention from form to context. Simple task create more fluent and more accurate speech, whereas more complex tasks create more complex speech at the expense of accuracy and fluency.

Another factor which is open to research is individual attributes such as anxiety, confidence and motivation – which produce different levels of stress and engagement during task performance. These factors interact with the characteristics in a complex way (Robinson, 2001). Accordingly, following previous work on tasks, Robinson (2001) proposes a distinction between complexity and difficulty suggesting that complexity is a feature of task and difficulty as perceptions of task difficulty on the part of learners. Of relevance to the present study is research comparing task-taker reactions to different task types. This shows that task-takers prefer for certain types of tasks as they are perceived to be easier, more interesting or more acceptable as measures of ability than others.

The results of the study of semi-direct oral tasks mentioned in the research are interesting. The result shows that that test-takers consider this format more difficult and/or more stressful than the live interview situation. Preparation time is perceived as a factor in test difficulty in the tape-based format. It is believed that providing greater preparation time in pre-task planning stage on a tape-based oral test will reduce stress and the perceived difficulty level.

Brown (1986) reported other difficulty factors including inadequate response time, unfamiliar vocabulary, speed of voices on the tape, lack of clarity in instructions, unclear prompts, too much input material to process and lack of familiarity with the task type. Whereas tasks features that lead to more difficulty level can be revised, the control for the attributes of the candidate is difficult.

II. LISTENING TASKS

One problem with outcome-based systems is threats to validity and reliability issues which may lead to invalid inferences about learners' achievement of the target outcome. By the study of task comparability, Brindley and Slatyer (2002) focused on variations on task condition and task characteristics which influence difficulty of listening tasks.

TABLE 1
COMPETENCY DESCRIPTION (BRINDLEY & SLATYER, 2002)

Elements	Performance Criteria	Range statement	Evidence guide
I. can identify main ideas	●Identifies main ideas	●Familiar and relevant topic	Sample tasks: learners listen to and answer questions on a short lecture/ classroom presentation
II. can identify explicitly stated information	● identifies specific information which	● text segment for assessment approximately 2 minutes in length	
III. can identify supporting arguments	Supports or elaborates on main	● fluent speaker (excluding classroom teacher)	● speaker from local employment agency
IV. can identify implicit ideas/information	Ideas	● live speaker/ TV (On-line or video)/ radio or cassette	● speaker from job training program
V. can identify logical relationships		● single listening only	● talk at education center
VI can demonstrate understanding of vocabulary		● questions should be given to learners before they listen	● speaker from union/ professional organization
		● written responses need not be grammatically correct or in sentence form but errors should not interfere with meaning	
		● multiple choice should not be used	

To assess the same competency there is a need to use the tasks that elicit the same behaviors and implemented in the same ways. To achieve this, the tasks need to have the same degree and type of contextual support and present a comparable level of cognitive challenge for learners. Secondly, assessors need to classify the competencies in a consistent way. This requires a common interpretation and application of the performance criteria within each competency.

Results of the studies show that reaching high consistency in categorization is difficult in real life situations and noticeable variations are inevitable in the way that the tasks are designed, administered and rated.

Most of bulks of the research in this regard have been devoted to find the extent to which variations in tasks characteristics and conditions may influence learners' language output. Wigglesworth (2000 cited in Uso'-Juan & Marti'nez-Florn, 2006) reported that learners' language behaviors change both qualitatively and quantitatively. In order to design valid competency assessment tasks, researchers need to control for the task effects.

The research studies displayed factors that affect variations in tasks and the design of writing and speaking tasks. However, whether the same factors result in the same degree of variation in receptive competencies is open to research. The principal aim of the present study is to identify key task characteristics and task conditions that were most likely to affect the difficulty of listening tasks.

III. FACTORS AFFECTING TASK DIFFICULTY

It is axiomatic that listening is the primary vehicle by which a person acquires an L2. Listening opportunities "provide the linguistic environment" or "set the stage" for acquisition. What must be acquired in L2 acquisition is a range of new knowledge and a multi-faceted set of skills for using this knowledge:

1. A new perceptual mode for categorizing the phonological system of the L2
2. An abstract system of novel grammatical rules
3. A lexical system that is linked to the semantic system of the first language (L1) (Nation (2001) cited in Uso'-Juan & Marti'nez-Florn, 2006)
4. A comparative pragmatic system
5. A set of language specific processing procedures
6. A set of complex cognitive skills that allow for "thinking in the L2"

All of these types of knowledge and opportunities for skill development are available to the learner through listening input, but acquisition is not automatically brought about by mere exposure to the input. The learner, in order to acquire the L2, must come to understand input in personally meaningful ways, engage in interactions and tasks based on that input, *and* simultaneously pay attention to the form of the input and interaction that will allow for permanent development of L2 knowledge and skills. We know that significant development in an L2 requires a great *quantity* of listening – certainly on the order of hundreds of hours per year. What is less clear is how the *type* and *quality* of input

affects learner engagement and eventual acquisition from the input. Factors that affect quality of input include relevance, difficulty, and authenticity.

A large number of factors that may affect listening task difficulty have been identified by researchers; amongst these are:

A. *The Nature of the Input:*

Nature of the input includes speech rate, length of passage, syntactic complexity, vocabulary, discourse structure, noise level, accent, register, propositional density, amount of redundancy, etc.;

1. Accessibility of input. Access to relevant and appropriately challenging input is a critical factor in listening development.

2. Relevance. Relevance refers to the personal significance of the input. As Beebe (1988 cited in Uso'-Juan & Martı'-nez-Florn 2006) aptly describes, unless individual learners find "the right stuff" – listening and reading input – to fuel their intrinsic motivation for acquisition, it is unlikely that they will become sufficiently engaged to trigger the mental processes needed for sustained development. Because of its subjective nature, relevance can only be measured in terms of sustained effort to understand. The more relevant the listening opportunities, the more motivated the learner is likely to be to continue seeking comprehensible input.

3. Difficulty. Difficulty refers to the intrinsic "cognitive load" of a listening or reading text, its linguistic and informational complexity. Text difficulty is a reflection of the cognitive processes required for an adequate understanding of a text and is known to include several variables involving length, speed, familiarity, information density, and text organization (Table 2)

TABLE 2:
TEXT DIFFICULTY (BASED ON ROST (2002) CITED IN USO'-JUAN & MARTI'NEZ-FLORN, 2006)

Variable	Description	Hypothetic impact on the listener (the test is easier if)	Relation to construct ...because)
Word count	Total number of words in a text	The word count is lower	There is less test to process
Text speed	Average speed (words per minute) of the speaker	The speed is slower, contains more pauses	There is more time for word recognition and parsing
Individuals and object	Total number of individuals and objects	It involves fewer rather than more individuals and objects	There are fewer cross referencing decisions to make
Text type	Narrative, descriptive, instructive, argumentative	It has paratactic (time ordered) organization rather than abstract (unspecified) or hypotactic (embedded) organization	sequential ordering task less time and effort to process
Pause unit length	Average number of words per sentences (or pause unit)	Average pause unit shorter	
Object distinction	Clarity and distinctness of individuals or objects in the text	Individuals and objects in the text are clearly distinct from each other	There is less syntactic parsing needed There are clearer spatial and/or semantic boundaries between items being analyzed in short term memory
Inference type	Inferences required are very familiar to the listeners	It involves lower order (more frequently used) inference calculations It involves direct activation of useful schemata in memory	It requires less cognitive effort
Information consistency	Information in text is consistent with information known by listener		It involves shorter memory searches and less delay in recomprehension of problematic text segments
Information Density	Ratio of known to unknown information in the text	It involves higher ratio of known to unknown information	It involves less filing or storage of new information

4. Authenticity. Authenticity refers to the degree to which a text is a legitimate sample of the way the language is actually used. This notion is important because we can only acquire a target language by drawing inferences and making generalizations from valid samples. In language pedagogy, authenticity has been approached in different ways. It is sometimes believed that mere exposure to genuine texts (i.e., listening texts used by native speakers in an “authentic” context) are helpful for learning to listen. Long (1996 cited in Uso'-Juan & Marti'nez-Florn, 2006), however, claims that *genuine texts* (except when used at very advanced levels) hamper learning by confronting the learner with large amounts of unfamiliar language (new vocabulary, complex syntax, novel collocations) without compensatory devices to facilitate comprehension. In short, they present too dense a linguistic package for learning purposes. As an alternative to listening to genuine texts, it is often assumed that controlling difficulty through means of text simplification is an aid to both comprehension and eventual development of listening ability. However, this contention has also been called in question. Simplification does not always help comprehension, often because it serves to remove useful redundancy in texts, e.g., by deleting explicit intra- and inter-utterance markers of logical relationships among referents and propositions. Even when simplified texts do improve comprehension, they tend to be stilted, lacking complete cross references (which are needed for normal kinds of logical inference) and intertextuality (cultural references which are necessary for activation of appropriate schemata). In spite of the good intentions by teachers who use them, simplified texts may actually impede learning by modeling unnatural *usage*: simplified texts remove from the input the very items which learners need to be exposed to in order to eventually acquire the L2.

Two alternatives have been proposed to deal with the genuine vs. simplified text conundrum. One alternative that has been proposed is the use of “elaboration” rather than simplification. Research has shown that elaborated texts are able to bring about almost as great an increase in comprehension as simplified ones, but they achieve this without damaging the richness of the original text (Long (1996) cited in Uso'-Juan & Marti'nez-Florn, 2006). Comprehension is improved through adding redundancy (various types of natural repetition, amplification and paraphrase) and transparency (overt signaling to increase topic saliency, matching order of mention in the text to the chronological sequence of events, prevalent use of a here-and-now orientation). Another essential feature of elaborated texts is a slower rate of delivery (usually through increasing the length of natural pauses), and where discourse is interactional, by frequent use of clarification requests, comprehension checks and confirmation checks. Because acquisition requires uptake (i.e., long-term retention) of previously unknown linguistic targets (new vocabulary, syntax and collocations), elaboration better assures that learners will notice new items, while they are working to comprehend the text. Another alternative of course is the use of focused processing tasks that provide scaffolding to allow learners to deal with selected aspects of an authentic text. Tasks can include pre-listening steps that provide advance organizers for content and selected vocabulary and concept support to “prime” listeners for “difficult content” that would normally be beyond their comprehension capacity.

5. Frequency effect. Investigating the effect of input features have been at center of attention in SLA. Early research (Gass & Mackey, 2002) reported a relation between input frequency and learning. For example, Bardovi-Harlig (1987 cited in Gass & Mackey, 2002) claimed that input frequency can ease the difficulty of learning marked features, and Gass and Lakshmanan (1991 cited in Gass & Mackey, 2002) found a correlation between (ungrammatical) input and output data.

Nick Ellis's research (cited in Gass, 2002) shows frequency effects. He displayed that frequency is an important cognitive mechanism in every aspect of language processing: phonology, phonotactics, reading, spelling, lexis, morphosyntax, pragmatics, sentence production, and comprehension. Ellis's comprehensive article suggests ways in which work on frequency may link relatively disparate areas and providing a clearer articulation of the construct (Gass, 2002).

6. Input source (live vs. audio-recorded). ‘Live’ (i.e., text spoken by the teacher or an invited presenter), video-recorded and audio-recorded sources are used in teaching and learning fields. But, these presentation modes are different in terms of contextualization, discourse structure and propositional density and therefore affect learner performance.

7. Speech rate. Speech rate: many pieces of research have shown that faster speed can reduce comprehensibility in listening tasks.

8. Pausing. One way to make speech directed to learner more comprehensible is that the teachers make more processing time by making pauses. Also, Chaudron and Richards (1986 cited in Leeson, 2004) noted the frequency and length of pauses increase when native speakers talk with non- native speakers and help them to segment discourse into meaningful units by providing more processing time. Blau (1990 cited in Leeson 2004) found that by providing 3-second pauses at phrases, sentences and clauses, beginner learners outperformed in their answers to wh- question in comparison with those who were not provided with the pauses. Sagarra (1998 cited in Leeson, 2004), however, did not find significant performance differences on L1 recall tasks between L2 beginning Spanish learners who encountered 1- or 2-second pauses inserted at phrase boundaries and 3-second pauses inserted between paragraphs and those that did not. Chaudron and Richards (1990 cited in Leeson, 2004) failed to find a significant difference between cloze recall scores for lower and higher proficiency English as a second language (ESL) learners who either listened to a lecture containing discourse markers intersentential relations, framing of segments, and pause fillers (or a baseline lecture) The authors hypothesized that the original listening input was slow enough that additional segmenting, slowing down, or

pausing may not have contributed to greater comprehension. Similarly, Griffiths (1990 cited in Leoser 2004) reported pauses did not have any effects on comprehension of by intermediate students when the rate was below 150 wpm.

9. Text type. Research also suggest that the degree or orality which is the extent to which the input has spoken features rather than written features affect comprehensibility with input containing negotiated discourse more comprehensible

10. Topic familiarity. According to schema-based models, one of the comprehension facilitator factors is learners' background knowledge. These models suggest that prestored schemata or scripts direct comprehension topdown whereas more recent models propose that background knowledge is stored as an associative network of propositions that are activated bottom-up through interaction with the textual data (Nassaji (2002) cited in Leoser 2004). Comprehension depends on the reader or listeners' background knowledge and the familiarity of learners with the scenarios in the task input.

11. Mode. Leow (1995 cited in Leoser 2004) claims there is a need for more research in the area of mode which can provide insight into the selection of the input and increase teacher awareness with what learners do with the input that is made available to them. The L2 studies that have investigated mode have found that readers comprehend more informational content than listeners and that they are better able to allocate attentional resources simultaneously to content and grammatical form. Furthermore, Leow (1995 cited in Leoser 2004) found that L2 Spanish learners who read passages recognized more present perfect and present subjunctive forms than those who listened to the same passages. The researchers all attributed their findings to the hypothesis that processing resources are less constrained in the written mode than in the aural mode.

B. The Nature of the Assessment Task

The amount of context provided, clarity of instructions, response format, availability of question preview, etc. are factors determine the nature of assessment tasks.

1. Item format. Differing processing required by different item formats affect candidates' performance in listening tests. A study by Berne (1993 cited in Brindley & Slatyer, 2002) showed participants outperformed in multiple choice questions than on either open-ended or cloze tests, meaning that items requiring only recognition are easier than those requiring retrieval and production. The effect of multiple-choice items was fully explored whereas the effect of short answer and information transfer tasks is still open to research.

2. Context. One of the earliest and most well cited accounts of context's relationship to linguistic knowledge is Hymes (1962, 1974 cited in Collentine & Freed, 2004). He highlighted eight factors that establish a context for interpersonal communication: setting, participants, end (or purpose), act sequence (form and content of an utterance), key (verbal and nonverbal manner), instrumentalities (choice of channel and code, norms of interaction and interpretation, and genre. Developmental differences have been predicted to occur as a function of the context of learning even by those focusing on the development of cognitive accounts of SLA.

Piske et al. (2001cited in Díaz-Campos, 2004) analyzed factors affecting the degree of foreign accent in the L2. Specifically, they examined the age of L2 learning, length of residence in an L2-speaking country, gender, formal instruction, motivation, language learning aptitude, and amount of L1 use in a group of 90 Italian NSs living in Canada. Their findings indicated that age of L2 learning and frequencies of L1 use are significant predictors of degree of foreign accent. Piske et al. (2001cited in Díaz-Campos, 2004) found that late bilinguals showed stronger foreign accent than early bilinguals and that speakers using their L1 more frequently also showed a stronger degree of foreign accent.

3. Number of hearings. Some tests allow for more than one hearing whereas others do not let. Skehan (1996) suggests participants boost up their listening scores when they hear more than once. The explanation is that when you hear once the task would be more difficult as it increases cognitive load and creates greater demand for online processing the cognitive load by making greater demands for online processing, thereby making a task more difficult. Considering the proficiency level of the students, teachers should concern about the number of hearing.

C. Listening Instruction

Listening instruction covers a wide range of teaching strategies. We can define listening instruction as a pedagogic plan that focuses on any of four goals: 1) improving learners' comprehension of spoken language, 2) increasing the quality of learners' intake from spoken input, 3) developing learners' strategies for better understanding of spoken discourse, or 4) engendering a more active participation in face-to-face communication. As such, listening instruction can take place any time spoken language is used, not just during a specific phase of pedagogy involving recorded input and explicitly called "listening practice." There has been in the last several years an evolution in the teaching of listening. The progress is due in part to developments in general communicative language learning methodologies and to advances in technologies that allow for improved access to a wide range of spoken language from multimedia sources. But what has also spurred this evolution is a better understanding of research into the nature of oral communication and into the internal perceptual and comprehension processes of the listener.

1. Teaching reduced forms. Brown & Hilferty (1986) suggest that there is a correlation between the frequency and variety of ESL students' contractions and their proficiency in ESL. A study (Brown, 1986) of the language of six ESL students provides data that indicate that 1) contraction frequency correlates with general proficiency in English as

measured by CELT. 2) that more advanced students reduce vowels more frequently than the less advanced, and, 3) that more advanced students contract with a greater number of preceding words. Although the individual students' contraction patterns are idiosyncratic, there do seem to be evolutionary states related to levels of proficiency. They see evidence that the perception and use of reduced forms are crucial to aural comprehension and general ESL proficiency and end their article a call for clear attention to contractions.

2. Strategy instruction. A second source of research has been formalized under the banner of “strategy instruction,” in which researchers attempt to isolate approaches, decisions, and tactics that are associated with “successful” (symmetrical, low-anxiety, positive affect) listening. Early researchers of learning strategies began by listing the range of strategies that learners reported using in their attempts at learning a L2. The essential pedagogic implication behind this initial research was that assisting learners in planning and monitoring their attempts at learning would be a benefit, helping them maximize the results of their learning efforts. This type of strategy instruction taps into a basic theme of most motivation theories, namely that intrinsic, self-guided motivation leads to increased time on task and concomitant success, which in turn strengthens motivation. One aspect of this method of compilation research that is misleading, however, is the implication that all instances compiled are necessarily effective for all learners.

Subsequent work on strategy development has focused more on defining a smaller subset of strategies that are consistently associated with successful listening and with more efficient progress in gaining listening skills. Collectively, using introspection and retrospection methodologies, and coupled with measures of actual effects of strategy use on comprehension and retention, this work has identified specific tactics that listeners use to plan, monitor, and modify their listening efforts. The five strategies that are most commonly identified as “successful” are: 1) predicting speaker intentions and activating ideas, 2) monitoring one’s own comprehension, 3) asking for clarification (with increasingly focused informational requests), 4) making inferences from incomplete information, and 5) providing personal responses about content (Rost (2002) cited in Uso-Juan & Marti’nez-Florn, 2006). By identifying “successful listening strategies” and structuring opportunities for students to practice these strategies, instructors can provide a “laboratory” for L2 learners to experiment with different approaches to use when listening.

D. The Individual Listener Factors

Individual listener factors include memory, interest, background knowledge, motivation, etc.

1. Listener status. The listener’s perceived status influences comprehension, participation, and value of input for language acquisition. Engagement by the L2 user –assumption of an “active listening” role –promotes acquisition of listening skills and strategies.

In all listening settings, including non-collaborative ones such as listening to an academic lecture or watching a film in a theater, the listener adopts a role along a continuum of participation rights and responsibilities. The assumption of a role affects not only overt participation behaviors, but also the way in which the listener comprehends the event and retains information.

This view of listening roles enables explicit development of attitudes, perspectives and responses that promote more symmetrical participation and more active involvement in the construction of meaning. The extent to which listeners choose to become involved in various discourse situations depends in large part on how they perceive their status in relation to the primary speaker and in relation to the content the speaker is conveying. One known aspect of affective involvement in any discourse setting is the raising or lowering of anxiety and self-confidence, and thus the motivation to participate actively. For non-interactive settings, this involvement may entail the use of higher order cognitive strategies, such as evaluating the speaker’s position or taking notes of key points. For interactive settings, this motivation will also involve using higher risk social strategies, such as showing openness and revealing private aspects of self.

It is now known that higher affective involvement promotes enhanced understanding through better connection with the speaker and through construction of more tangible references for remembering the discourse, while lower affective involvement typically results in less connection, less understanding, and minimal efforts to evaluate and repair any misunderstandings that arise. For example, in separate studies Yang (1993 cited in Uso-Juan & Marti’nez-Florn, 2006) and Aniero (1990 cited in Uso-Juan & Marti’nez-Florn, 2006) found a clear negative correlation between learners’ levels of anxiety (or “receiver apprehension”), their perceived distance from the speaker, and their listening comprehension performance. One well-known effect of perceived social distance is a reduction in the amount of negotiation for meaning — that is, the work that the listener will do to resolve communication difficulties. A related factor in social distance and listening performance is uncertainty. Uncertainty regarding one’s role or a likely “map” for the way the discourse is unfolding leads to a decrease in the listener uptaking of turn opportunities, including back channeling. Back channeling signals – or “vocalizations of understanding” as Gardner (1998, 2003) calls them – are a primary influence on the speaker’s perception of the listener’s stance. When the listener does not provide back channeling signals, or does not provide them in the expected fashion (particularly in ritual encounters such as job interviews), the speaker often unconsciously assumes antagonism or indifference. As listener uncertainty increases, the asymmetry of the discourse increases also. As has been well documented, in many stereotypical NS-NNS encounters in which asymmetry develops, the NS quickly assumes a “superiority position,” and makes little effort to establish

“common ground” with the NNS. This often leads to poor mutual affect, strained communication, and misunderstandings which are hard to trace to a single moment in the interaction.

Because asymmetry, anxiety and negative affect among L2 listeners are so pervasive, addressing the listener’s role in collaborative discourse has become a vital aspect of listening instruction. There are two important sources of research that contribute to this aspect of instruction. The first source is analysis of the critical problems that L2 participants encounter in discourse: misunderstandings, asymmetrical control, and lack of establishment of common ground. Based on a discourse analysis of these problems (an analysis of organization, symmetry, turn-taking, intention, response, etc.) in real interaction, researchers provide insights into the kinds of problem-solving decisions and techniques that can be used to repair or avoid problems in discourse. Various typologies of listener strategies have been developed to encapsulate these insights (Bremer et al. (1996) cited in Uso’-Juan & Martí’nez-Florn, 2006) (A general summary is provided in Table 3).

TABLE 3
STRATEGIES OF UNSUCCESSFUL VS. SUCCESSFUL LISTENERS IN INTERACTIVE SETTINGS (BASED ON BREMER ET AL. (1996) CITED IN USO’-JUAN & MARTÍ’NEZ-FLOREN, 2006)

<i>Characteristics of unsuccessful /asymmetrical/ passive listening</i>	<i>Characteristics of successful /symmetrical/ active listening</i>
- waiting for information to “register” (assuming that the speaker has the primary role in creating meaning).	- taking a lead in constructing meaning
- assuming the listener is responsible for any communication failures	- assuming the speaker is (partly) responsible for any communication failures
- not activating background knowledge- or assumptions (assuming that speaker will provide all information necessary for comprehension)	- activating background knowledge and assumptions to fill in missing information
- not asking for clarification if confusion arises	- asking for clarification when confusion arises
- not responding to speaker voluntarily (not revealing any personal reaction)	- providing reactions and responses to the speaker voluntarily

IV. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Buck (1994: 164 cited in Brindley & Slatyer) suggests, ‘performance on each task is a unique cognitive event’, then task design will require not only a much more detailed specification of task characteristics and conditions (Bachman and Palmer, 1996), but also it will need to be based on a much better understanding of the interactions between text, task and learner variables. To this end, a good deal of further work will need to go into building models of listening performance that incorporate a wide range of overlapping difficulty components and exploring their effects on performance.

There is a need for teachers, curriculum designers and language testers to determine whether changes in task characteristics and task conditions in competency based listening tasks would result in differences in test performance (Brindley, 2002). Knowing which variables were likely to affect test scores provide a basis for controlling task difficulty and thus for making tasks more comparable in the interests of fairness. However, the complexities of the interactions between task characteristics, item characteristics and candidate responses suggest that adjusting one will not make the task either easier or more difficult.

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An Empirical Research on Negative Transfer in College Non-English Majors' Chinese-English Sentence Translation

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Abstract—Nowadays, the transferred errors in non-English majors' Chinese-English(C-E) sentence translation, which have been ignored by many teachers, are very remarkable. It has deeply affected the total translation process and the accuracy of the translation version. Moreover, it also has affected the scores in all kinds of English tests for non-English majors. This paper is an empirical research which focuses on the negative transfer of college non-English majors in their C-E sentence translation. The research approach is the C-E translation test paper. The software Excel 2007 and SPSS 16.0 have been used to analyze. With respect to the results, the transferred errors in C-E sentence translation, have taken up 73%, especially in the field of syntax. The essential causes are found and some suggestions are given to College English Teaching based on the findings.

Index Terms—Chinese-English sentence translation, negative transfer, morphology, lexicon, syntax, transferred errors, implications

I. INTRODUCTION

Compared to English majors, the non-English majors in China don't have the atmosphere to facilitate their language input. Every week they only have four periods of lessons. Some of them usually put the textbook on the shelf until next lesson, not to mention the extracurricular reading. They have little chance to communicate with the foreign teachers and reluctant to open their mouth. Only a few students who have intrinsic motivation are interested in learning English. Some others are quite bored at English. And there're also a group of students learning English because they have to pass the exams, such as College English Test (CET) band-4&6, so many of them lack learner autonomy. As for the teachers, some of them give the lessons just to finish the task of teaching. They don't try to stimulate the interests of the students. According to the new College English Syllabus, the purpose of college English Teaching is to develop the integrated English language competence of the students. They should acquire the oral and written communication skills which are essential for their future work and social communication. Considering the current situation of college English learning and teaching, it's still a long way to achieve this goal. Especially the general state of the freshmen and sophomores is not optimistic.

Most studies on language transfer conducted at home and abroad focus on definitions and theoretical justification of language transfer; the role of transfer in discourse, semantics, syntax, phonology and writing systems; the analysis of MT transfer in second language acquisition (SLA); the influence of MT to foreign language (FL)/second language (SL) learning; MT strategy and MT transfer in students' writing and the influence of MT to lexical acquisition (Ellis, 1985; Odlin, 2001). Negative transfer from mother tongue in C-E sentence translation is a common phenomenon in the English learning of Chinese college students. However, it has not been given adequate attention by prior researches.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Theories about Language Transfer

In language learning, "transfer" is defined by behaviorist psychologists to refer to the process of automatic, uncontrolled and subconscious use of past-learned behaviors in the attempt to produce new responses. Of course, past-learned knowledge can play two definitely different roles in the learning of new ones, and accordingly, transfer falls into two types, namely positive transfer and negative transfer. As the name suggests, positive transfer occurs when the learner's previous knowledge, skill or ability facilitates his learning of new ones, while negative transfer refers to the impediment the learned knowledge, skill, or ability exerts upon the new learning.

Transfer was considered responsible for error occurrences in cross-linguistic and cross-cultural studies (Lado, 1957; Corder, 1969). In language learning transfer refers to the effect of one language on the learning of another, as Lado points out: "individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meaning of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture" (p. 2).

B. Error Analysis

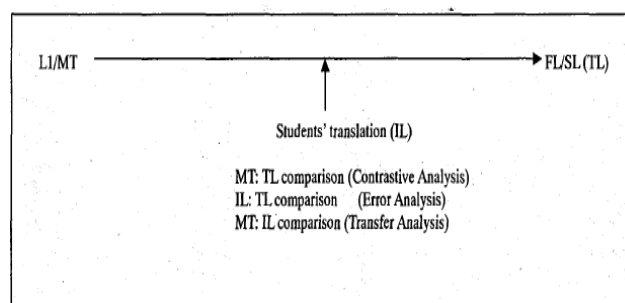
Error analysis (EA) concerns with the process of determining the incidence, nature, causes and consequences of unsuccessful language. EA provides a methodology for investigating learner's language.

An error is defined as a deviation from the norms of the target language. In his 1967 paper, Corder makes a distinction between a mistake and an error. A mistake is a random performance slip caused by fatigue, excitement and so on and can be readily self-corrected; an error is a systematic deviation made by learners who have not yet mastered the rules of the second language. A learner can not self-correct an error because it is a product reflection of his or her current stage of second language development or underlying competence.

Many researchers have been attempting to investigate the types of errors, Richards (1974) distinguishes errors as interlingual errors and intralingual errors.

Interlingual errors are caused by the interference of mother tongue, such errors occur as a result of the use of the elements from one language while speaking another. While intralingual errors result from the target language. EA aims at the thorough description of learner's linguistic system and comparing it with that of the target language by reconstructing the correct utterance of target language and matching the "erroneous utterance" with its equivalence in learner's native language.

Here, the theory of error analysis serves as a theoretical guidance to identify the linguistic errors in the students' translation products. It is very applicable to analyze production errors and is termed as Transfer Analysis (TA) by James (2001). Here is a paradigm cited from James.



Points of comparison for successive FL learning paradigms:

C. Translation and Contrastive Teaching

Wolfram Wilss has done some research on the relation between contrastive linguistics and translation, he said, contrastive linguistics... is becoming more interested in the applicability of translation to foreign language pedagogy, on the one hand, contrastive linguistics is of growing importance for the science of translation, because structural divergences on syntactic, semantic, and stylistic levels produce textual equivalence problems which are the main object of TL (Target Language) (Wilss, 1996).

A contrastive study of Chinese and English not only helps to form a new method of language study that can be applied to translation, but also reveals the cognitive patterns respectively inherent in Chinese and English. In addition, contrastive linguistics may assist translators in gaining a better insight into peculiarities of the Chinese and the English languages, thus facilitating the translation process. On the one hand, an in-depth contrastive analysis of the Chinese and English sentence patterns can lead to a revelation of their similarities and dissimilarities; on the other hand, rational inferences or conclusions might result due to prudent contrastive analysis. Every language has its own system. As to translation studies, an understanding of the homogeneity and heterogeneity of the source language and the target language is of great importance.

D. Comparison between English and Chinese at Sentence Level

It is now universally accepted that the sentence is the key linguistic unit to realize communication and any language has its finite rules to build infinite sentences. A comparative study of English and Chinese has been made in the building of basic and commonly used sentence patterns. The study shows the two languages have not much in common in this field. The English sentence centers around the verb and so the basic sentence patterns are formed according to the structure of the Verb Phrase (Vph), and it may be formulated as below:

$S (\text{Sentence}) = Nph (\text{Noun Phrase}) + Vph (\text{Verb Phrase})$.

In contrast, the Chinese sentence does not necessarily depend on the verb and the basic sentence patterns are formed on the basis of amalgamation of words. Some of the modern Chinese grammarians hold that a Chinese sentence is based on two parts: THEME and RHEME. In terms of "theme" they mean the topic; and in terms of "rheme" they mean the comment. So comes the general formula:

$S = T(\text{heme}) + R(\text{heme})$

Therefore, it is more convenient for us to analyze the Chinese sentence structure according to the structure within the two parts. On the basis of this analysis come two groups of sentence patterns: the T(heme)-type sentence pattern and the R(heme)-type sentence patterns.

So English and Chinese are two quite different languages. The structure of Chinese is not as close with that of English as other European languages. Therefore, it is quite easy for Chinese students, esp. non-English majors, to create Chinglish when they translate Chinese into English if they are not aware of those differences. Many scholars have been doing research on the differences between Chinese and English. For example, Lian Shuneng has made a detailed comparison of Chinese and English in his *Contrastive Studies of English and Chinese*. He points out 10 major differences between Chinese and English at the sentence level. For example, English is compact, while Chinese is diffusive, English hypotactic, Chinese paratactic, and English uses more passive voice than Chinese, etc.

III. EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

A. Research Design

Research objects:

The study is designed to investigate negative transfer in C-E sentence translation. The experimental research in this part is to address the following questions:

①What are the main transfer errors occurred in the students C-E sentence translation version, and what are their frequencies?

②What are the causes of these kind of errors and are there any solutions?

③Are there any correlations between the number of transferred errors and the students English levels?

Research subjects:

Two parallel classes in the Economy Department in Heze University have been chosen as the experiment subjects. There're 50 students in each class, their scores in College Entrance Examination are similar. A test paper of C-E translation was distributed to them. Their translations have been collected, examined and analyzed. The translation paper consists of 30 sentence translations from Chinese to English, during which No.1-10 are from the New Horizon College English (book 1), No.11-20 are from the translation materials of CET-3, and No. 21- 30 are from the website of China Cyber Learning. The test paper can be seen in the appendix. In this chapter all the examples and data come from the students' translation version.

B. A General View of the Students' Translation Versions

The test papers were finished in one period and all of them have been taken up. Of all the 100 test papers, 30 samples which have been chosen randomly are put into careful study and analysis. The total error number is 313, in which the transferred error is 228 and non-transferred error is 85. All the transferred errors can be classified in morphology, lexicon and syntax. The error types and frequencies in the translation versions of these 30 students have been listed in the following table:

TABLE 3-1
ERROR TYPES AND FREQUENCIES IN STUDENTS' TRANSLATION VERSION

Type	Number of errors	Percentage
article	4	1%
case	3	1%
number	3	1%
tense	9	3%
(adj./adv.)comparison	4	1%
derivatives	9	3%
Choice of words and collocations	22	7%
omission of "be" and particles	11	4%
agreements	24	8%
word order	19	6%
relative clause	17	5%
negation	13	4%
dangling modifier	11	4%
"It" plague	7	2%
missing subject	8	3%
misplaced emphasis	9	3%
run-on sentence	13	4%
avoidance of passive voice	16	5%
avoidance of complex sentences	14	4%
the use of punctuations	12	4%
total number	228	73%
non-transferred errors	85	27%

Notes: The above classification of transferred errors is based on the theory of Terence Odlin (2001) and Professor Yu Liming (2004).

From the above table, we can see that the transferred errors are very predominant, which is as high as 73% of the total errors. In the following part, there's a detailed analysis of these errors in three major categories.

C. A Thorough Analysis of the Transferred Errors in Different Categories

1. The transferred errors in morphology

One of the predominant features of Chinese is that it's an isolated language, which doesn't have any grammatical morphemes. Compared with Chinese, English has much more variations in morphology and therefore has more grammatical morphemes. So students have created some errors in this aspect.

a. Articles

There is no counterpart in Chinese for the articles, namely a, an and the, and that is why Chinese students are unable to find an equivalence in Chinese so as to better understand and use these articles in English acquisition.

E.g., she is excited by a idea of online learning. (Sentence 2)

The people are increasingly having access to. (Sentence 4)

....., I heard (the) clock strike 12:00. (Sentence 7)

b. Case

Case is a grammatical category of noun or pronoun that indicates the relations between them and other words of a sentence. The three cases in English are nominative case, objective case and possessive case.

Generating an action, the noun or pronoun is nominative case; being the receiver or the object of the action, it is objective case; referring to the person or thing that indicates the owner or possessor of something, it is possessive case. In English, the form of a noun which indicates subjective case or objective case will not change, because the word order in the sentence will specify its relations with other words. But when a noun indicates possessive case, the form of it will change. In contrast, there is no such case or morpheme indicating its relations with other words as subject, direct object or indirect object and other grammatical relations in Chinese. In addition, when a noun in Chinese indicates possessive case, it does not inflect as in English. Due to the differences between the two languages, errors are unavoidable in the use of case for Chinese students. E.g.,

I don't know whether him would come or not. (Sentence 10)

....., and this made she relax a little. (Sentence 11)

c. Number

In English, the concept of number is greatly different from that in Chinese. The nouns in English can be divided into countable nouns and uncountable nouns. The countable nouns such as "book" have plural forms while the uncountable nouns such as "faith" generally have no plural form. There are also some mass nouns and abstract nouns such as "rain" and "difficulty" which have plural forms expressing special meanings. In general, the singular form of a countable noun plus "s" or "es" arrives at its plural form such as "table—tables", "box—boxes" with the exception of irregular nouns such as "crisis—crises", "sheep—sheep", etc. But the plural forms in Chinese shares the following features: (1) can not be used with numerals; (2) refer to a group as a whole; (3) "们" and "些" can be added to some pronouns or adjectives to express plural meanings, such as "我们", "孩子们", "人们", "这些", "那些", "一些", "好些", etc. Owing to such great differences, some English learners are subject to several errors in this aspect. E.g.,

Communicating with native English speaker(s) is a worthy experience (Sentence 3).

Some people think that boy(s) is (are) cleverer than girl(s). (Sentence 23)

d. Tense

The tenses between English and Chinese have great differences in that English verbs undergo inflectional changes such as the present tense of verbs, the third-person singular forms of verbs, the past tense of verbs, the past participle of verbs, the voices of verbs, the gerund and infinitive forms, etc, while Chinese verbs do not. Chinese verbs are never changed in any tense, but usually the combination of the adverbs of time such as "昨天", "那天", "现在", "明天", etc, with some other words as "过", "了", "正", "正在", "会", "将", "要", "就", "着", etc, are used to express the changes of tenses. Owing to such great difference between English and Chinese, some students always make various errors in tense. E.g.,

A teaching meeting is (will be) held in the school hall at 2:00 p.m. tomorrow. (Sentence 10)

....., a big progress (has been) is made in graduate education in China. (Sentence 25)

e. Comparative degrees

There is no grammatical category of comparative degree and superlative degree for adjective in Chinese, instead, the comparative meaning can be conveyed by using the Chinese characters such as "比", "较", "于", "更", "最", "次于", etc. But in English the form of an adjective will be changed, such as adding "er", or "est" to its positive form, or using "more", "most", "less", "least" as modifiers. There are also some irregular adjectives beyond these rules. The obvious difference contributes to a series of errors in the students' translations. E.g.,

Some people believe that boys are more clever (cleverer) than girls. (Sentence 23).

f. Derivatives

Derivative is an important way of word building in English. A new word can be formed by add a prefix or suffix. The meaning of the root can be changed when added with an affix. E.g. the noun "kindness" can be formed if we add the suffix "ness" to the root adjective "kind". However, in Chinese, it's a different case. A Chinese word may have different meaning in different context, but the form doesn't change at all. i.e., the Chinese word can work as a verb as well as a noun in the same form. Due to this difference, students are easy to commit some mistakes in this aspect. E.g.,

....., while he considers it not meaningful (meaningless) and useful. (useless). (Sentence 2).

Modest (Modesty) makes people make progress,(Sentence 20).

2. The transferred errors in lexicon

The transferred errors in lexicon also account for a large percent in C-E translation. One can not go without adequate mental lexicon as storage when writing. With the limitation of mental lexicon, some students feel confused especially when they undergo difficulty in finding the corresponding words in English, and they are liable to bridge the gap by the native language, which is inevitable to result in negative transfer of native language. The remarkable manifestation is mechanical translation from Chinese. E.g.,

Calmly and patiently dealing with this question is wise. (Sentence 8)

Even though we failed a hundred times, *the heaven* will not *collapse*..... (Sentence 24).

In the above two examples, the italicized words are typical transferred vocabulary from Chinese. While the reference translations are:

It would be wise to handle this delicate problem with calmness and patience.

The world won't end even if we fail a hundred times.

3. The transferred errors in syntax

a. The omission of the verb "Be" and particles

The omission of the linker verb "Be" is due to the fact that in Chinese there's no such kind of verb. We can consider the verb "是" as a linker verb in Chinese, but it's usually not correspondent with that in English. Further more, there are many phrase verbs in English, i.e. a particle is usually added to a verb to fulfill a complete meaning. However, in Chinese, a verb is not necessarily followed by such a particle. Due to this difference, the omission of "Be" and particles is a frequent phenomenon in the students' versions. E.g.,

I feel that the sweeping cars (are) very merciless, (Sentence 14)

.....and invite him (to) our English evening. (Sentence 27)

b. Agreement

In English, agreement refers to accordance or equivalence with regard to number, gender and person. Subject-verb agreement and noun/pronoun-antecedent agreement are two typical types. In contrast, agreement in Chinese language does not stand out. So the students commit lots of errors in this aspect. E.g.,

She is excited by the idea of online learning but he consider(s) it meaningless and useless. (Sentence 2)

Scientific research is an important means of knowing the world and at the same time serves as the foundations of technological progress. (Sentence 19)

c. Word order

The commonly accepted word order of Chinese indicative sentence is: Time adverb--space adverb--adverb modifying the main verb--verb; while the word order of that of English is: verb--adverb that modifying the verb--space adverb--time adverb. Moreover, in the case of an attributive clause modifying a noun, the arrangement of the Chinese sentence is: attributive clause--noun, while the English sentence is: noun--attributive clause. In English, there's frequently a long attributive clause after a noun, but it's not the case in Chinese. In C-E translation, the attributive clause is usually translated into an independent clause, or an attributive component before the noun. In addition, the preposition that refers to place is usually placed after the noun in Chinese, while in English it is just the opposite. Secondly, the generative methods are different between Chinese and English interrogative sentence. The word order of Chinese interrogative sentence is the same as the indicative ones, the only difference is that there is an interrogative word such as "吗", "呢", etc., at the end of the sentence. While in English interrogative sentences the subject and predicative verb is in an inverted order, the interrogative words, such as "what", "why", "where" are at the beginning of the sentence. However, the Chinese interrogative word only has to substitute the noun in the sentence.

For Sentence 1, "对于网络课程, 学生不仅可以选学何时何地学习, 在回答问题之前他们还可以有时间思考答案", many students translate it according to the word order of Chinese sentence, they translate the adverbial "对于网络课程" into a short clause at the beginning of the whole sentence and the following word order is also not standard in English. E.g.,

①As for online course, not only can students choose when and where to study, but they also can have time to think out the answer before answering questions.

②About online course, not only students can choose when and where to study, but also they can think out answers before they answer the questions.

d. Relative clause

As we know English is compact while Chinese is diffusive, when we do C-E translation, we must pay attention to this difference. In English, the complex sentence usually has some conjunctions and the compound sentence usually has a relative pronoun. And for the compound relative sentence in English, there's usually a domain noun and a clause modifying the noun, so grammatically there's also a relative pronoun, and sometimes there's also a preposition before the relative pronoun according to the semantic meaning. One important difference between the domain noun in the main clause and the pronoun in the relative clause is that they may take different grammatical roles. This is different from Chinese sentence, which usually put the modifying clause before the noun, or just put another small clause after the noun. There is no relative pronoun. For example, in Chinese, we say, "刚才摔倒的那个女孩是我的妹妹", but in English we say "The girl who has fallen down just now is my sister". As for Sentence 3, "与以英语为母语的人交谈是

非常有益的体验，从中我们能学到许多东西”，many students make some errors in the attributive clause. E.g.,

① Communicating with the people whose first language is English is a rewarding experience, we can learn a lot from it.

② It's a rewarding experience to communicate with those whose mother tongue is English, and we can learn more from this.

e. Negation

In some languages, negators may either precede a verb phrase, or follow a verb phrase, we can call it preverb or postverb negation (Odlin, 2001). We can see that Chinese is a preverb language, we often use the negators “不”, “不是”, “并非” before the main verb. However, English is much more complex, aside from independent words, such as “no”, “not” and “none”, prefixes and suffixes may also serve as negators, as in “*uninterested* and *thoughtless*”, etc. Moreover, English has many words which have negative meanings, such as, “little, few, seldom, hardly, scarcely, barely”, “fail, lack, beyond, deny, refuse, reject”, etc. So strictly speaking, English verb-phrase negators are often neither preverb nor postverb. When Chinese students come across the negation in C-E translation, they usually just put the negator “no” or “not” before the main verb. As for Sentences 2 and 5, the following are two versions of the students:

① She is excited by the idea of online learning, while he thinks it's no meaning and no use.

② In the short time of 15 years, China has changed into a place not recognize.

The reference translations are:

“She is excited by the idea of online learning while he considers it meaningless and useless.”

“In the short space of fifteen years, China has changed beyond the recognition.”

f. Dangling modifiers

Dangling modifiers is a kind of ungrammatical structure, such as, the phrases functioning as adjectives or adverbs are put at the illogical places. Dangling modifiers in the works of Chinese translators frequently appear in structures such as participles, gerunds, infinitives, prepositional phrases and adjectives and so on.

Some students translate Sentence 7, “我跑下了楼的时候，听到钟敲了12下”，into, “While running down the stairs, the clock struck twelve.”

The dangling participle in this sentence is “while running down the stairs” which needs to be closely linked to the subject “I”. There is a difference between English and Chinese in participle. In Chinese, there is no participle, so the students made a Chinglish problem of dangling participle. While the standard version is, “While running down the stairs, I heard the clock strike twelve”.

g. “It” plague

The native speakers of English often choose the pronoun “it” to be the subject or the object of the sentence in form. However, in Chinese, the subject is usually implied in the sentence. Some Chinese translators usually ignore this difference between these two languages.

In Sentence 8, “冷静耐心地处理这个微妙问题是明智的”, the subject is too long and too abstract to put at the top of the sentence. In English, it is an idiomatic way to put a pronoun “it” as the formal subject at the beginning of the sentence. However, in Chinese, we need not pay attention to that. There's no wonder some students translate it into: “To handle this delicate problem with calmness and patience would be wise.” While the standard translation is, “It would be wise to handle this delicate problem with calmness and patience.”

h. Missing subject

The first Chinese typical sentence is a theme-rheme sentence compared with English subject-predicate sentence. Theme invariably occurs first, and the rheme is a clause which follows the theme and says something about it. While it is widely accepted that English sentence is a language unit containing subject and predicate. This kind of structure in English is strictly obeyed and a predicative verb is the focus of each sentence. A theme in Chinese starts at the beginning of a sentence, but it can be or cannot be the subject in English sentence.

Just as Sentence 9, “明天下午两点在学校礼堂开教学研究会” Many students translated it into,

At 2:00 p.m. tomorrow in the school hall will hold a teaching symposium.

This version regards the theme in the Chinese sentence as the subject in the English sentence. While judging by the English grammar, this version is ungrammatical and lack of the subject. The student's ignoring of the difference between the two languages led to word to word translation. However, the reference version is, “A teaching symposium will be held in the school hall at 2:00 p.m. tomorrow”.

4. Other transferred errors

a. Avoidance of passive voice

A great difference between Chinese and English is the frequent use of passive voice in English. As we know that in Chinese, the verb itself doesn't have the distinction between active and passive. Moreover, we usually tend to use the active form to mean a passive meaning. E.g. the sentence “鸟吃了” may have two meanings. One is “the bird has eaten (it)” and the other is “the bird has been eaten”. The frequency of passive voice in Chinese is much smaller than that in English. Due to this fact, the students are unaware of the use of passive voice in some sentences. As for sentence No. 25 and 28, many students haven't used the passive voice. Those who have used also made some mistakes. E.g.,

Over the past ten years, the graduate education in China has made a great progress with common efforts.

You should pay right after the goods are arrived.

The reference version is as follows:

Over the past ten years, with joint efforts a big progress has been made in graduate education in China.

You should make the payment right after the goods are delivered.

b. Avoidance of use the complex sentence

The avoidance of the complex sentence, especially the noun clauses, is also obvious in the students' versions. E.g.,

We will deal with the working of computer in details next period. (Sentence 22)

When we start doesn't matter. Being well-prepared is the most important thing. (Sentence 30)

The reference versions are:

How a computer works will be explained in detail at the next lecture.

When we start doesn't matter. The most important thing is that we should make good preparations for it.

D. A Remarkable Finding

On the back of the translation test paper, every student has been asked to write down their English scores in the College Entrance Examination (CEE). There's a remarkable finding during the analysis of the samples. That is, the students who have achieved high scores in the CEE have made fewer transferred errors than those who have got low scores. The total transferred errors and their scores can be seen in the following table. (Table 3-2)

TABLE 3-2
A CONTRAST BETWEEN STUDENTS' TRANSFERRED ERRORS AND CEE SCORES

Student's number	numbers of transferred errors	scores in the CEE
S No. 1	13	67
S No. 2	9	78
S No. 3	7	79
S No. 4	10	80
S No. 5	8	83
S No. 6	7	85
S No. 7	9	87
S No. 8	10	89
S No. 9	8	93
S No. 10	9	93
S No. 11	10	94
S No. 12	8	96
S No. 13	8	98
S No. 14	7	98
S No. 15	11	99
S No. 16	9	100
S No. 17	6	102
S No. 18	9	105
S No. 19	11	106
S No. 20	9	107
S No. 21	6	110
S No. 22	7	115
S No. 23	7	117
S No. 24	5	119
S No. 25	8	120
S No. 26	5	121
S No. 27	3	123
S No. 28	4	123
S No. 29	3	131
S No. 30	2	143

This phenomenon has also been proved in Taylor's research (1975). He has done a research on English grammatical errors committed by Spanish students, who are in different English levels. He came to the conclusion that the lower-level students were greatly influenced by L1, while the higher-level students tend to made less such errors.

The data have been put into SPSS 16.0, and the correlations can be seen in the following table. (Table 3-3)

TABLE 3-3
CORRELATIONS

Correlations			
		No. of T- e	S(s) in CEE
No. of T-e	Pearson Correlation	1	-.755**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	30	30
S(s) in CEE	Pearson Correlation	-.755**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	30	30
Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). In this table, No. of T-e refers to the number of transferred errors, and S(s) in CEE refers to the English scores in College Entrance Examination.			

We can see these two components, the number of transferred errors and the scores in College Entrance Examination is highly negative correlated, and the Pearson Correlation proficiency is -.755*.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

A. Causes of the Transferred Errors

1. The different thought patterns

Since language influences the way people perceive, organize and communicate, speakers of different languages have different ways of thinking. So the negative transfer of linguistic knowledge on the surface is the negative transfer of thought patterns in deep cognitive processes. The way people think is language-specific and the manifestation of their thought patterns. The thought patterns in a language, which are the ways we interpret the experience, are commonly accepted in this particular speech community by its people. So, different speech community embodies a distinct habitual mode of thought. Brought up in China, Chinese students are used to Chinese thinking patterns. Negative transfer of syntactic knowledge is in fact that of thought patterns. Then the negative transfer of Chinese thought patterns on students' C-E translation is just a typical example.

2. Lack of comprehensible input

According to Krashen (1982), a second language learner improves and progresses along the "natural order" when he or she receives second language "input" that is one step beyond his or her current stage of linguistic competence. That is called "The Input Hypothesis". That is a language acquirer who is at "level i" must receive comprehensible input that is at "level i +1". So input is very important for the acquisition or learning of a foreign language. For example, if a student has never learned a structure, it is difficult for him to produce it. English is learned as a foreign language in China, so students, esp. the non-English majors, have few opportunities to acquire the language knowledge as is done in the acquisition of mother tongue. In most cases, students are consciously learning the language rather than acquiring the knowledge, in Krashen's words. Even if there is input, it might not become intake and be incorporated into the learner's linguistic system. As a result, students often suffer from the limited linguistic repertoire of English, and have to resort to their mother tongue when necessary.

3. Lack of comparison and contrast between Chinese and English

When students enter the college, passing CET4&6 becomes their goal in college English learning. In order to pass the exams, teachers ask students to do lots of test papers, which occupies much time in English course. In the practice of sentence translation, the teachers usually just give students the equivalent answers, ignoring the difference between Chinese and English and lacking an awareness of cross-linguistic influence. They don't notice they should compare and contrast the different syntactic structures of Chinese and English.

B. Implications for Teaching

According to the results of experimental research and the causes to the transferred errors, some measures should been taken in future teaching.

1. Increasing comprehensive input and output

Comprehensive input and output should be increased in future English teaching and learning. E.g., students are to be asked to read all kinds of English newspapers and magazines. They also have to recite parts of the text and do some translation practices.

Swain (1985) claims comprehensible output is also indispensable to SLA. Translation is not only a basic need for communication between two different countries, but also a means to review and reinforce the linguistic knowledge that has just been learned, through which language learners can also check the deficiencies of their knowledge. So at the end of each class, the students should be assigned with some homework, such as, some sentence translation, the detailed understanding of the text, and sometimes a composition.

2. Increasing comparison and contrast between Chinese and English

Due to the last item in the questionnaire, we can see few teachers have done well in this aspect. So it should be reinforced. The contrastive fields include phonology, lexicology, syntax, context and culture.

In actual classroom teaching, the teacher have to give abundant practice on the difference between two languages through imitation and reinforcement, in order to help students overcome the interference of their mother tongue and form new habits in the target language learning. E.g., every week the assignments of C-E sentence translations should be asked to hand in. At the beginning of the next week, the answers and analysis are given to the students. Sometimes, before giving the answer, the students can be asked to check their versions by themselves. Ideally, as only the learners are actually capable of making changes in their developing inter-language systems, the best form of correction a teacher can do is to offer the learners the opportunity to try to self correct. By repairing their translation breakdowns, the correct form will be internalized. In addition, for the intermediate or advanced learners, most of the linguistic errors can be corrected by themselves. Furthermore, English learners can gain more confidence in their language capacity if they have time to put their own errors correct. But in most cases students couldn't detect the errors that they have made. At this time the teacher can ask them to discuss with their classmates. After discussion, the answer will be given to them.

Moreover, it's also necessary for the teacher to compare the different cultures between the east and west. Language is influenced and shaped by culture. Every nation has different religious belief and different thinking way. Therefore, teachers need to find some methods to help the students notice the different thought patterns and tend to use English in a standard way.

APPENDIX

1. 对于网络课程, 学生不仅可以选择何时何地学习, 在回答问题之前他们还可以有时间思考答案。
2. 网上学习的想法使她非常兴奋, 而他认为网上学习毫无意义和用处。
3. 与以英语为母语的人交谈是非常有益的体验, 从中我们能学到许多东西。
4. 如今, 越来越多的人可以利用互联网查找他们需要的信息。
5. 在短短的十五年期间中国变得认不出来了。
6. 既然我们已经学完这门课程, 就应该多做些复习。
7. 我跑下了楼的时候, 听到钟敲了 12 下。
8. 冷静耐心地处理这个微妙问题是明智的。
9. 明天下午两点在学校礼堂开教学研究会。
10. 他能不能来, 还说不准。
11. 他的误解和解释, 雯雯倒喜欢, 这使她放心了一点。
12. 对于这次大会的精神, 对大会做出的各项决定, (我们) 必须坚决贯彻执行。
13. 文艺是从属于政治的, 但又反过来给予伟大的影响于政治。
14. 我觉得清扫车真残酷, 它把美丽的落叶视同垃圾, 有点不尽人情。
15. 我认为这是一个遗憾, 你没有更努力一些。
16. 每天做同样的事情, 他觉得这难以忍受。
17. 一片阴影掠过我的眼前, 记忆把我拉回到几十年前的一个黄昏。
18. 夏天给人们种种磨难与考验, 训练人的耐性、智慧跟机敏。
19. 科学研究是人类认识世界的重要途径, 也是技术进步的源泉。
20. 谦虚使人进步, 骄傲使人落后。
21. 对任何事情来说, 有准备都比没有准备好。
22. 计算机是如何工作的将在下一次课上做详细说明。
23. 有些人以为男孩子比女孩子聪明。然而, 事实未必如此。
24. 即使我们失败一百次, 天也不会塌下来。只要我们不失去信心, 我们终将成功。
25. 过去的 10 年中, 经过共同努力, 在我国的教育方面取得了很大的进步。
26. 老人读完信后失望之极, 竟用颤抖的手指把它撕得粉碎。
27. 我提议咱们会后马上去办公室找史密斯教授, 邀请他参加我们的英语晚会。
28. 你们应该在货物运到后立即付款。
29. 采用这个办法, 我们提高了学习英语的效率。
30. 我们何时开工并无关系。最重要的是我们必须做好准备。

The reference translations in English are as follows:

- 1) Not only can students choose when and where to learn for an online course, but they can also take time to think through answers before making a reply.
- 2) She is excited by the idea of online learning while he considers it meaningless and useless.
- 3) Communicating with native English speakers is a very rewarding experience from which we can learn a lot.
- 4) Today, more and more people have access to the Internet through which they look for the information they need.
- 5) In the short space of fifteen years, China has changed beyond the recognition.

- 6) Now that we have finished the course, we shall start doing more revision work.
- 7) While running down the stairs, I heard the clock strike twelve.
- 8) It would be wise to handle this delicate problem with calmness and patience.
- 9) A teaching symposium will be held in the school hall at 2:00 p.m. tomorrow.
- 10) It is uncertain whether he could come.
- 11) Wenwen liked his misunderstanding of her refusal, and this made her relax a little.
- 12) We must firmly implement the guidelines and decisions adopted by this meeting.
- 13) Literature and art are subordinate to politics, but in their turn exert a great influence on politics.
- 14) I feel that the sweeping cars are too ruthless; they regard the fallen leaves as rubbish, somewhat inhumane.
- 15) I think it a pity that you didn't try harder.
- 16) a. To do the same thing every day he finds it unbearable.
b. He finds it unbearable to do the same thing every day.
c. He finds to do the same thing every day unbearable.
- 17) A shadow sweeps across my eyes and my memory draws me back to a dusk over ten years ago.
- 18) Summer gives man various kinds of tests, training their patience, wisdom and alertness.
- 19) Scientific research is an important means of understanding the world and at the same time serves as the foundation of technological progress.
- 20) Modesty makes people make progress, while (and) pride makes people lose behind.
- 21) It's better to be prepared than unprepared for everything.
- 22) How a computer works will be explained in detail at the next lecture.
- 23) Some people think that boys are cleverer than girls. This is not necessarily the case, however.
- 24) The world won't end even if we fail a hundred times. As long as we don't lose heart, we'll succeed in the end.
- 25) Over the past ten years, with joint efforts a big progress has been made in graduate education in China.
- 26) After reading the letter the old man was so disappointed that he tore it into little bits with trembling fingers.
- 27) I propose that we go to find Prof. Smith in his office right after the meeting and invite him to our English evening.
- 28) You should make the payment right after the goods are delivered.
- 29) Adopting this method, we have improved our efficiency in English learning.
- 30) When we start doesn't matter. The most important thing is that we should make good preparations for it.

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Death Mask of Lucy

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Abstract—As a great poet, William Wordsworth describes the death in many poems. Among them, Lucy poems are in a special group. They are not only poems concerning death but also love too. From a special perspective of lover, the poet describes five aspects concerning death: premonition of death, influence of death, meaning of death, attitude towards death, and significance of death. With these aspects, the poems reveal Wordsworth's contemplation of death. In addition, they justify that William Wordsworth practice his own poetics: the feeling therein developed gives importance to the action and situation, and emphasize the subjectivity of human being.

Index Terms—wordsworth, death, Lucy poems

William Wordsworth, the representative poet of the early Romanticism, was born in 1770. He greatly admired Nature, and emphasized imagination. His mother died when he was only eight. His father followed her six years later. The tragic experience in his children gives influence to his life. Poems concern about the theme of death. The Lucy poems are among those ones. The Lucy poems are a series of five poems written by Wordsworth during the year 1798 and 1801. The Lucy poems include "Strange fits of passion have I known", "She dwelt among the untrodden ways", "I travelled among unknown men", "Three years she grew in sun and shower", and "A slumber did my spirit seal". William Wordsworth wrote the poem during a short stay while he lived in Germany. In these poems, Wordsworth idealized a character of Lucy who died young. In Lucy poems, the death theme repeatedly appears and helps to understand the poetic of William Wordsworth.

In ancient Rome, the Romans kept the death masks of their forefathers as a way of remembering them (Stokstad, 1995, p.243). The death mask is made of wax. In Lucy poems, Wordsworth tries many ways to build a death mask of Lucy, as a special method of remembering a lady in his mind. Though some evidence may prove that Lucy in "Three years she grew" is Dorothy, Pipion also argues that Lucy poems are written under the inspiration of thoughts by Mary Hutchinson (Pipion, 1988, p.100-105). As Ferguson points out, though Lucy is the central figure in these poems, it is quite strange that "Lucy's voice is nonexistent in the poems" and, when she is about to speak, "she is silenced with death" (Ross, 1986, p.397). There is only the voice of I, the narrator of the poem. From feminism perspective, Ross criticizes that Wordsworth retains and intensifies masculine desire by killing Lucy, and, in relationship with Lucy, he deprives Lucy's needs and desires and keeps his needs and desires as the whole (Ross, 1986, p.399). Though the identity of Lucy and the purpose of these poems are in debating, it is clear that Lucy poems are filled with evidence of love and concern of death. Different from other poems about death of Wordsworth, like "We are seven", from a perspective of a lover, five aspects concerning death can be traced from the text: premonition of death, influence of death, meaning of death, attitude towards death, and significance of death. Each poem represents one aspect. From these poems, the worldview and the thought of death of Wordsworth are revealed little by little. Also, from them, it can find some evidence to justify that Wordsworth practices his poetics in his poetry, and gives emphasis to subjectivity, an important character of Romanticism.

The Lucy poems are in ballad measure, four-lined stanzas of alternating tetrameter and trimeter, rhyming abab. They are: "Strange fits of passion have I known", "She dwelt among the untrodden ways", "Three years she grew", "A slumber did my spirit seal", and "I traveled among unknown men". Except the last one, all poems were written in 1799, when Wordsworth and his sister, Dorothy, were in Germany. The winter in Goslar was severe, and Wordsworth had nothing to do except writing poems. In this period, Wordsworth wrote some early important poems, such as Lucy lyrics, and narrative description of boyhood experiences (skating, the "stolen" boat, episode, "Nutting") (Pipion, 1984, p.34). Under such kind of circumstance, Wordsworth gave his poems the thought about life; Lucy poems are his thoughts about death at that time. Though his mother died early, his first sight of a drawn man at Esthwaite was somewhat near. He was not yet nine years old at that time. He thought he was lack of fear because he looked at such sights in the fairy world of romance (Pipion, 1988, p.3). But the Wordsworth in Goslar is quite different from the young boy. He was growing into maturity, and had much experience about life. As Williams points out that Goslar is "the crucible of Wordsworth modernity" (Pipion, 1988, p.103), Wordsworth was at a turning point in his life.

In Lucy poems, there are some aspects of death. When they are put together, a death mask of Lucy, an imaginary lady in Wordsworth's mind, appears in the mind of the reader, like the death masks of Roman ancestors. It is the memory of Lucy. On the other hand, it is clear that Lucy poems are love poems because it can find evidence in the

poems that the narrator loves Lucy deeply. In the first poem, "Strange fits of passion have I known", the narrator says plainly Lucy is "she I loved".

At the beginning of the poem, the narrator boldly says that he will tell the other lovers the "strange fits of passion" once befell to him. At that time, Lucy was young as "a rose in June". In order to see her, the narrator rode to her cottage under "an evening moon". Having passed the dear paths, "reached the orchard-plot", "climbed the hill", at last, he arrived at the cottage with his horse. On his way to the cottage, the moon accompanied him: the sinking moon, the descending moon, and the bright moon. The image of moon gives an impression of special meaning. In ancient Greek mythology, the goddess of Moon is Diana. She is worshiped as the goddess of hunting and childbirth (Frazer, 1963, p.4). In this case, the moon is related as Diana. With the company of goddess, the narrator "never stopped" on his way to find his lover. Actually, "the descending moon" was coming "near, and nearer still". With the blessing of Diana, the narrator believed that he would meet his lover, and make a union. But when he came "down behind the cottage roof", and fulfilled his goal, meeting his lover, the moon "dropped" and disappeared. This may be explained as a good scene for two lovers meet each other. But from the narrator, it is different. With such a change, the narrator suddenly had a different idea in the mind, the premonition that Lucy would die one day. With the company of Diana, the narrator was promised to find his lover and give birth to a child. After his meeting of his lover, she disappeared. Her bless fell on the narrator instead of his lover. The lover was lack of one important thing, the eternal life. Diana fulfilled her promise and left him alone. It means that death is something Lucy could not avoid. From ancient time to present, people tried every many ways to gain an eternal life. In Renaissance, people believe that poems can make people eternal. This idea reflects in many works (cf. Sonnet 75 of Spenser, Sonnet 18 and 55 of Shakespeare). When he was 11 or 12 years old, Wordsworth was persuaded to memorize long passages of Milton, Shakespeare, and Spenser by his father (Pipion, 1988, p.3). Though little evidence is found to prove what poems Wordsworth had read, it is no doubt that Wordsworth is familiar with those poems and believes the power of poetry can eternize a person. From this poem, the thought about the coming death proves that Wordsworth is conscious that the human body is mortal. For an individual, he is destined to die one day. What Lucy will leave him after her death is the memory of the meeting time and the premonition of her death in their gathering. Wordsworth calls the premonition of lover's death the "fond and wayward thoughts", because, when one is deep in love, he or she seldom thinks that their lovers will die one day. Even he is aware of the future, the inevitable death, he just tries his effort to make his lover immortal, just like the poets in Renaissance. But as an "outsider" (Williams, 1993, p.104), Wordsworth distinguishes the death of man in several aspects. With poems, a person is immortal to all readers. But this immortality lies in the thought of the readers, in another word, in spirit, not in body. The human body will perish one day. With two words of "fond and wayward", Wordsworth set emphasis to give strangeness of the premonition of death in a lover's eyes. The death is inevitable, but one tries to forget it. The sharp contrast intensifies the strength of poem. With such emphasis, a gloomy mood raises in the reader. Like Pipion points out, Wordsworth is interested "in the working of the mind at a point of heightened emotion" (Pipion, 1984, p.104). With this intensity, it gives the action and situation, and not the action and situation to the feeling (Wordsworth, 1974, p.73). In such circumstance, it can induce another popular theme of love in Renaissance – *carpe diem*. While one is still alive, one should make use of time and pursue love. If he fails to do so, he gets nothing, even without the memory of his lover. With the premonition of lover's death, Wordsworth reveals one character of death: inevitability. As Heidegger says, "Being towards death" (Wordsworth, 1974, p.277), no one can escape this fate. Wordsworth creates a different way in the poem. In the second poem, "She dwelt among the untrodden ways", the poet talks about the influence of death.

From what the narrator says, the influence of death is connected with the position of person. In the first stanza, the narrator indicates the trivial social position of Lucy. Dove is the name of several rives in England (Abrams, 1993, p.153). It means where Lucy once lived is a common place in England. It could be the Lake District, or other places. "The untrodden way" shows it is a remote countryside and few people go there. Her social circle is small. This limited surrounding gives the impression of Lucy: she is just like a hermit. In this case, she is so trivial that could hardly be noticed by the society. But this does not mean she is low in social class. Though to the whole society she is trivial, but to those who know her, she is very important. In the second stanza, the poet uses two images to make a sharp contrast of her position to the society and her lover. To the society, she is "a violet by a mossy stone", a most common thing in England. Here, Lucy is no longer a rose in the first poem, but a violet, a very common flower found everywhere. She is modesty to the society, and also obscure and unnoticed, because she is "half hidden from the eye". The image of violet enhances her humble position in the society. But to her lover, she is "fair as a star, when only one / Is shining in the sky". After the sunset, the first star shining in the sky is Venus. In Greek mythology, Venus is the goddess of beauty and love (Car-Gomm, 1995, p.220). To her lover, she is beautiful and is the planet of love itself. She represents all his love. With this sharp contrast, the poem reveals two sides of a human being, both trivial and important. To society, she is trivial; to those who love him, he is important. So Lucy's death has little influence to the society because "few could know / When Lucy ceased to be". But to her lover, it is quite different. Lucy is in her grave and is different to him. In the lover's eyes, Lucy could not speak to him and takes away all his love. It is not what John Donne called "one short sleep" (Abrams, 1986, p.1099), but the "decay" of "a mortal thing" (Spenser, 1993, p.617). For the narrator, it is in deep grief of his lover's death. This sharp contrast may raise a thought in the reader's mind as an allegory. Everyone in this world is like Lucy, both trivial and important. Though death of some great people will give shock to the society for a while, but the society returns its route because it is the society of all human beings, not of an individual. Man is

relatively humble in the society, though he is once a great man in this world. With the consciousness of humility, he should be conscious of his importance to the people who love him. He is the source of their love and joy. So with the contrast of humility and importance, the influence of death is put in the mind. With the revelation of the influence of death, Wordsworth shows man's humility and the meaning of life.

In the third poem, "Three years she grew", the poet put a discussion on the meaning of death. In this poem, Lucy is described as a child died young. When Lucy was three years old, Nature made his promise to make her "a Lady of my own". So in the realm of nature, she is "sportive as the fawn" and springs "across the lawn or up the mountain", and she has the characters of "the breathing balm", and "the silence and the calm / Of mute insensate things". Because she is the "Lady" of Nature, she shares the honour of nature, that "the floating clouds" give her their state; "the willow bend" to her, "The stars of midnight" are "dear to her". She is part of Nature. As many Romantic poets worship Nature, the Nature is the best thing they can find in their poems. As a part of Nature, Lucy represents the best thing in this world. But from a feminist view, Ross discusses social meaning of word lady and looks Nature as "the representative of Man" (Ross, 1986, p.399-401). This explanation shows the voiceless Lucy's position in the narration of man, but, in the poem, the transformation of Lucy's role gives an objection to this argument. From the very beginning, Lucy was under the bless of Nature as the Lady of Nature. Later, the narrator changes his words as he calls her, "my Lucy". There is an assumption that the narrator is a man. If the narrator is Lucy and she says her lover's race is end, it cannot say Nature is the representative of Woman. In this case, "my Lucy" may only mean her role has transformed from a natural one to a social one. In Nature, there is no death and Lucy is alive. This idea may trace back to the ancient time. In Greek myth, for her love to Hippolytus, Diana restored his life. In order to escape from the angry god, Jupiter, she took him to the dells of Nemi and prolonged his life (Frazer, 1963, p.6). So in Nature, man can find an eternal life. Lucy and Nature live in "happy dell" implies that, in Nature, she can live as long as possible. So in nature, there is no death. But when she is in society, she died. She left the narrator "this heath, this calm, and quiet scene". He cannot have her company in those places as the old time. He only has memory of her. With the sharp contrast, the poem reveals that death only has social meaning. As a natural being, a part of the Nature, man shares the character and honour of Nature, and runs in the great circle of nature. Death means he changes from this form to that form. It makes no difference what form he is in the great circle of nature. He is Nature itself. But as a social being, man is an individual in the society. He has relations with others. His change of form, death, gives impact to others, just like the death of Lucy only leaves memory to her lover. In some cases deaths is like the absence of something. It only disappears in some place but appears in another place. It breaks the social relationship. So the death of a person only has meaning in human society. It means the breaking of social relationship. It is the death in the society that Wordsworth reveals death only exists in the society. It has social meaning.

The fourth poem, "A slumber did my spirit seal", is the shortest one but receives much attention from critics, such as from F. W. Bateson and Cleanth Brooks to Paul de Man and J. Hills Miller (Curran, 1993, p.234). Pipion argues it is "philosophical and detached rather than personal; it excites reflection rather than emotion" (Curran, 1993, p.105). Williams (1993) thinks that Goslar is "a slumber" in Wordsworth's life when he discusses his modernity (p. 103). With its simplicity, the poem discusses what kind of attitude man should take to death. When my spirit was sealed with a slumber, "I had no human fear". Slumber is one kind of sleep. In a slumber state, the narrator has no consciousness. Any knowledge of human being does not exist in his mind. He is in a state of innocence. In his *Holy Sonnet* 10, Donne compares death as a short sleep as he proudly claims the eternal life towards death. But for most human being, the fears in life are fear of death. It concerns about the consciousness of death. When a man does not have the idea of what is death, he is not afraid of death. So does she, the girl in this poem. Since she grows in nature and has no knowledge of human being in her mind, she too has no concept of death. In the narrator's eyes, she naturally "could not feel / The touch of earthly years" because her innocent state of human knowledge. This case is linked to what Rousseau called conception of noble savage. She lived "with rocks, and stones, and trees" "in earth's diurnal course". She has no idea of death at all. Having described the situations without the fear of death, Wordsworth suggests possible attitudes towards death. Though death is inevitable, but one can avoid the fear of death. First, death is a slumber, a state that one can ephemerally forget the notion of death. Since one forgets the notion of death, he will deprive the fear of death in that forgetfulness. Second, one lives in nature and is instilled with natural knowledge, without the human knowledge of society, like the girl in the poem. So he has no fear of death. Since man is social animal and lives in a society, he is hardly to survive in the society without the knowledge of human being. The most possible way to deprive the fear of death is to forget the notion of death in human mind. With this description, Wordsworth suggests the potential attitude towards death, forgetting death. There are some people who can escape the fear of death with their wits, like Socrates, but not all human beings can follow his way. For Wordsworth, in order to escape the fear of death, the best way for most people is to forget the notion of death, such as in a state of slumber. Though it is a passive way, it is in fact an effective way for all human being to deprive the fear of death.

For the last poem, "I travelled among the unknown men", it is supposed that Lucy is Mary Hutchinson. In April 1801, Wordsworth sent a copy of this poem to Mary Hutchinson, and ended "God for ever bless thee, my dear Mary – Adieu" (Pipion, 1988, p.43). As a love poem, it also reveals the significance of death. In the poem, the narrator tells how he develops his patriotism. He finds his love for England when he travels in the foreign country, "among unknown men". It is not easy for him to recognize it when he is in England. Then, he swears he will not leave his country "a second

time” because he loves her “more and more”. Though the poem is not written in German, it reflects some thought of Wordsworth and Dorothy in Germany. The severe weather made them homesick and they decided to live in Lake District. The description is the true state of their minds at that time. The narrator feels the joy of his desire among the mountains in England. But from where comes his patriotism? There are many reasons. But in this poem, it is the death of Lucy which raises his patriotism. England is the place where Lucy lived: “Thy mornings showed, thy nights concealed the bower where Lucy played”. And also, it is the place where Lucy died: “And thine too is the last green field that Lucy’s eyes surveyed”. Death of Lucy leaves the narrator only memory and deep grief. In reality, he only finds the places where Lucy once lived. They may recall his memory of her. England becomes important to the narrator because of the death of Lucy. With the feeling of the narrator, all things described are important. It is clear this is what Wordsworth says, “the feeling therein developed gives importance to the action and situation” (Wordsworth, 1996, p.7). It is the feeling of the narrator that gives importance to England and develops his patriotism. So it is the death of Lucy gives significance to England, and the narrator’s memory of Lucy makes England important to him and develops his patriotism.

With the above discussions, it shows Wordsworth reveals five aspects concerning death from a perspective of a lover: premonition of death, influence of death, meaning of death, attitude towards death, and significance of death. It reflects Wordsworth’s contemplation of death. Together with other poems concerning death, Lucy poems give Wordsworth’s worldview. The feeling therein developed occupies the most important position in all the poems. It justifies Wordsworth’s poetics. On the other hand, it also shows importance of the subjectivity of the individual. Death of individual only has social meaning. With this understanding, one can understand Wordsworth better.

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The Effects of Genre-based Instruction on ESP Learners' Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—Despite the important role the genre-based instruction as a novice approach to teaching at tertiary level, little research has been done on its application in ESP learners' reading comprehension. Furthermore, the actual implementation of this approach and its outcomes on enhancing learners' reading comprehension have not yet been fully explored, this study aimed to investigate the effects of genre-based instruction on ESP learners' reading comprehension. The participants of the study included 116 junior and senior B.S students (both males and females) at Islamic Azad University of Kurdistan, majoring in biology. Participants were randomly assigned into 2 groups of control and experimental. The instructors taught the experimental group (genre-group) based on the genre and the control group (non-genre-group) based on the traditional method of teaching ESP, prevailing in Iranian universities. To meet the aim of the study, the instructors administered one 30-item proficiency test of English and two 30-item standard tests of English reading comprehension to the participants. The results of the reading comprehension test, analyzed through a t-test and independent samples test suggested teaching based on genre had a significant role in enhancing ESP learners' reading comprehension ability and the descriptive and inferential statistics showed learners improved significantly in reading comprehension compared with that of non-genre-group.

Index Terms—genre, genre analysis, genre move, genre-based instruction, esp, reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

The term genre was first introduced in the area of English as Specific Purpose (ESP) and has been defined and discussed from different viewpoints. According to Hyland (2007) "genre refers to abstract, socially recognized ways of using language" (p. 149). Chandler (1997) states the term genre is generally used in rhetoric, literary theory, media theory, and more recently linguistics, to refer a distinctive type of text. According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), "a genre can be defined as: a type of discourse that occurs in a particular setting, that has distinctive and recognizable patterns and norms of organization and structure, and that has particular and distinctive communicative functions" (p. 224). Since the publication of Swales' "Genre Analysis" in 1990, more than two decades ago an increasing attention has been given to the concept of genre and its application in language teaching and learning. This has led to two prominent movements in the teaching and learning of languages, namely, English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). According to Hyon (2001) previous studies carried out in ESP domain have generally reported positive effects of genre-based teaching for non-native English speakers; however, some have reported limitations. Johns (1997), for instance, puts forward the advantages of using what she calls a "socioliterate approach" to teaching reading and writing in developmental university composition of language minority students.

In the area of genre and second language reading instruction, according to Carrell (1985), schema research, as well as has demonstrated positive outcomes of teaching genre structure on reading recall and/or comprehension. Furthermore, Hyon (2001) found that students who were interviewed immediately after an EAP genre-based reading course reported paying greater attention to rhetorical features in texts than before the course, as well as improved reading confidence and speed. Flowerdew (as cited in Chen, 2008) states there are two major approaches to genre theory: a text-based approach and a situation-oriented approach. In the case of text-based approach there is a focus on analyzing and describing textual patterns of different genres. In a situation-oriented approach of genre theory, according to Chen (2008), the focus is on the dynamic and evolving nature of genre and seeks a description of the situational contexts in which writing takes place. In another genre categorization according to Derewianka (1990) there are six main genres concerning their primary social purposes:

(1) Narratives which tell a story and usually aim to entertain; (2) Recount which tell what happened; (3) Information Reports which provide factual information; (4) Instruction which tell the listeners or readers what to do; (5) Explanation which explain why or how something happens; (6) Expository texts which present or argue a viewpoint. Also various

texts, according to Cometerich (2009), are classified into different genres based on the following characteristics: 1) The purpose of communication or social function which refers to the reasons why we speak or write or create the text, 2) The organization structure of the text or generic structure which implies the text organization or text arrangement, and 3) Language features or lexical grammar which are such things as the grammar, vocabulary and connectors that we use.

According to Torok and Waugh (2006) "Freedman and Medway (1994), two well-known American scholars in the New Rhetoric school, give their view that context determines the shape of genre: situation, motive, substance, and form play a part in defining the genre, but the whole is greater than and different from the sum of these parts" (p. 520). As a new approach in language teaching, there are still some vague issues in genre-based language teaching concerning learners' reading skill. For instance, it is not clearly realized to what extent the covered genres in class affects learners' comprehension of the reading materials; therefore, it is desirable to assess learners' comprehension of texts through using pretest and posttest to find out whether they have made any progress. This study attempts to investigate the effects of GBI on ESP learners' reading comprehension.

Genre-based Instruction (GBI)

Although there has been considerable research on Genre-Based Instruction (GBI) since 1985, little has dealt with the effects of GBI on learners' reading comprehension. When encountering a new academic genre, a student is faced with the task of learning how to read the texts produced within it. Most researches on GBI have been carried out in writing skill and the description of the textual forms and linguistic features of specific genres. However, the current study intends to show it is useful to help learners become aware of the textual regularities of a genre, instructors need to go beyond just analyzing the textual features of the text for learners and they have to assess their learners' comprehension of the texts. GBI has been also referred to as teaching language based on results of genre analysis. According to Swales (as cited in Osman, 2004) "genre analysis is the study of how language is used within a particular setting and according to Bhatia (as cited in Osman, 2004) it is concerned with the form of language use in relation to mean" (p. 2). Based on the model proposed by Cope and Kalantzis (as cited in Osman, 2004), there are four stages of GBI including modeling, guiding, practicing and finally independently writing the genre. In the literature on genre, there are three main approaches to genre theory: 1) The Australian Genre Approach, 2) The New Rhetoric Studies, and 3) English for Specific Purposes. Each of these approaches has its specific view regarding the way in which genres should be taught. For instance, according to Master (2005) the American New Rhetoric position is that genre specifications should not be taught explicitly. The Australian School of Systemic Functional Linguistics, on the other hand, believes that genre specifications should be explicitly taught. Master, further adds ESP practitioners are inclined to use the Australian notion of genre to all non-English-speaking students, including those in academic and professional contexts, leading to accusations in some quarters that the teaching of genre specifications suppresses creativity, and raising the issue of whether genre teaching is ultimately a scaffold or a straitjacket. Genre-based instruction mostly makes use of the theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). Halliday (1985), the SF linguist, proposed the relationship between the use of language and the social environment. According to Christie (1999), in SF theory, language is referred to as being "systemic" in that it offers systems of choices in language, each significant for the realization of meaning; and language is referred to being "functional" because its organization represents the purposes for which any natural language came into being.

According to Nunan (1999) GBI approach has been confused with its more popular counterparts the "product approach" and the "process approach". The former involves imitating, copying, transforming models provided by the teacher and emphasizing the error free final product, and the latter focuses on the process of producing a piece of writing from the prewriting stage for the revising state to the final writing regardless of the time it takes. Genre-based instruction, according to Badger and White (2000), is actually an integration of the product approach and the process approach which results in a process-genre approach. According to Miller (1984) learning a genre is not just learning linguistic forms and conventions, but also it is learning how to participate in the actions of a community. This type of instruction is based on this concept that genres are specific to particular cultures and remind the instructors that their students may not share this knowledge with them and making them go beyond syntactic structures, vocabulary, and composing to incorporate into their teaching the ways language is used in specific contexts. According to Tuan (2011) in this approach, any student who wants to be successful in communicating with a particular English-language discourse community needs to be able to produce texts which fulfill the expectations of their readers in regards to grammar, organization, and content.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This study was carried out on tertiary level students studying for a B.S. in biology in Sanandaj Azad University. The research population included all the junior and senior students studying for a B.S. degree in biology at the time of the study. The participants were selected among 116 male and female junior and senior students. Through using a proficiency test, 60 homogeneous students were chosen in terms of their reading comprehension ability. These 60 students were randomly assigned to a control group of 30, and an experimental group of 30.

B. Instrumentation

The two utilized instruments in this study are explained as follows:

C. Proficiency Test

In this study, to have a homogeneous group, the instructors administered a proficiency test of English developed by Cambridge Michigan ECCE. As the purpose was to match the participants in terms of their reading ability, just the reading section of the test was included. The test entailed three reading passages. It took about 35 minutes. The first passage, followed by 6 multiple-choice items; the second, 11 multiple-choice items, and the last had 13 items. The proficiency test was administered to choose the more homogeneous students out of the population and to put them randomly into experimental and control groups (See Appendix A).

D. Pre-test and Post-test

The instructors administered two standard tests of English reading comprehension adopted from Preliminary English Tests (PET) developed by Cambridge University. One of them was used as a pre-test and the other as a post-test. Only the reading section of these tests was used because the aim was to test the participants in terms of their reading ability. Both pre-test and post-test were divided into two sections: 1) General English and, 2) Specific English. The general English section included a reading comprehension passage followed by 5 multiple-choice items and 1 cloze-test with 10 multiple-choice items. The specific section contained two reading comprehension passages each followed by 5 multiple-choice items (See Appendices B & C).

E. Procedure

To determine the reliability and validity of the instruments developed for the study, a pilot study aimed to clarify the procedures implemented for the study was conducted during the summer semester of 2012. Fifteen learners, having the same level of proficiency, were selected randomly from the target population of the study and were recruited to go through the same procedures of data collection for the present study. Clear understanding of the purposes of the study among the participants was observed and the amount of the allotted time for each test proved to be sufficient. The study was conducted at Biology Faculty of Sanandaj Islamic Azad University. The participants formed two reading classes that were held in two 90-minute sessions a week during one month. The researchers taught the control group through the traditional method which is prevalent in this university just like other universities in Iran, and the researchers taught the experimental group through genre-based instruction. A strong effort was made to treat both the experimental group and the control group the same, except for the difference in teaching method. All the data were collected within 2 months. Although two different methods of instruction were practiced, both groups were taught the same book, namely, English for the students of Biology 3, published by SAMT publications and written by Hossein Farhady (2006).

As already mentioned, the aim of the study was to examine how genre-based instruction improves ESP learners' reading comprehension. Therefore, genre-specific strategies were taught to the students. The two teaching procedures utilized are explained below:

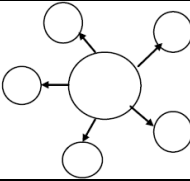
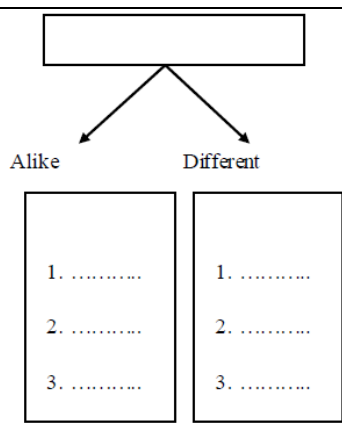
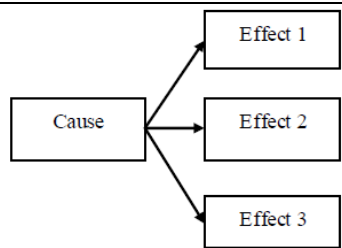
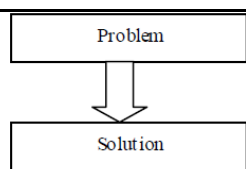
F. Traditional Method

The traditional method taught by the researchers is primarily based on an analytic approach, which begins with words' definitions and translations then analyzes the words into different parts of speech to teach them. The ordinary process of teaching a lesson in such classes is that the instructor usually starts the lesson by explaining the meaning of the new words in Persian. Then, s/he asks a student to read some parts of the reading and helps them to translate those parts into Persian. After finishing the reading, the instructor explains the grammatical structures of the reading. Finally, students have to do the exercises after each reading and read their answers to the class accompanied by translating every sentence into Persian. After that, the instructor corrects students if they are wrong. Sometimes, the students do the exercises as homework for the next session.

G. Genre-based Method

Two common types of texts, which are used more in academic settings are expository and narrative texts. According to Weaver and Kintsch (as cited in Haria, 2010) narrative texts are written to entertain, but expository texts are written to communicate new information or knowledge. In other words, expository genres are designed to inform, report, and describe. They have a variety of structures and textual elements. They also make use of charts, maps, graphs, diagrams, photos, reading guides, etc. As the plethora of texts in ESP, especially in basic sciences such as biology fall in the category of expository genre, so the five common text structures or organizational structures of expository genre was explicitly explained to the learners. First of all, the instructors explained the expository genre to learners and introduced them its five patterns. Second, the instructors explained each of these patterns to learners in terms of their description, cue words, and graphic organizer. The explanations presented to the learners are outlined in the following table:

TABLE 1
FIVE TEXT STRUCTURES OR ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES OF EXPOSITORY GENRE

Pattern	Description	Cue Words (signal words)	Graphic Organizer
Description	The instructor describes a topic by listing characteristics, features, attributes, and examples	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - for example - characteristics - for instance - such as - is like - including - to illustrate 	
Sequence	The author lists items or events in numerical or chronological sequence, either explicit or implied	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - first - second - third - later - next - before - then - finally - after - when - since - now - previously - actual use of dates 	1. _____ 2. _____ 3. _____ 4. _____
Comparison	Information is presented by detailing how two or more events, concepts, theories, or things are alike and/or different	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - however - nevertheless - on the other hand - but - similarly - although - also - in contrast - different - alike - same as - either/or - in the same way - just like - just as - likewise - in comparison - where as - yet 	
Cause and Effect	The author presents ideas, events in time, or facts as causes and the resulting effect(s) or facts that happen as a result of an event.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - if/then - reasons why - as a result - therefore - because - consequently - since - for - so that - hence - due to - thus - this led to 	
Problem and Solution	The author presents a problem and one or more solutions to the problem	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - problem is - dilemma is - if/then - because - so that - question/answer - puzzle is solved 	

Extracted from: www.u-46.org/dbs/roadmap/files/comprehension/3expostext.pdf

Following these explanations, one sample of each of these genres was given to the learners to work on in pairs or small groups. Learners' tasks were to identify each genre and analyze it in terms of its cue words and draw its graphic organizer.

In addition, a KWL comprehension technique which is used for enhancing reading comprehension of SLLS was taught and explained to learners. This technique aims to enable teachers to access the prior knowledge of students and to help students develop their own purposes for reading expository text. In acronym KWL, "K" stands for helping students recall what they "Know" about the subject, "W" Stands for helping students determine what they "Want" to learn, and "L" stands for helping students identify what they "Learn" as they read. (See Appendix D)

H. Design

In the present study which has an experimental method, both groups of control and experimental took two standardized reading comprehension tests, one as a pre-test and the other as a post-test. The control group received the instruction through a traditional method and the experimental group received a genre-based instruction. The conducted treatments in this study are summarized in table 3.2:

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF THE TWO TREATMENTS

Treatment 1	Group 1 (Control)	Pre-test	- GBI	Post-test
Treatment 2	Group 2 (Experimental)	Pre-test	+ GBI	Post-test

Note in Table 3.2

1) - GBI stands for teaching based on no Genre-Based Instruction or Traditional Method.

2) + GBI stands for teaching based on Genre-Based Instruction

I. Data Analysis

Following the administration of the pre-test and post-test, in order to test the research hypothesis and answer the research question, two independent sample tests for the pre-test and post-test were run to investigate the relationships between genre-based instruction as an independent variable and enhancing ESP learners' reading comprehension as a dependent variable.

In order to make sure that the participants were at the same level in terms of general language proficiency, the reading comprehension section of a version Cambridge Michigan ECCE was administered to all the participants (n=116). The proficiency test consisted of thirty items each was given one point and no negative scores was considered for wrong answers. Table 3 shows the results.

TABLE 3
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE CAMBRIDGE MICHIGAN ECCE PROFICIENCY TEST

Total N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Valid N
116	20	29	24.3000	2.70780	60

TABLE 4
THE STATISTICS FOR THE CENTRAL TENDENCIES OF PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST

Statistics	Pre-test	Post-test
N	60	60
Variables	0	0
Missing	0	0
Mean	17.9333	19.5333
Median	17.5000	19.0000
Std. Deviation	4.86379	4.28820
Variance	23.656	18.389
Range	18.00	18.00
Minimum	10.00	10.00
Maximum	28.00	28.00

In Table 4, the statistics of pre-test and post-test are described in terms of the number of variables and missing which are 60 and 0 respectively. The mean of the pre-test is 17.93 and for the post-test is 19.53. The median for the pre-test and post-test are 17.50 and 19.00. The standard deviation of pre-test is 4.86 and that of post-test is 4.28. The pre-test variance and range are 23.65 and 18.00 and for the post-test these numbers are 18.38 and 18.00. The minimum and maximum of numbers in pre- and post-test are 10.00 and 28.00 respectively.

T-TEST TABLE 5
THE GROUP STATISTICS FOR THE PRE-TEST

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test scores				
Control Group	30	17.8333	4.42628	.80812
Experimental Group	30	18.0333	5.34005	.97495

In Table 5, the control and experimental groups are compared in terms of the mean, which in control group is 17.83 while in the experimental group is 18.033; their standard deviation, which is 4.42 the control group and 5.34 for the experimental group, and the standard error mean of .80 for the control group and .97 for the other.

Based on the t-test for the independent samples test the researcher hypothesized that the language proficiency level of the control and experimental groups in pre-test scores seem to be different.

TABLE 6
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR THE PRE-TEST INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levine's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Pre-test scores	Equal variances assumed	1.530	.221	-.158	58
	Equal variances not assumed			-.158	56.071
		T-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	
Pre-test scores	Equal variances assumed	.875	-.20000	1.26633	
	Equal variances not assumed	.875	-.20000	1.26633	

INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		T-test for Equality of Means	
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Lower	Upper
Pre-test scores	Equal variances assumed	-2.73484	2.33484
	Equal variances not assumed	-2.73670	2.33670

According to the Table 6, which summarizes the t-test statistics on pre-test, the significance is .22 and it is more than the .05 ($p > .05$), therefore the two variances are equal. Also based on the amount of Sig. in t-test Table (Table 6) which is .87 and it is more than .05 ($p > .05$), the assumed hypothesis, which states that the language proficiency level of the control and experimental groups in pre-test scores seem to be different, is rejected. The results of Levine's test show that there are no meaningful differences between the pre-test scores of both control and experimental groups and the two groups are nearly equal regarding their language proficiency level in pre-test scores. The rate of significant difference in control and experimental groups is only .20 which is regarded as a trivial difference and has no meaningful difference.

T-TEST TABLE 7
THE GROUP STATISTICS FOR THE POST-TEST GROUP STATISTICS

Groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post-test scores Control Group	30	18.2333	4.20741	.76816
Experimental Group	30	20.8333	4.02649	.73513

In Table 7, the control and experimental groups are compared in terms of the mean, which in control group is 18.23 while in the experimental group is 20.83; their standard deviation, which is 4.20 in the control group and 4.02 for the experimental group, and the standard error mean of .76 for the control group and .73 for the other. Based on the t-test for the independent samples test hypothesized that regarding the treatment or the two various teaching methods, the obtained scores of the post-test from the control and experimental groups seem to be different.

TABLE 8
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR THE POST-TEST INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		Levine's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means	
		F	Sig.	t	df
Post-test scores	Equal variances assumed	.174	.678	-2.445	58
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.445	57.888

INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		T-test for Equality of Means			
		Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	
Post-test scores	Equal variances assumed	.018	-2.60000	1.06325	
	Equal variances not assumed	.018	-2.60000	1.06325	

INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

		T-test for Equality of Means	
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		Lower	Upper
Post-test scores	Equal variances assumed	-4.72832	-.47168
	Equal variances not assumed	-4.72841	-.47159

According to the Table 8 which summarizes the t-test statistics in post-test the significance in Levine's Table is .67 and it is more than .05 ($p > .05$), so the variances are equal. Based on the amount of significance in the t-test table which

is .01 and it is less than the meaningful level of .05 ($p < .05$), the assumed hypothesis, which states regarding the treatment or teaching based on genre, the obtained scores of the post-test from the control and experimental groups seem to be different, is confirmed. In other words, it can be deducted the teaching method based on genre enhances ESP learners' reading comprehension since there is a meaningful difference between the obtained scores of the control and experimental groups in post-test. The experimental group which has been taught through the genre-based instruction has gained a higher mean in post-test than the control group, which has been taught through a traditional method.

III. DISCUSSION

The present study attempted to investigate the effects of genre-based instruction on ESP learners' reading comprehension. The finding of the present study supports some previous studies carried out in ESP domain and reported positive effects of genre-based teaching for non-native English speakers (Hyon, 2001; Henry & Roseberry, 1998). John (as cited in Hyon, 2001), for instance, puts forward the advantages of using what she calls a "socioliterate approach" to teaching reading and writing in developmental university composition of language minority students. She notes that one writing task using this approach, a letter to the university president, was particularly successful.

Furthermore, Hyon (2001) found that students interviewed right after an EAP genre-based reading course reported paying more attention to rhetorical features in texts than before the course, as well as improved reading confidence and speed, this in turn, supports the finding of this study to some extent.

Contrary to the findings of the present study, some other studies in the literature report different results regarding the explicit teaching of genre features. For instance, according to Hyland (as cited in Ribeiro, 2008) "genre pedagogy, is also criticized for being static and decontextualized based on the claim that the teacher is not able to reproduce in class the culture and contexts by which texts are shaped" (p. 6).

Furthermore, according to Cope and Kalantzis (as cited in Ribeiro, 2008) "genre-based instruction teaches "language facts" analogous to the old authoritarian classrooms where students' achievements depend on how successfully the 'rules' can be applied" (p. 5).

Based on the findings of this study, the explicit teaching of the expository genre and its five text structures helps ESP learners to enhance their reading comprehension.

The effectiveness of genre-based instruction of reading comprehension and the success of teaching reading comprehension through a genre-based approach may depend on many conditions including the learners' contexts, levels of proficiency, genre sensitivity, and many other individual and social differences.

The findings of this study also sensitize ESP instructors to the properties of the expository genres used in ESP reading comprehension classes majoring in biology. Researchers in favor of the genre-based instruction approach encourage teachers to learn more about the genre so that they can teach this knowledge to their students in order to enhance their students' awareness of different genres.

IV. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to answer the question of the effects of genre-based instruction on Iranian ESP learners' reading comprehension.

With respect to the research question, the effects of genre-based instruction on ESP learners' reading comprehension was checked and the analysis of the related data resulted in significant findings and indicated there was a positive relationship between teaching based on genre and enhancing learners' reading comprehension.

Based on the results of the scores of the control and experimental groups in pre-test reading comprehension, it was revealed that there is no significant difference in the learners' reading comprehension. After the treatment both groups were taught based on two different methods of teaching, the results of descriptive statistics showed the experimental group performed better in post-test reading comprehension.

Therefore, it can be concluded that teaching ESP learners based on the principles of genre-based instruction has a significant effect on enhancing learners' reading comprehension.

A. Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study may offer some pedagogical implications for instructors, material developers and syllabus designers.

One of the prominent implications for instructors is that they can teach related genres in their classes through teaching them explicitly and using pertinent techniques such as KWL to enhance ESP learners' reading comprehension instead of resorting to just translating from English to Persian. The obtained results from the present study also can help instructors to teach the reading comprehension-based textbooks designed for Iranian ESP learners through a more purposeful and contextualized setting along with more interaction with the instructor and the other learners.

The important implication for material developers and syllabus designers will be that the rigid format of current ESP textbooks which are dictated by the official center for materials in humanities, say, SAMT should be reviewed to provide the learners with texts not just being replete with technical terms without providing learners with opportunities

to use these terms in realistic tasks and situations. Material developers should equip textbooks with more pictures, diagrams, and graphs which are in a great deal neglected in SAMT books.

Furthermore, genre-based approach can play an important role in designing syllabuses and developing materials based on the specific texts which learners are faced with more, in real situations and in higher levels. Material developers and syllabus designers should improve the quality of materials and textbooks with a close consideration of the characteristics of different genres regarding the learners' field of study.

B. Suggestions for Further Research

This study was an attempt to investigate the effects of genre-based instruction on Iranian ESP learners' reading comprehension. Regarding the findings of this study, the following areas are worthy of further investigation and are suggested as the starting point for further studies for those who are interested in conducting research in the area of genre-based instruction:

1. This study was carried out with both male and female participants; other studies can be conducted with male and female participants in separate groups to make the difference between the two genders clear.
2. This study was carried out by senior and junior university students at the intermediate level of proficiency. It is suggested that other researchers investigate the effects of genre-based instruction on ESP learners' reading comprehension at different proficiency levels.
3. In this study, among various genres, the expository genre, which is used more in ESP textbooks, was explained and taught to the learners. It is suggested that other types of genres and their effect on reading comprehension be investigated for further research.
4. The age of participants in this research was limited to the third and fourth-year university students. It is suggested to carry out the same study on students at different ages.

APPENDIX A A SAMPLE OF CAMBRIDGE MICHIGAN ECCE PROFICIENCY TEST

Name:, Major:
 Date:, Time: 35 Min
 Cambridge Michigan ECCE (Reading)
Difficulty level: B2 / advanced

Part (1) Read the text and then answer questions 1-6

Everybody loves to play board games sometimes, but it is surprising to know how long this pastime has been in existence. Some of the earliest board games are over five thousand years old. The oldest is probably *Senet*, an Ancient Egyptian game which has been found in burials from before 3000BC. The game involves an element of luck, and so it was thought by the Ancient Egyptians that those who won the game were protected by the Gods. For this reason, games of *Senet* were often buried alongside the body in the grave, to be used on the dangerous journey to the afterlife. The game can also be seen on a number of paintings in tombs. The game board is set out as a grid of three by ten rows, and uses two sets of at least five pawns. The actual rules are unknown, although some historians have proposed rules which are used in the *Senet* sets available today.

The Royal Game of Ur, also known as the Game of Twenty Squares, is another ancient game which dates back to the First Dynasty of Ur, in 2600 BC Mesopotamia. It was played with two sets of seven markers, one black and one white, and three four-sided dice. Although the ancient rules are unknown, a stone tablet has been found which depicts a reliable record of how the game was played in 177-176 BC.

Both *Senet* and The Royal Game of Ur are probably predecessors to the game backgammon, which **itself** has a long history. The game of Nard, which existed in Iran in around 3000BC, used two sets of fifteen counters, four dice and same board as the one used in backgammon today, although the initial starting positions and rules are different. Similar games were played in Ancient Rome and India.

APPENDIX B PRE-TEST

Name: Major:
 Date: Time: 35 Min
 Part A. General English

You are going to read a magazine article about an author.

For questions 1-8, choose the correct answer A, B, C, D. Mark your answers on the answer sheet. (There is only one possible answer.)

'A good book for children should simply be a good book in its own right.' These are the words of Mollie Hunter, a well-known author of books for youngsters. Born and bred near Edinburgh, Mollie has devoted her talents to writing primarily for young people. She strongly believes that there is always and should always be a wider audience for any good book whatever its main market. In Mollie's opinion it is essential to make full use of language and she enjoys telling a story, which is what every writer should be doing. 'If you aren't telling a story, you're a very dead writer indeed,' she says.

With the main job of a writer being to entertain, Mollie is really an entertainer. 'I have this great love of not only the meaning of language but of the music of language,' she says. This love goes back to early childhood. 'I have told stories all my life. I had a school teacher who used to ask us what we would like to be when we grew up and, because my family always had dogs, and I was very good at controlling them, I said I wanted to work with dogs, and the teacher always said "Nonsense, Mollie dear, you will be a writer." So finally I thought that this woman must have something, since she was such a good teacher - and I decided when I was nine that I would be a writer.'

This childhood plan is described in her novel, *A Sound of Chariots*, which although is written in the third person is clearly autobiographical and gives a picture both of Mollie's motivation and her struggle towards its achievement.

Thoughts of her childhood brought thoughts of the time when her home was still a village with buttercup meadows and strawberry fields - sadly now covered with modern houses. 'I was once taken back to see it and I felt that somebody have lain dirty hands all over my childhood. I'll never go back,' she said. 'Never.'

To this day, Mollie has a lively friendship to children, which is reflected in the love she has for her writing. 'When we have visitors with children the adults always say, "If you go to visit Mollie, she'll spend more time for the children." They don't understand that children are much more interesting friends. I have heard all that the adults have to say before. The children have something new.'

Read the text below and choose the correct word for each space. For each question, mark the correct letter A, B, C or D on your answer sheet. (There is only one possible answer.)

Deep Sleep

Deep sleep is important for everyone. The actual (6).....of sleep you need depends (7).....your age. A young child (8).....to sleep ten to twelve hours, and a teenager about nine hours. Adults differ a lot in their sleeping (9)..... For most of them, seven to eight hours a night is (10)....., but some sleep longer, while others manage with only four hours.

For a good night, having a comfortable (11).....to sleep is very important. Also, there should be (12)..... of fresh air in then room. A warm drink sometimes helps people to sleep, (13)..... it is not a good idea to drink coffee immediately before going to bed.

(14).....you have to travel a very long distance, try to go to bed earlier than usual the day before the (15)..... This will help you to feel more rested when you arrive.

Part B. Specific English

Read the following text and choose the correct answer A, B, C or D for questions 18-23 on your answer sheet. (There is only one possible answer.)

Pure and Applied Science

Science is one of the greatest achievements of mankind. It was born in the gradual collection of knowledge about nature and has been developed by thousands of different scientists. Each scientist has added more knowledge to build on the knowledge of the past, and many scientists have developed theories, concepts and classifications in order to organize that knowledge. Thus, science is a cumulative body of organized knowledge about the natural world.

There are two main branches of science: pure and applied. The goal of pure science is to discover the relationships which exist among the objects and events in the universe. In trying to explain natural phenomena, the pure scientist develops theories, which are then tested by means of observation and experiment. When they are sufficiently validated, these theories become the principles of science. In other words, the goal of a pure scientist is to find out the laws of nature. What he learns may later turn out to be useful. But his goal is only knowledge, not usefulness. In biology, for instance, discovering the life cycle of a rare species of insect is an example of the work of pure science.

Applied science, on the other hand, has a different goal even though it uses the same method as pure science. The goal of applied science is to apply the laws of pure science to the practical problems of life. An applied scientist is interested in the usefulness of his knowledge. Determining which stage of an insect's life cycle causes the most damage to crops is an example of the work of an applied scientist of agriculture.

Read the passage below and answer the questions 24-30 on your answer sheet. (There is only one possible answer.)

Cereals as a Main Food Source

Cereals are the support of life to civilization. Around 70 percent of the world's harvested acreage of about thousand million hectares is devoted to growing cereals. They are the direct source of much additional food when converted to meat, milk, eggs, and other animal products.

The true cereals are all members of the grass family, the Gramineae. The fruit they produce is a grain called caryopsis, a type of fruit in which the ovary wall turns hard and durable, combining with the single seed. The major cereal crops are rice, wheat, maize, barley, rye, various millets, and a few other species.

There are a number of reasons why cereals have become man's main source of food. Most of them are yearly, or are at least adapted to cultivation as once-a-year, permitting facility in cropping. Like other grasses, cereals adapt well to a variety of soils, climates, and ways of controlling. They are also relatively efficient in gathering the sun's energy, changing it into usable food substance. In addition, they are generally strong and are not plagued by unusually large numbers of diseases and pests. Above all, the grain is a small package of stored energy, properly harvested, easily cleaned and managed, and suitably stored without need for artificial drying.

Rice, wheat and corn are the world's three major cereals, all about equally important in terms of world production. Rice is the main source of substance for tropical populations; it is grown mostly on flood plains or where the land can be seasonally covered with still water. Wheat is mainly grown on lands that were naturally prairies, too harsh, cold, and windy for maize. Maize is a crop that grows best with ample warmth and moisture; it is widely used as a summer year-long in areas where general farming is practiced.

APPENDIX C POST-TEST

Name:

Major:

Date:

Time: 35 Min

Part A. General English

Read the text and questions below. For each question, mark the correct letter A, B, C or D on your answer sheet. (There is only one possible answer.)

Ainsley Harriott

I have always been a bit of an entertainer and played a funny man. I was a part-time comedian for years, so I learned how to stand in front of audiences. It made me sure of myself. I like being liked and I love making everyone smile.

I've lived in London all my life and have just moved to a larger house with my wife Clare and our two children Jimmy and Madeleine. We spend a lot of time just singing and dancing around the house. I grew up with music because my dad is the pianist, Chester Harriott, who is still playing, by the way. My working day is divided between television and writing cook books, though TV takes most of my time. I spend about five days a fortnight working on the cooking programmes I appear in. I eat all sorts of things at home but I only buy quality food. When I'm cooking, I experiment with whatever in the fridge - it's good practice for my TV series.

I'm a football fan and enjoy going to matches, but I'm a home-loving person really. I don't like going to the pub but we do go out to eat about twice a month. There's nothing better than a night at home playing with the children. I rarely go to bed before midnight. Late evening is when fresh thoughts on cooking usually come to me, so I often write or plan my programme then. When I eventually get to bed, I have no trouble sleeping.

Part B. Specific English

Read the following text and choose the correct answer A, B, C or D for questions 16-30 on your answer sheet. (There is only one possible answer.)

Energy from the sun

Energy is defined as the ability or capacity to do work. Nearly all the energy used by man is derived from the sun, either directly or indirectly, in the form of heat rays or light rays.

Solar energy provides the light and warmth necessary for all animal and plant life upon the earth. The sun's light is essential in the process of photosynthesis, in which chlorophyll-bearing cells transform radiant energy from the sun into the chemical energy of carbohydrates. These carbohydrates serve as the basic substance in the food materials of plants and also the animals which consume plants.

The light and heat energy derived from fuel also comes indirectly from the sun. Coal was made by the pressure of rocks on vegetation which died millions of years ago. That vegetation grew with the aid of sunlight, from which carbohydrates were formed. Petroleum is another form of stored solar energy. Plants, together with the animals which fed on them, died millions of years ago, and their remains were pressed under the rocks in the earth. These dead animal and vegetable remains formed petroleum, from which gasoline and oil are now obtained.

Electrical energy is also obtained indirectly from solar energy; for example, it can be derived from the power of water falling down a mountainside. The sun's heat first causes water to evaporate from the surface of the earth. This water vapor rises, condenses on cooling, and falls upon mountains in the form of rain or snow, which later flows down the mountainsides in rivers. The electrical energy generated by windmills is also derived from the sun because all winds result from the uneven heating of different parts of the earth's surface by the sun.

Thus, it can be said that the sun is the source of nearly all our energy and that in the absence of the sun's heat and light, no life could exist on the earth.¹⁹¹

Read the passage below and answer the questions 21-25 on your answer sheet. (There is only one possible answer.)

Plant diseases

Crop plants are subject to many diseases that can reduce production and quality. The study of plant diseases-that is, the science of plant pathology- includes some insufficiency diseases caused by an imbalance in plant nutrients; most plant diseases are, however, caused by micro-organisms which live as parasites on plant hosts. A parasite which is the casual factor of a disease is called a pathogen.

The three main groups of microscopic plant pathogens are fungi, bacteria, and viruses.

Fungi. Fungi are the pathogens that cause the most damage to the greatest number of crops. Fungal infection spreads quickly from one host plant to another mainly by means of spores, which are the reproductive elements in fungi and which are comparable to the seeds in flowering plants. Vast numbers of tiny spores are produced by fungi and are spread by means of wind, water, and insects. Most parasitic fungi go directly into plant tissue to obtain their food.

Common fungal diseases resulting in large crop losses are various types of blights on crops such as potatoes and various types of smuts and rusts on crops such as cereals.

Bacteria. Pathogenic bacteria enter plants only through natural openings, such as stomata, or through open wounds. Once inside the plant, they reproduce very rapidly. Insects are an important factor in the sending of bacterial disease, including various blights on fruit trees.

Viruses. Although many non-parasitic species of fungi and bacteria are known to exist, all known viruses are parasitic on plant or animal hosts. Viruses are commonly sent by insects, especially aphids; they usually enter plants through wounds caused by insect feeding or other means. Viral disease called mosaics which may infect potatoes or other crops, are characterized by a spotted pattern of yellow and green areas on plant leaves. Many viral diseases, however, are difficult to distinguish because they affect the plant in a general way by mild growing or yellowing and a reduced production.

APPENDIX D KWL CHART

Name: Date:
Topic:

What I Know	What I Want to Know	What I Learned

Extracted from: <http://www.eduplace.com/graphicorganizer/pdf/kwl.pdf>

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A Probe into the Profile of Tom Sawyer in *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer*

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Abstract—*The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* is one of the Mark Twain's magnum opuses, who was an outstanding representative of critical realism literature in the late 19th century in America. From the perspective of a naughty child Tom Sawyer, he ruthlessly castigated and ridiculed the boring life, the ridiculous hypocrisy and the backward and deformed education system in the south area of America in the 1850s and 1860s. The rebellious image of Tom Sawyer achieved something in common with the critical tendency in this work. This paper firstly expounds the relationship between the changes of the outlooks on children and the historical development of the image of naughty children from the angle of outlooks on children. Then some theoretical issues concerned with naughty children are discussed from the perspective of naughty children and playing spirit. Finally, the significance of Tom Sawyer who was created as a naughty child is explored.

Index Terms—Tom Sawyer, naughty children, theoretical study

I. INTRODUCTION

Naughty children have become one of the important themes in world children literature with its special charm. Naughty children are depicted from the aspect of children themselves and are usually free from any restraints, which are filled with naive fantasy and indulgency. Works of naughty children are most appealing to young readers and have a strong spiritual impact on adults, who are usually restricted by various rules and social norms. Works of naughty children are truly created from the perspective of children themselves.

From Tom Sawyer in *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* to Huckleberry Finn in *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, from Peter Pan in *Peter Pan* to Nicolas in *Le Petit Nicolas*, from Pippi in *Pippi Longstocking* to Emil in *Emil Lönneberga*, a group of elves are brought to the world. On the one hand, they are full of vitality, challenging the existing social norms and education system without any scruples. On the other hand, they are brave and kind-hearted, full of sense of justice. They create a new life and a new world that are filled with vibrant passion and vigor. Children love them and long to become Hercules or adventurers, catching thieves, taking adventures and playing truant. They are little heroes in kids' eyes. They are naughty children.

The love of and interest in naughty children has become the greatest motivation of my further research. The initial worry is it lacks new ideas, but my supervisor encourages me and gives me generous help in the structure of my paper. Later in the phase of opening report, the subject is also approved by other professors, which provides me with great motivation and confidence.

II. CHAPTER 1 EXPLORING THE BACKGROUND OF "NAUGHTY CHILDREN" LITERATURE--THE CHANGES OF CHILDREN VIEW

From Tom Sawyer in *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* to Huckleberry Finn in *The Adventures of Huckleberry Finn*, from Peter Pan in *Peter Pan* to Nicolas in *Le Petit Nicolas*, from Pippi in *Pippi Longstocking* to Emil in *Emil Lönneberga*, a group of elves are brought to the world. On the one hand, they are full of vitality, challenging the existing social norms and education system without any scruples. On the other hand, they are brave and kind-hearted, full of sense of justice. They created a new life and a new world that are filled with vibrant passion and vigor. Children love them, longing to become Hercules or adventurers, catching thieves, taking adventures and playing truant. They are little heroes in kids' eyes. They are naughty children.

In the history of British and American children's literature, there are two opposite trends in children's literature writing. The *Britannica Concise Encyclopedia* categorized them into two major types: one type's purpose is self-improvement or knowledge accumulation, and the way of writing is realistic and rational; the other's purpose is entertainment and edifying, the way of writing is imaginative. The former emphasizes the education value of children's literature and the latter focuses on inspiring and satisfying children's nature of imagination. The former can be regarded education-oriented and the latter children-centered, so the first type tends to take education as the ultimate purpose of children's literature writing and the style is didactic, while the second type takes children as the center of writing, valuing their life appeal. In education-oriented literature, most of the protagonists are obedient and disciplined, behaving like a grown-up. However, in children-centered literature, most of the heroes are naughty and rebellious (Yi Lexiang, 2007). From the respect of literature history, naughty children did not exist in children literature from the very

beginning. This theme has undergone historical development.

The Puritans in Britain in Middle Ages believed that the nature of human is evil and children are born sinful, so any nature of children needs to be restrained and children should be educated and lessoned. This wrong and ignorant view is still accepted in the 19th century. For example, psychologist Sigmund Freud in the 19th century thought that children are “a warehouse storing all kinds of instincts and desires”, they are “full of seething lusts” and “the inner self of a child is evil”. For people holding didacticism and education doctrine, naughty children who are full of “seething instincts and desires” and “the seeds of blind impulse” are undoubtedly very dangerous so they need to be reformed. Only the obedient good children who are educated and grow up with adults’ dominant supervision will become ideal successors of the future society. The results of this kind of education and reforming will be just as Rousseau (1978) pointed out, “they will lead to some premature fruits which are neither plump nor sweet, and will soon rot. They will become young doctors and senile children”.

The Renaissance in the 16th century eulogizes human value and dignity. This enlightened new outlook of life gave the view of “children are born sinful” a heavy blow. In the 17th century the western capitalist society entered a rational Age of Enlightenment. British educator John Locke proposed famous “theory of blank slate” in his book *Some Thoughts Concerning Education*. He believed that children’s spiritual world is a white slate when born into the world, which gave a further heavy blow to the “original sin theory”. French Enlightenment thinker Rousseau in the 18th century pointed out: “we regard it as indisputable truth, that is, the initial impulse of human’s nature has been always correct, because there is no innate evil in human mind. We can figure out how and from where an evil enters people’s minds.” Rousseau believed that children have naturally endowed impulse since born and this impulse is not evil. He advocated natural educating, acknowledging the independent value when children are at their childhood period. Rousseau is hailed as the first person of “reading children”. In the 19th century, famous educators such as Froebel also expressed similar viewpoints. German educator Froebel used to appeal: “Mother, develop children’s ability of playing games. Father, defend and guide children’s games”. He also advocated educating children in a natural way. Influenced and guided by this progressive view of children, the education-oriented view in European children literature gradually declined from the early 19th century to the 1870s. In the 20th century, American educator John Dewey put forward children-centered view in a more clear way. He compared students as sun, suggesting teachers turning around students and education being conducted on the basis of following children’s natural instincts. It is in the 20th century that “naughty children” literature began to emerge in large numbers.

It can be seen, naughty children literature is closely related with the children view in that age. Knowing, understanding, appreciating and praising children’s naughty nature is entirely different from the view of repressing and destroying children’s naughty nature. The former is a progressive and modern view of children, but what are reflected from the latter is deep-rooted disdain, ignorance and diaphragm to children’s values and inner world. The flourishing of naughty children literature in the 20th century is an essential reflection of the rise of the modern view of children.

III. CHAPTER 2 EXPLORING THE NAUGHTY CHILDREN CULTURE: SOME THEORETICAL ISSUES RELATED WITH NAUGHTY CHILDREN

A. *Wild Growing: The Naughty Children in My Eyes*

“Let children grow like wild flowers” –Bing Xin

“When children are too young to cause damage, we should follow his natural instinct and allow them to live a life that the barbaric ancestors lived in the far ancient time in their imaginary realms.”— [United Kingdom] Bertrand Russell

The ancient and modern philosophers, educators and psychologists home and abroad brought a lively and wild child image in front of us. For instance, French Enlightenment thinker Jean-Jacques Rousseau in the 18th century pointed out that “children are not evil or ignorant, instead, they are perfect forms representing human potential”. In the 20th century Italian preschool educator Maria Montessori believed that a child had “instincts of creation, active potential and he can construct a spiritual world based on his environment”. It is the “children’s secrets” that were found by him. In the Ming Dynasty in China, Wang Yangming considered that “the natural instincts of children were preferring playing to being restrained”. And Lu Xun wrote that “a child is adorable, he may think of the space out of the star and the moon, the underground situations, the usage of flowers, the languages of insects, flying to the sky and diving into the ants’ nest...” In a word, one of the core characteristics of children culture is their naughty nature, which coexists with children. The spiritual features of naughty children are as follows: vibrant, energetic, enjoying themselves to their hearts’ content

The games of children are spontaneous and free. Naughty children are children who are fond of playing. Children grow up healthy and strong day after day in the games. Their abilities to think, to act and to coordinate the hands and the eyes gradually develop. They grow up little by little in their life of playing games and get to know themselves and the world.

- Curiosity, being fond of taking risks and craving for knowledge

Naughty children have their own philosophy. They are full of sense of freshness, curiosity and confusion towards this world. In terms of naughty children’s natural instincts, they are probers who are filled with the spirit of exploring and they are the discoverers of the world.

- Having sense of justice, being sympathetic and against injustice

Naughty children who are seemingly trouble-makers are actually full of real sense of justice and are sympathetic to and concerned with others.

- Resisting the existing rules made by schools, society even families

The essence is their courage to break the existing unreasonable rules and establish a new world. Naughty children are the rebels. Various rules and pressures from families, schools and societies such as what must be done, what must not be done, no fighting noisily, being polite and behaving themselves often greatly oppress naughty children. But the free imagination and creativity in the natural instincts of naughty children always try to break away from this restraint, wanting to pursue their own sky in their childhood. They do not want to become obedient premature children under the wings of adults. They long to be naughty in a justified way.

- Having their own judgments, being courageous enough to face problems and solve them, actively exploring and thinking about the outside world

"Experience is not to undergo some things statically. Its motivation is endless curiosity. By virtue of fearless courage, its process is to interfere the orders of external things personally, observe if the results are different from the original expectation and then to interfere and observe again until coming up with concrete conclusions or further setting up new rules. That is how scientists create and invent, and also how sages live their life. But it is children who most practice this in-depth experience by themselves fearlessly and endlessly". (Huang Wuxiong, 2009, p66)

Vibrant and energetic naughty children like experiencing and exploring the world and themselves by themselves. But it is castigated by some adults as mischievous, disobedient, naughty and trouble-makers, which is a great misunderstanding. With the vital bodies of development, naughty children need to experience and explore the world by themselves. When we really understand the true features of human being, the pattern and process of children's growing up and the natural instincts of children's courage to experience life, we will treat the so-called naughtiness and mischief of naughty children with open and tolerant minds.

A paragraph in Taiwan writer Huang Wuxiong's book *Childhood and Liberty* may provide reasonable explanations to the rationality of naughty children's spiritual features: "The true features of human being is the need to grow up and develop and the primitive creativity to meet the need. There is neither Kant nor Chomsky, neither good nor wickedness. Everything is waiting for developing and everything is for developing. All things on earth are developed and human beings are developed too. The relationship between human beings and all things on earth is developed and so is the relationship between people. There is no inherent good or evil, nor innate wisdom or fool. Each individual child is endowed with invaluable creativity which is waiting for growing up and being developed. These specialties facilitate the boundlessly vital and continuous interactions between human beings and all things on earth, and between people and people. By discerning situational characteristics, experiencing fearlessly and endlessly, closely observing and interacting with everything on the world, people get to know themselves and the world and further develop the world and themselves. These are the true features of human being. Humanistic education should return to these simple natures, save and exert the original creative natures of children so that children could enter the human society with a high degree of autonomy to transmute critical intelligence and vitality which are full of creativity into human civilization."⁶ Naughty children are vital bodies for development. The shortcomings such as "loving playing, being naughty, obedient, making trouble" etc. are nothing but a part of the developing process, which are the most natural for naughty children and have nothing to do with good or evil. Only by developing autonomously, can naughty children grow naturally and independently in this period and get to know and develop themselves and the world.

To sum up, the author believes that the spiritual features of "naughty children" have essentially reflected the spiritual philosophy of children, which are inherent and a natural release and indulgency of children's disposition. It is a reflection of the original vitality and creativity had by children and has essentially reflected the life and spiritual features of children. The most prominent feature of children is to break the social norms set by adults with their creativity and to reverse the existing traditional daily life rules in order to actively and independently pursue their dreamed life ideals and establish their own spiritual world that is rich in individualities. This kind of growing will facilitate individuals to grow healthy and strong spiritually and become optimistic, confident, imaginative, creative and independent persons so that they can march towards the future world with light-hearted attitudes, carefree courage and generous confidence when faced with difficulties in their life.

B. *Naughty Children Children Loving Playing: Naughty Children and Playing Spirit*

Games are children's entire life. Games are pure life and life is pure games. Games have become the focus of naughty children's life when they are in a period that is the closest to nature and the most carefree stage of life.

- Playing spirit is to let kids play. When one year old children just learned to walk, they would walk around the room or even circle around, and then smile. They would take out the TV remote control carefully from the basket and give it to you, and then take it away from you and put it back into the basket. They would drag the small stool just bought by mum and constantly walk back and forth in the room without feeling tired, and they are very attentive to their walking, just like a porter's serious attitude to his work. When 3-year-old children play in the park, they would use the little forklift bought by mums to shovel sands into it, and then pour out the sands from the forklift and begin another round. When adults accompanying them feel so bored about it, they still enjoy themselves. Children would also like to throw

the tumbler on the ground once and again to see if it would fall down finally. Children would lie on their stomach to blow the frog folded by paper time and time again to see how far they can blow it. Even when children are old enough to go to school, they still enjoy playing at their will without any restraint. They prefer playing at school and after school. The best thing for them is to have holidays every day. Playing is their entire life. In their spiritual world, playing is what they are supposed to do and what children are willing to do. Perhaps it is human being's instinct, that is everything originates from playing games.

Children grow up every day robustly while playing games. Children's abilities to think, to act and to coordinate hands and eyes are slowly developing. They grow up day after day while playing games, getting to know themselves and this world. The only requirement of the world for them is to play games to their hearts' content. This may be a bestowment given to human beings by God, which allows human beings to play as much as they like in their childhood. The significance of games for children is just "Game is a kind of development activity executed by an individual to spontaneously exploit their own potential. It is the externalization of subconscious activities of the individuals who are in the detached state. Life is active; children spontaneously assume the job to explore their innate resources when there is no any external pressure, external or utilitarian purpose—this is game."⁷ Naughty children love playing, enjoy playing; they play in a naive and unrestricted way. In a great degree, naughty children are children who are fond of playing. Letting go of children to play is undoubtedly more in favor of the growing-up of children.

IV. CONCLUSION: FOREVER TOM SAWYER

Two types of outlooks on children are present ever since the ancient times: one is to look down children and consider them as innocent. So they must be educated and listen to adults unconditionally. The other is to admit the independent value of children. So they are allowed to grow up in their own spiritual world. It is our responsibility to know and discover children. Only with this children view can we become people who respect, cherish and even admire children. In their eyes, children are explorers, dreamers and adventures. Children can not be counted as children without games, curiosity, dreams, which are the entire life of children. Naughty children are the truest children. Every child has the period of naughtiness in their childhood.

Russel believes that reality is important, so are dreams. As long as children are materially content, they discover that dreams are funnier than reality. In their dreams, children have the authority of a king, while in reality, he has to obey many rules, such as going to bed on time, etc. Dreams are the liberation of children. Dreams help children freed from the restraints in reality. Naughty children bring their dreams into full play. Naughty children break away from the restraints of reality with their actions and show the freedom and imagination in their childhood life. On the behalf of naughty children, we should protect their dreams and encourage them to develop their dreams, so we will receive surprising results.

The paper is written from the children view. Children are seeds of vitality and they are works of nature. The growth of children can not be free from adults' education. But what is the nature of education? To accept their natural instincts and encourages their free development with individuality or to interfere with their growth and ask for agreement between adults and children. In fact, most adults follow the latter way of education. They assume that children should be disciplined strictly so they won't cause any so-called troubles. Naughty children are not welcome in their eyes. This is the reflection of "adult-centered" education. On the contrary, the paper is based on "children-centered" education. It welcomes the naughty children with admiration and appreciation. The whole essay discusses the connotations of naughty children and some theoretical aspects of naughty children, and then moves onto the emphasis of children view in the works of the *Adventures of Tom Sawyer* written by Mark Twain.

Mark Twain created the positive character of Tom Sawyer and his friends with love and care. Tom is growing up, who is naughty, plays tricks, but at the same time is generous and helpful. He hates the boring doctrine in Church, dislikes the uninteresting life at school. He hopes to become a pirate and leads a fresh exciting life. He stands out at the critical moment and behaves with a sense of justice, which is totally different from the cowardly good children. He is bored with the boring life in his family and at school, so he goes on adventures with his friends and decides to become leaders of pirates. His colorful life has won the envy of countless readers, who makes other boys whitewash for him with his wit and takes his friends on adventures. In this classical work, the liveliness of children is in sharp contrast against the boring old life. Huck is another image of naughty children, who never goes to school but owns a brave heart. The typical image of Tom is embodied with not only the historic value but also a reflection of the progressive children view.

Undoubtedly, naughty children are acceptable to our present social mainstream. As far as childhood is concerned, the existence of naughty children is reasonable.

In the preface to this book Mark Twain wrote that "Although this book is an entertainment reading mainly for boys and girls, I hope it will also be popular with adult men and women. Because one of my purposes of writing this book is to try hard to help adults happily recall their childhood life, their feelings, ideas, conversations and absurd things sometimes done by them." It can be said that *The Adventures of Tom Sawyer* is not only an excellent children novel, but also a prominent adult novel. The image of Tom Sawyer as a little American country naughty boy is loved by children and adults all over the world. His dynamic and natural vitality arouse resonance from children. Mark Twain presented his own childhood life with such a classic image and also expressed children's aspirations. He is on children's side, and

he is just a person who on the one hand has not grown up and is full of innocence and on the other hand keeps being critical to the reality.

Innocence forever seeks for dynamic and natural power of life and it will forever like Tom Sawyer, such a true image of naughty children. There are thousands of Tom Sawyers in the world. In each of our childhood, we are eager to take adventures, play tricks and become pirates with him. In this sense, Tom Sawyer is forever.

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Analysis of the Myths, Photographs and Laws in *China Men*

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Abstract—The presentation of myths, photographs and laws in *China Men*, thematically related to Chinese American immigration stories, is an important strategy to reconstruct Chinese American history. By citing photographs and presenting law, Kingston reclaims her male ancestors' past and subverts the monologue of American official history. By rewriting myths, Kingston exposes the dilemma of Chinese Americans and deconstructs a series of American myths such as the myth of America as a melting pot, the myth of Gold Mountain, the myth of freedom and democracy; these myths provide a way for Kingston to write Chinese Americans into American history.

Index Terms—*China Men*, rewriting myths, citing photographs, presenting law, deconstruct western grand narrative, reconstruct Chinese American mythic history

I. INTRODUCTION

Maxine Hong Kingston is one of the most successful Chinese American writers. Up to now, Kingston has published four works of fiction and non-fiction, namely, *The Woman Warrior* (1976), *China Men* (1980), and *Tripmaster Monkey: His Fake Book* (1989), *The Fifth Book of Peace* (2003), plus a collection of prose, *Hawaii One Summer* (1978). *The Woman Warrior* tells of a second-generation girl's groping for a viable female identity as a Chinese American in the late 1960s. The book was a great success, and in 1976 won the National Book Critics Circle Award for the best nonfiction. *China Men*, a companion piece to *The Woman Warrior*, has males in Kingston's family as the chief characters. While her first book honors the women of Kingston's family, *China Men* celebrates the lives and accomplishments of the males in her family. Again her literary talents were lauded. On its release, the book was immediately named to the American Library Association's Notable Books List, and won the National Book Award for nonfiction.

China Men is composed of six distinct but related principal stories about the men in Kingston's family. "The Father from China" is the story about Kingston's BaBa (father), in which Kingston tries to imagine the essential events of her father's life in China from his auspicious birth and through his education, to his emigration to the Gold Mountain. "The Great Grandfather of the Sandalwood Mountain" is about the adventures of Bak Gong (great grandfather) on the Hawaiian sugar cane plantation as a contract worker. "The Grandfather of the Sierra Nevada Mountain" tells of the heroic story of Ah Gong (grandfather) during the construction of the First Transcontinental Railroad. "The Making of More Americans" deals with identity problem facing Chinese Americans. Father returns in "The American Father" as a new American with a house and business after years of struggle. The book ends with "The Brother in Vietnam". This is a section devoted to the American-born generations who joined the American army and won the solid position for their family in America.

One typical structural feature of *China Men* is the juxtaposition of stories with vignettes. Each principal story about the males in Kingston's family is framed with one or two vignettes, which cover short tales, myths, fragments of law, and news reports. These vignettes, varying in length, origin, and theme, are ingeniously arranged. However, their function was once ignored or misinterpreted by some critics who criticized that these myths were so arbitrarily adapted that they totally lost their true features and made readers confused and annoyed, or that they were loose episodes, having no thematic cohesiveness with the historical narratives. But recently, the myths and historical facts in the book have aroused increasing interest of many critics. Robert G. Lee points out that "for Kingston, myths necessarily rebuilt, have a strategic value in helping to analyze contemporary events. She recognizes that the power of myth resides in its capacity to be recontextualized and inscribed with new meanings" (Lee, 1991, p. 59). Yuan Yuan states that myths in *China Men* "function as a semiotic empowerment in the process of identity formation" (Yuan, 1999, p. 292). Gao Yan, by approaching the myths from the perspective of the biographical stories of the Hong family, rearranges them into four themes in relation to the main stories, namely, racial oppression, claiming the land, breaking silence, and cultural displacement (Gao, 1996, p. 53-95).

The author of this thesis agrees with these critics' viewpoints, and from the perspective of history-writing, to the author's mind, the myths, laws and photographs which run parallel to the family stories thematically reinforce and

complement the stories, are indispensable parts of creating Chinese American history. Based on the previous studies, the author of this thesis tries to analyze the myths, laws and photographs in *China Men*, and reveals how Kingston reconstructs Chinese American history through re-reading facts and rewriting myths.

II. RE-READING FACTS

A. Presenting Laws

Besides retelling the heroic stories of her male ancestors through her memory and imagination, Kingston throughout *China Men* furnishes many factual materials which include laws, photographs and newspaper reports. These factual materials, combined with the family stories, pose a challenge to the authenticity and authority of mainstream American history.

After recounting grandfather Ah Goong's stories, and right in the middle of the book, Kingston with little comment inserts a chapter titled "The Laws", which takes the form of a chronicle and enumerates the various U. S. regulations and laws discriminating against Chinese Americans from the Burlingame Treaty of 1868 to the immigration law of 1978. Being baldly substantial documentary material, this chapter is criticized by some to be anomalous with the variegated narrative in the rest of the book. However, it is recognized and praised by such critics as King-Kok Cheung, Donald Goellnicht, and Shan Dexin. The author of this thesis agrees with those critics who think that this chapter serves well the form and content of the book. Firstly, this chapter is inserted by the author to instruct American people who are ignorant of the Chinese American history and content to read her texts from the vantage point of Orientalism. As Kingston states:

The mainstream culture doesn't know the history of Chinese Americans, which has been written well. The ignorance makes a tension for me, and in the new book [*China Men*] I just couldn't take it anymore. So all of a sudden, right in the middle of the stories, plunk—there is an eight-page section of pure history. It starts with the Gold Rush and goes right through the various exclusion acts, year by year. (Kim, 1982, p. XVII)

Secondly, this chapter provides the general American reading public with a brief chronicle of oppression against which the heroic deeds of the idealized fathers can be judged. Quite different from immigration histories of other minorities, early Chinese American history was inseparable from American laws. Discriminatory laws had accompanied the whole immigration process of Chinese Americans and manifested as its distinctive features. Therefore, Kingston's recounting these laws is of special significance to deal with Chinese American history. By presenting her ancestors' stories against American discriminatory laws, Kingston not only exposes the harsh political environments under which Chinese Americans were forced to labor for more than a century, but makes her historical stories more resonant and real. As Cheung points out, "Kingston's sketches of China Men in the Hawaiian fields and on the railroads may not be 'factual', but they are surely truer than the reductive images inscribed in the merciless canons" (Cheung, 1993, p.118).

Thirdly, this chapter embodies the climax of racism and the domineering voices that Kingston's talk-story seeks to confound. As Foucault notes in *Power/Knowledge*, "Law [is] the principal mode of representation of power" (Foucault, 1980, p. 141), and the widespread national racism against the Chinese will inevitably lead to and ultimately be enforced by laws. Thus Kingston's representation of the laws is a straightforward, and forceful way of exposing the America's discrimination against Chinese Americans.

Finally, the style of the chapter and its location in the book helps reinforce the theme of the book. As Goellnicht states, "The Laws" is ironic in three senses. First, the irony surfaces from the facts themselves, as in the juxtaposition: "The United States and the Emperor of China cordially recognize the inherent and inalienable right of man to change his home and allegiance[but] 1868, the year of the Burlingame Treaty, was the year 40,000 Chinese ancestry were Driven Out" (p.152). "Though the Chinese were filling and leveeing the San Joaquin Delta for thirteen cents a square yard, building the richest agricultural land in the world, they were prohibited from owning land or real estate"(p.153). Secondly, the narrative of this chapter carries an ironic undertone by "imitating the monological voice of authorizing history" and by "uncover[ing] both the dullness of this voice and its deafness to other, competing voices, those of the minorities suffering legalized discrimination"(Goellnicht,1992,p.196). Thirdly, there is irony in the position of this chapter. "It occupies the middle of the book, a centric position that would appear to be one of (legalized) authority, yet this centric authority of American laws is subverted and contested by 'eccentric' or marginal, but richly imaginative stories of China Men that surrounds it" (p.197). Goellnicht illustrates that the stories of China Men, surrounding this chapter, do not strengthen the monological and monotonous authoritative discourse, but subvert it.

Thus the above analysis shows that, in both style and content, the law in this chapter furnishes an essential strategy to rewrite Chinese American history.

B. Citing Photographs

In addition to presenting the laws, Kingston also resorts to photographs as a strategy to reclaim her male ancestors' past and to challenge the status of official history.

Traditionally, the photograph has been seen in western culture as a representation of nature, an unmediated transcription of reality into film. Just as Trinh T. Minh stated, "The tyranny of the camera goes unchallenged" (Zackodnik, 1997, p. 55). This notion of photography as veracity endows the photos with the capacity to prove, to either present factual evidence or stand as a fact itself. Because of the supposed truth value, the photograph is often used to

bestow authenticity upon prevailing ideologies to prove the monolithic narrative of conventional history. However, the capacity of photograph as a piece of factual evidence is interpretive because “what the photograph communicates arises only from the meaning we ascribe to it. Meaning does not inhere in the photograph itself” (p.55). That means that, rather than presenting an evidential and singular truth, the silence of a photograph invites a plurality of meanings and speculations, depending on how or who interpret it. That is what Susan Sontag described as a “polylogue” (p.56). Perhaps it is this dualistic aspects of the photograph that has attracted Kingston to employ photograph as a narrative in *China Men*.

As a complement to the historical stories coming from the author’s memory, some photographs in *China Men* prove the truth of these stories and the factual existence of these (fore) fathers as Americans. When Kingston’s father was working as a laundryman in New York, he sent many pictures back to his wife from time to time. In a spring picture, father and his partners wore expensive clothes, laughing and standing next to a Keep Off the Grass sign. In a winter picture, he sat on a rock in Central Park in his grey coat and jaunty hat and leather gloves lined with rabbit fur (p.67). Father also had several snapshots taken when he was standing by motorcycle, or in a ferryboat on their weekend outings.

Though these photographs are taken, to some extent, to flaunt father’s material success in America, and can not be regarded as a true reflection of his American life, one thing is certain: they do confirm that father has appropriated America as part of his reality, and his existence in America, his sweating in the laundry is a truth that cannot be denied.

Besides father, other sojourner forefathers never forgot to envelop “a yearly picture taken at the photo studio,” (p.106) when sending their wages home. These yearly photographs document both the passage of time and their presence in Hawaii or Sierra Nevada Mountain.

While employing photographs to present her family history, Kingston exposes the American authority’s abuse of photographs to cover Chinese American history. The railroad photograph is one good example. When the railroad was completed, China Men did cheer with the white. They acted like mad men, throwing their hats in the air, jumping up and down, and screaming Yippee like cowboys. Yet, when the white demons posed for photographs to commemorate the Greatest Feat in the history of mankind, “The China Men dispersed. It was dangerous to stay. The Driving Out had begun. Ah Goong does not appear in railroad photographs” (p.145). Instead of recording fact, the historical message given in this photograph is misleading. It shows that the whites were the sole builders of the railroad, whereas its true makers, the Chinese workers, were expelled from the camera’s gaze. Similar idea finds expression in the photograph of Bak Goong and his New Year dragon. To celebrate his New Year in Hawaii, Bak Goong built the best and highly praised New Year dragon in his life and had his picture taken inside the dragon. However, splendid as the dragon could be, Bak Goong, the maker of the dragon, was disappropriately minimized and became unrecognizable in the picture. This scene vividly reveals that Chinese Americans who, like Bak Goong, had devoted the best part of their lives to the building of the most splendid and greatly admired railroad dragon in America, are purposefully excluded from the mainstream American history. The official abuse of photo is an echo of Foucault’s notion that photograph, as a body of knowledge about history, is the result of the interplay of various forces or discourses.

JanMohamed, a post-colonial critic, commented that, “archival work, as a form of counter-memory is essential to the critical articulation of minority discourse” (Jan- Mohamed, 1990, p.6). Thus Kingston’s presentation of the laws and the photographs concerning Chinese Americans is of special significance in subverting the monologue of American official history and in reconstructing Chinese American history.

III. REWRITING MYTHS

The preceding part demonstrates Kingston’s strategies of reconstructing Chinese American history through re-reading facts. In this sense, the act of re-reading is an act of righting as well as empowering. In this part, my focus is on another strategy—rewriting myths. Rewriting myths which runs parallel to the historical narrative function to expose the dilemma of Chinese Americans as well as re/deconstruct myths.

A. Exposing the Dilemma of Chinese Americans

On several occasions Kingston points out that William Carlos Williams’ *In the American Grain* (1925) is a great inspiration for her to treat Chinese American history mythically. *In the American Grain* is a series of meditations on American history and explorations of myths that shape the history. In this book, Williams takes a daring step of identifying the Icelandic sagas as integral components of the American literary tradition, as well as the early texts in American history. By expanding the American narrative, Williams creates a space for the inclusion of the submerged groups whose stories have been excluded from Anglo-centric histories of America. Greatly influenced by Williams’ daring act, Kingston states, “I wanted to do American history in that same way, especially for *China Men*, and I was so lucky because he ended at the Civil War and I pick up at the Civil War when the Chinese Americans came, and I showed how the Chinese made the bands of steel, which is a railroad, and they banded the country back together again. This is the way I want to think about American history, about history, in that mythic, true way” (Bonetti, 1998, p.39). With *China Men* as the continuation of Williams’ mythic narrative, Kingston does add her version of America’s origin, which overlaps the arrival of the first Chinese immigrants with the Civil War (*In the American Grain* ends in 1860 with the Civil War), therefore incorporating the stories of her immigrant ancestor’s courage, suffering, and hard work into the

grand narrative of America.

The book begins with "On Discovery", a myth taken from the Chinese novel, *Flowers in the Mirror* by Li Ruzhen (1763-1830) of the Qing Dynasty. In this opening episode, the protagonist, Tang Ao, crossed the ocean and came upon the Land of Women, when he was looking for the Gold Mountain. There, Tang Ao was captured and forced to endure all the tortures that were usually done to ancient Chinese women by men: two women sat on him while another pierced his earlobes, and threatened to sew his lips to silence him when he cried for pain. They bound his feet, plunked his facial hair, painted his lips and cheeks, and fed him on some food that could shine his hairs and improve his womb. What's more, after transformed into an Oriental courtesan, Tang Ao was summoned to serve the empress of the land (p.2). The myth concludes as follows: "Some scholars say that the country [the Land of Women] was discovered during the reign of Empress Wu (A. D.694-705), and some say earlier than that A.D. 441, and it was in North America" (p.2).

Since Kingston associates the Land of Women with North America, critics familiar with Chinese American history will readily see that the ignominy suffered by Tang Ao in a foreign land symbolizes the multiple castration of China Men by the dominant American culture. Just as Tang Ao was deprived of his masculinity, metaphorically feminized, Chinese Americans were sexually castrated in the New World. Deprived of the right to marry white women or reunite with their wives, these early sojourners, confined in the bachelor society of various Chinatowns, were obsessed with sexual stress and lovesickness. As feminized Tang Ao was forced to wash his foot-binding bandages which looks like women's underwear, and serve meals at the queen's court, emasculation of China Men also comes in the form of menial occupation and enforced invisibility. The contributions of the early Chinese immigrants who built railroads, mined gold, and cultivated plantation, long went unrecognized. Furthermore, because white workers could not brook Chinese competitors, after the completion of the railroad, these Chinese laborers were compelled to work as house servants, restaurant waiters, or laundrymen. Edged into such demeaning jobs traditionally done by women in old China, China Men were ridiculed or exploited for their involuntary occupational "femininity". Besides sexual and occupational emasculation, Chinese Americans were linguistically castrated. As Tang Ao was forced into silence, the Chinese in America were in a state of being silenced. To survive the adversity, they had to endure the imposed silence, as in BaBa's case, or externally imposed silence by the whip of white overseers, as in the case of Bak Goong. This deprivation of language was virtually an affront to their manhood as well as their cultural identity. In a word, Tang Ao's traumatic experience intimates the embarrassed situation of Chinese Americans in the latter half the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century at the mythic level.

The theme of silence and silence-breaking is still mythically treated in two vignettes, "On Mortality" and "On Mortality Again", which are juxtaposed with stories of Bak Goong and Ah Goong. In the former myth, a man named Tu Tzu-Chun is offered immortality by a Taoist monk if he can pass the test of remaining silent when he faces with various illusions. Tu succeeds in refraining from speech until the last test when he is reincarnated as a mute woman and watches her husband dash her baby against the wall to provoke her silence. In spite of Tu's ability to endure sorrow, fear, joy, and torture, his failure to overcome love leads to mortality of the human race. Similar story recurs in "On Mortality Again". Maui, the Trickster in Polynesian mythology seeks to steal Hina's heart that will bestow immortality on human beings. Before he enters the body of Hina, he instructs animals around to keep silent. However, when he almost succeeds in taking the heart out, a bird catches sight of his legs wiggling out of her vagina and bursts into laughter. The laughter wakes Hina who kills Maui by shutting herself.

The two myths convey two seemingly paradoxical themes: to break silence leads to death or to keep silent is the most painful experience for human beings. Considering Kingston's insistence on the necessity of silence-breaking, a reader may easily recognize that Kingston means the latter. What she wants to express here is that the rule of silence is so cruel that to follow it means to choose death. Therefore, to break silence and claim one's voice is of vital importance for people to live soundly. This theme echoes the stories of Bak Goong and Ah Goong who strive to break the rule of silence not only themselves but also for all the Chinese workers, not only in literal sense but also in metaphorical way. In a word, by equating silence with death, Kingston exposes the inhumanity of hegemonic discourse which suppresses the voices of Chinese Americans, and reiterates the necessity of breaking silence at the mythical level.

Kingston also explores the immigrants' embarrassed identity in "The Li Sao: An Elegy". Taken from Qu Yuan's story in classical Chinese literature, this myth reflects the immigrants' embarrassed situation between two cultures that deny them: their poignant efforts to search for home and identity, and their helpless and sensitive inner world. QuYuan was a poet and loyal minister in the Warring States of ancient China. He advised the King of Chu not to wage a war against the Kingdom of Qin, but the king listened to the slander from the warmongers. As a result, Qu Yuan lost the favor of the king and was banished to the border area of the Center. After roaming in the remote area for twenty years, he finally became disillusioned, and drowned himself in the Miluo River (in Hunan Province).

Kingston vividly represents Qu Yuan's emotional dilemma when he would neither return to his home nor stay in any place he traveled to. "He sang poems wherever he went, haggard and poor, always homesick, roving from place to place... No home anywhere. He saw the entire world, but not his homeland... The distance between him and home grew farther each day" (p.257). So he complained, "My old wife has gone to a stranger district, wind and snow separate us... Birds fly back to last year's nest; foxes face the hill to die, but I cannot go home... Time runs like water and takes my youth... I am the phoenix dispossessed." (p.257-258) Qu Yuan expressed his perplexity in a long poem and presented it to the soothsayers, but got no answer. Instead, he was questioned by the Witch of Future, "Why do you

want just one country?" Realizing that "he was an orphan who traveled everywhere because one place was denied him", and "escape and return were equally impossible"(p.258), Qu Yuan killed himself.

This myth mirrors the awkward situation of many Chinese Americans like BaBa. Emigrating at their early ages, and cherishing a hope of assimilating into the "melting pot", these Chinese immigrants adopted American way of life, and were not willing to go back. However, as a colored people, the process of assimilation into white society was far more complex and difficult than that of Qu Yuan, because their adopted country never considered them as equal. Instead, it tried to suffocate or marginalize them in every possible ways. Edged into such a predicament, Chinese immigrants, like Qu Yuan, became orphans spiritually. In this sense, "The Li Sao: An Elegy", which explores the predicament and problematic identity of the exile, is a song of diaspora of the Chinese Americans.

Therefore, corresponding to but transcending the historical level, these myths create a universal note of alienation for Chinese Americans.

B. *Re/Deconstructing Myths*

Running parallel to dealing with the dilemma of Chinese Americans, the myth in *China Men* has another function—deconstructing American myths and reconstructing Chinese American myths.

Compared with other nations which have long history and ancient mythology, America as a new nation has no mythology in the strict sense. However, since its foundation, America has been fabricating various myths of her own. For instance, the myth of democracy and equality, the myth of the melting pot, the myth of self-made Alger, the Gold Mountain myth, the Western Frontier myth and the like. Over the past two centuries, due to the dissemination of various mass media, these myths have been rooted in the minds of American people, and become part of the American culture.

Myths do play an important role in the cultural life of America. Particularly during the early period, the development and construction of the New World was indebted to these myths which encouraged and attracted thousands of pioneering souls over the world. However, American myths are not always inspiring and enlightening. There are some myths which turn out to be deceptive, misleading, or even dangerous. Attracted by these negative myths, many non-white immigrants have found that the harsh reality is quite different from these dazzling myths, because one of the durable myths of the American society—the myth of white's superiority over the colored ones—justifies the various laws to exploit and discriminate the non-white. Compared with large numbers of heroic myths about the white in American culture, Chinese American, despite their great contributions, is a minority group without myths, heroes and history. Enraged by the act of erasing Chinese Americans from American myth, Kingston, taking up her pen as a weapon, strenuously retorts these negative myths and attempts to carve a place for her ancestors in the American mytho-history. By assigning ideological meaning to the history of early Chinese Americans, Kingston makes the American fathers mythic figures and incarnation of heroic ideals and qualities. By demystifying the American myth, especially the myth of Gold Mountain for immigrants, Kingston attempts to empower Chinese Americans and make them the pioneers of America.

"On Discovery" is a metaphor of Chinese Americans' subjugated experience in America. However, to read this myth as just a reflection of their embarrassed situation alone is to obscure its significance. Kingston's real intention is to re/deconstruct a series of myths.

Firstly, by situating the adventure in North America and specifically designating the date when Tang Ao arrived in North America, Kingston deconstructs the myth that the land was discovered by the white, and suggests that the land could have been discovered by a brave Chinese more than five centuries before the Icelandic voyagers conjured by Williams.

Secondly, this myth challenges the authenticity of the Gold Mountain myth. Before Tang Ao was captured, he never sensed the imminent danger of being transformed into a woman for he was "not on guard against ladies"(p.3). Instead, he was charmed with the beautiful land and ladies. Like Tang Ao who was seduced by the Gold Mountain myth, large numbers of Chinese traveled across the ocean in the hope of scooping up free gold, having no presentiment of the danger before finding themselves caught in a stifling situation.

The seductiveness of the Gold Mountain myth is reinforced again in "The Ghostmate", a Chinese fable in which a young man pampered by a gorgeous widow eventually discovers this lover a succubus. The Gold Mountain myth is embodied in this myth in many aspects. The beautiful lady dressed in the old style indicates the deceptive charm of American dream. Her beautiful house with abundant riches symbolizes the fantasy of America as a country with piles of gold for immigrants. Her promises to the young man—"I can give you wishes...I can give you time to study, money to buy gold thread and rare glazes...Tell me about your work, and I can show you how to improve it and make lots of money" (p.77-78)—are highly suggestive of America as a Promised Land, a land of freedom and hope. And finally, when the young man decides to leave, he tells the lady that he has already done the most elegant work in his life and has given her his best pieces of art. This indicates that American dream, like the fancy love, can never last long. And Chinese immigrants, like the young man, being exploited, having contributed their youth to America, had to confront the disillusionment of their Gold Mountain dream.

In *China Men*, contrasted with the young man's adventure, Kingston provides a version of Baba's story in America. BaBa was lured to America by the stories of the Gold Mountain, which were retold and relished in his family:

"On the Gold Mountain, a man eats enough meat at one meal to feed a family for a month", said great grandfather. "Yes, slabs of meal." The hungrier the family got, the bigger the stories, the more real the meat and the

gold...“American—a peaceful country, a free country.” America. The Gold Mountain. The Beautiful Nation. (p.42)

But quite different from the young man in “The Ghostmate” who is offered sumptuous meal, comfortable lodgings, love, promises of wealth, and above all, singular raw materials for his craft, BaBa and his fellow laundrymen’s life in America was just a sort of Spartan existence. They gulped their food in “four-and-a half-minutes” before returning to work (p.60), made “the ironing tables into beds”(p.63), and lived for a long while without women. Unlike the young man who can fulfill his artistic and sexual desires, BaBa was frustrated on both counts. Instead of practicing calligraphy, he did bookkeeping for the laundry. When asking the blonde dancer to come home with him with his stammering English, he was politely yet firmly rejected. “No, honey.” “No” (p.66). Thus from both mythical level and historical level, Kingston deconstructs the alluring Gold Mountain myth.

Kingston returns to the myth that China Men are the pioneers of the New World in “The Adventures of Lo Bun Sun,” a myth adapted from Defoe’s *Robinson Crusoe* (1719). In Kingston’s version, “The Adventures of Lo Bun Sun” is depicted as a “book from Chinese about a sailor named Lo Bun Sun” (p.224). And Robinson, the typical colonizer and pioneer in western culture, is naturalized by Kingston to be a mythic Chinese American figure, which can be seen from the multiplicity of meaning in his name:

Lo Bun Sun worked. He was never idle, never lazy. He farmed the land. There is drudgery in his name: *Lo* is “toil”, what one does even when unsupervised; he works faithfully, not cheating. *Lo* means “naked”, man “the naked animal,” and *Lo* also sounds like the word for “mule,” a toiling animal, a toiling sexless animal. *Bun* is the uncle who went to China to work on a commune. And *sun* in like “body” and also “son” in English and “grandson” in Chinese. Sun as in “new.” Lo Bun Sun was a mule and toiling man, naked and toiling body, alone, son and grandson, himself all the generations. (p.226)

The identity demystification makes it clear that Lo Bun Sun is a typical Chinese American who, being called coolie, is destined to toil and sweat all his life. Living in a bachelor society as a result of the laws depriving him of opportunity to approach women, he is relegated as a sexless mule.

Then Kingston tells the adventures of Lo Bun Sun in the Chinese American context. Just like Kingston’s pioneering (fore)fathers who as “ocean people” knew the immensity of the world and could hear “the sirens Odysseus heard,” Lo Bun Sun has “a calling to go to sea” (p.87, 225). After the shipwreck, Lo Bun Sun rescues rice, barley, wheat, flour, clothes, ink, pens, paper, guns pistols, hatches, ax, saw, tobacco and the like from the ship. Abundant as the store is, Lo Bun Sun does not loaf and tan himself on the beach, nor does he rap or play. Instead, he begins farming the land. In his spare time, he writes diary, makes tofu, bean sauce, bread, shapes pots, tames parrots and creates new Four Valuable Things when the old ones are used up. Later, he rescues a captive from a group of savages, names him Sing Kay Ng, Friday in Cantonese accent, and teaches him to read and write. Finally, with nearly thirty years of toiling, he cultivates the land, grows crops, builds his house, and raises a herd of birds. “He was king of his own island” (p.229).

The adventure of Lo Bun Sun in an alien island mirrors early Chinese Americans’ cultivating the American wilderness and building the American West. After years of backbreaking labor, Bak Goong and other Chinese workers not only hacked a farm out of the wilderness, but also became “the first human beings to dig into the part of the island and see the meat and bones of the real earth” (p.100). Bak Goong is explicitly compared to be the prince of the land in Kingston’s description: “One day, like a Knight rescuing a princess, Bak Goong broke through the thicket” (p.100). Ah Goong, on the other hand, possessed the land and made himself the father of the American west by felling trees, cutting tunnels, and “fucking the world”. Just as Lo Bun Sun replaces Robinson and becomes the master of the land, in the case of Bak Goong and Ah Goong, the servant-empress relationship between America and China Men is reversed. Instead of being compelled to serve the domineering empress, these Tang Aos were cast as American western pioneers.

Thus by refashioning the myth of western archetype of colonizer into a Chinese Lo Bun Sun myth, Kingston mythologizes the history of Chinese American, and makes it a part of the American pioneering mythology.

The myth of America as a cultural melting pot is challenged in “The Li Sao: An Elegy”, for this myth constitutes a sharp contrast to the cultural myth of America as a melting pot for the immigrants. America likes to boast herself as symbols of racial tolerance and melting pot. The concepts they advocate—the Statue of Liberty, liberty and justice for all—all beckon to immigrants from other parts of the world. But unlike Caucasian immigrants, Chinese were permanent aliens in America. This proves that while faith in the American dream and possibilities of realizing it are widespread, it is not universal. To those of the “superior race”, America appears to be the Promised Land and a Utopian paradise, but immigrants of the “inferior race” must have felt disillusionment and despair as their notions of melting pot and the land of freedom clash with reality. Thus by presenting the misery of Chinese diaspora, Kingston challenges the authenticity of the myth of America as a cultural melting pot.

In a word, myth-rewriting is of great significance to the history-writing in *China Men*. By adapting and transforming myths of various origins, Kingston deconstructs the popular American myths, such as the Gold Mountain myth, Western Frontier myth, and myth of America as a melting pot, and meanwhile reconstructs myth of China Men as the pioneers of the country and builders of the Gold Mountain. Moreover, by exploring the predicament of Chinese Americans at the mythic level, Kingston aggrandizes the themes and characters of the historical narrative.

Thus through these radical means, Kingston reconstructs her version of Chinese American history. However, it is worth mentioning that Kingston’s narrative does not partake of a struggle for truth, but interrogates the status of truth, or what defines and creates truth. Her purpose of creating an alternate history which exists and contradicts the dominant

American history is to attest to the latter's failure as an all-powerful monologue.

"The Wild Man of the Green Swamp" is an example in point. In this episode, Kingston gives her alternate interpretation of an official report on a wild Chinese man. The newspaper describes a Chinese man living in the swamp as an unkempt and uncivilized wild man. But from the photography in the newspaper Kingston sees a vulnerable man who did not look insane. Kingston's interpretation presents another truth for the wild man, which renders the official appraisal dubious. What she does here is not to assert that she is absolutely right, but by creating multiple versions, she hints that no one truth is absolute or all encompassing. Therefore, in this way Kingston challenges the traditional notion of American history and official document as an absolute authority, and demands that history should be rethought, refocused, and represented.

Kingston thus concludes the book appropriately with the section "On Listening", in which the narrator, as a good listener and story-teller, emphasizes the importance of heterogeneity as well as listening. At a party she is told diverse stories about her Chinese ancestor's quest for the Gold Mountain, set variously in the Philippines, Mexico, and Spain. Kingston let these heterogeneous versions coexist and form a dialogue between each other, because, in her opinion, heterogeneity does necessarily constitute a subversion of authority. After presenting multiple versions of stories, Kingston closes the book with the sentence: "Good. Now I could watch the young men who listen" (p.308). In this sentence, Kingston puts her faith in the young men who listen to her stories, and sees if they have benefited from fabulation as she herself gives up trying to establish the facts of any particular version. Kingston's implication is that the young men should know the importance of listening, and only by learning to listen to different dialogical voices can they have their own history and identity.

In many interviews, Kingston stresses that she is writing not just to her family, to her Chinese American community, but to the broader culture, to "Americans in general", to people living today and in the future. This is well illuminated in *China Men*. Really, Kingston in this book not only just "re-reads the past", but by the very act of telling, attempts to "reshape the future." She hopes that the young generations of ethnic minority in America, empowered by the ability to articulate their past, can learn to establish their identity and culture, and the young generations of Anglo-America, acquiring the knowledge of other ethnic minorities by listening, can learn to respect other ethnic minorities and their histories. As Huntley notes, "*China Men* thus concludes with a vision of a new America" (Huntley, 1998, p.153).

IV. CONCLUSION

In addition to recounting her family saga as a counter-memory, Kingston also employs re-reading facts, and rewriting myths as strategies to reconstruct history. The archival works such as discriminatory law, photography, newspaper reports form an essential part of counter-memory and challenge the authority and authenticity of mainstream American history. Whereas the myths not only help Kingston find a way to write her ancestors into American history, but also augment and elevate the existing history to the mythic level. Moreover, by depicting those brave Chinese souls as American pioneers, Kingston writes Chinese Americans into the American Frontier mythology, and deconstructs a series of American myth such as the Gold Mountain myth, the myth of America as a melting pot. Therefore, in her efforts to write Chinese Americans back into the history of America, Kingston subverts the notion of a seemingly seamless factual history, untouched by either mythology or particularity, and exposes the mythological roots of Anglo-America history by putting its claim to objectivity and truth into jeopardy.

Thus by interweaving personal and national events, fantasy and facts, talk-story and myth, Kingston presents another version of Chinese American history to expose the bigotry of history monopolized by the dominant American culture. Kingston's version does not intend to finalize the truth of history, but to exhibit the various aspects of history, so that it can demystify the authority of monologic history, and carve a place for Chinese Americans in American history.

Kingston's courage to reclaim the silenced history in this radical way inspires other Chinese American writers to join in this struggle. In 1991, Frank Chin's *Donald Duk* and Shawn Wong's *Homebase* were published. These works unearth the buried history, modify the still-functioning stereotypes about the Chinese, form an indispensable part of Chinese Americans' struggle for power, and promote a Chinese American culture. Kingston's contribution also lies in her encouraging other minority writers to write their past and fight for equality. And their joint efforts constitute the whole scene of righting the world and empowering the minority group. Therefore, with more writers joining this struggle, we are justified to believe that the future of Chinese Americans will become better.

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From Frequency to Instructional Order: Insights from a Narrow-angle Corpus of Psychology RA Introductions

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Abstract—For various reasons, ESP/EAP is credited with a good record of corpus-based inquiry. Among many different units in the body of language as a quantifiable pool, vocabulary can be an essential category for corpus-based studies. This study cuts across findings that deal with specialized or academic vocabulary, and presents a frequency-based set of lexical words derived from a narrow-angled corpus of psychology RA introductions. For the purpose of the study, 200 research article introductions in psychology were examined for their frequency obtaining 20 high frequency lexical words. Subsequently, the sentential contexts where each high frequency word occurred were put together and examined for difficulty. This provided an empirical basis for the instructional order of vocabulary items regarding the difficulty of the context in which each high frequency lexical word occurred. Findings from the study can cast light on which lexical words and with which instructional order can be instructed to meet the pedagogic needs of learners in ESP/EAP contexts.

Index Terms—corpus, ESP/EAP, frequency, instructional order, psychology RAs

I. INTRODUCTION

Academic writing, as influenced by the sweeping developments in science and technology, is now turning into "a great challenge for non-native speakers of English (NNSs) to participate actively in the international discourse community." (Chang and Kuo, 2011, p. 222)

Such a demand, "in the 'publish-or-perish' academic culture" (ibid, p.222), has stimulated a growing interest in literature to characterize EAP texts as realizations of the academic discourse in their related international discourse community. Down to its barebones, such a discourse is assumed to be initially concerned with scholarly lexical choices. Since an outstanding (if not to say a distinguishing) feature of ESP/EAP "is a heavy load of corresponding specialized vocabulary" (Chujo & Utiyama, 2006, p. 256), vocabulary instruction can take on a central importance as one of primary instructional goals.

On the other hand, in our daily lives, we may encounter a large amount of words or linguistic patterns in various written texts that we have to interact with, especially those which are academically essential for the reasons stated above. Texts, among other things, are quantitative realizations of linguistics choices, and in being so, they are representative of the dominant patterns of use. Therefore, instructional and/or pedagogical approaches to language (and EAP in particular) can be expected to benefit from a time efficient way of exploring some of the essential patterns of texts (as realizations of discourse) in a given field (see Reppen, 2010).

Corpus linguistics is, in effect, the very field to address the issues of time efficient explorations in texts. Corpus linguistics is involved the collection and analysis of large amounts of naturally occurring spoken or written data in electronic format, "selected according to external criteria to represent, as far as possible, a language or language variety as a source of linguistic research" (Sinclair, 2004, p. 16). According to McCarthy and O'Keefe (2003), the real emergence of corpus linguistics started with the revolution of computer in the 1980s and 1990s. In fact, earlier corpora were not computerized. These earlier corpora were called pre-electronic corpora. Kennedy (1998, p.13) noted that "[c]orpus-based research that occurred before the 1960s is generally categorized as pre electronic and consisted of work in five main areas: biblical and literary studies, lexicography, dialect studies, language education studies and grammatical studies". Such research was often carefully carried out, using index cards and human effort to calculate frequencies by counting.

Although the roots of corpus linguistics can go further back, the real appearance came with the access to machine readable texts which could be stored, transported, and analyzed electronically. Computer corpora are analyzed with the help of software packages such as concordance (Scott, 2004), which includes a number of text-handling tools to support

quantitative and qualitative textual data analysis. As stated by Kenedy (1998), before the 1960s, the analysis of huge bodies of text 'by hand' can be burdensome and is not easily replicable. So, computers became an important tool for linguists to be less dependent upon computational expertise. Kennedy adds that corpus linguistics is closely linked to computer by unbelievable speed, total accountability, accurate replicability and the ability to handle huge amount of data. In a similar line of argument, Gavioli (2005) emphasizes the potential relevance of corpus linguistics for language teaching adding that pedagogy attempts to reduce the time that would be necessary to learn a language through a) exposure alone, and b) potential usefulness and likelihood of occurrence.

Corpus-based research as perhaps a unique approach to ESP/EAP text characterization in terms of lexical content can bear implications for instructional purposes (see Flowerdew, 2002). Such a trend of research typifies a) a large body of authentic materials, b) data-driven, probabilistic models, c) automatic or semi-automatic text analysis, and d) contextualized language use (Chang and Kuo, 2011, p. 223). Research and the needs of various sorts have prompted the development of different types of corpora according to (Pearson, 1998):

a) Specialized corpus: Specialized corpora is devised with more specific research goals in mind and focuses on a particular spoken or written variety of language. A kind of specialized corpus that is important for language teachers is learner's corpus.

b) General corpus/reference: Such as the Brown Corpus, the LOB Corpus, general corpus aims to represent language in its broadest sense and to serve as a available resource for baseline or comparative studies of general linguistic features. General corpora are designed to be quite large. A general corpus is intended to be balanced and include language samples from a wide range of registers or genres.

c) Multilingual Corpus: A corpus that contains texts in more than one language is a multilingual corpus. An example is the Enabling Minority Language Engineering (EMILLE) corpus.

d) Parallel Corpus: A parallel corpus consists of two or more corpora that have been sampled in the same way from different languages. The prototypical parallel corpus consists of the same documents in a number of languages that is a set of texts and their translations. Since official documents (technical manuals, government information leaflets, parliamentary proceedings etc.) are frequently translated, these types of text are often found in parallel corpora.

e) Learner Corpus: A learner corpus consists of language output produced by learners of a language. Most learner corpora consist of written essays using pre-set topics produced in language-teaching classrooms.

f) Diachronic Corpus: A diachronic corpus is a corpus that has been carefully built in order to be representative of a language or language variety over a particular period of time, so that it is possible for researchers to track linguistic changes within it.

g) Dynamic/Monitor Corpus: A dynamic corpus is one which is continually growing over time, as opposed to a static corpus, which does not change in size once it has been built. Dynamic corpora are useful in that they provide the means to monitor language change over time – for this reason they are sometimes referred to as monitor corpora.

A. *Corpus and Vocabulary*

The levels of information that can be gathered from a corpus range from simple word lists to categories of different complex grammatical structures. Analyses can explore individual lexical and linguistic features or identify clusters of features in and across the texts that characterize particular register (Biber, 1988). Schmitt (2002) states that the basic information to be obtained from a corpus, is the information about the frequency of occurrence. A word list is simply a list of all the words that occur in the corpus, a collection of which can be arranged in alphabetic or frequency order (from most frequent to least frequent). Word lists derived from corpora can be useful for vocabulary instruction and test development.

A majority of corpus work has provided the criteria to generate 'specialized word lists' specified to particular genres (Sinclair, 1996). With regard to the large number of vocabulary items in a language, researchers have produced word lists of the recurrent vocabulary in academic texts to maximize the effectiveness of vocabulary instruction. These lists are thought to provide the vocabulary necessary to function in academic contexts (see Coxhead, 2010 for example). According to Chen & Ge (2007), words in academic writing can be divided into four categories:

a) high-frequency words, which those basic English words that constitute the majority of colloquial conversation or speech as well as all the running words in all types of writing. Language learners/users have plenty of chances to get exposed to these words.

b) Technical words, which are the ones used in a specialized field, considerably different from subject to subject.

c) Low-frequency words that are the rarely used terms.

d) Academic words, which are somewhere in between the high-frequency words and technical words and have some important functions and account for a relatively high proportion of running words in all academic texts; and acquiring these words seems to be essential when learners are preparing for English for Academic Purposes (EAP).

B. *Findings on Corpus-based Works*

Corpora have been used in EAP since the 1980s, mainly for research, but a growing number of researchers and practitioners have been advocating the use of corpora in EAP pedagogy. More recently, however, corpus tools and corpus evidence have not only been used as a basis for linguistic research, but also in the teaching and learning of languages. Fundamentally, corpus linguistics has had a strong link with language teaching. John Sinclair's impact on

dictionary making and his pioneering work on corpus research (Sinclair 1987, 1991, 2004) have been the starting point for many corpus-based approaches to language teaching. Coxhead (2000) noted that vocabulary has been a major area of corpus-based research into academic language. Lam (2001) observed that academic or semi-technical vocabulary demonstrated semantic distinctions when occurring in general texts. Her recommendation was that such lexical terms should be presented as a glossary of academic vocabulary with information of frequency of occurrences based on a specialized corpus.

In spite of a wide range of uses for the corpora, the right quality and type of the corpus has been the subject of argumentation. Todd (2003), for instance, made a strong case in the literature for the use of specialized corpora in ESP settings (typically using much smaller corpora than those compiled for general reference purposes, such as the BNC). Tribble (2010, p.15) observed, “if one wishes to investigate the lexis of a particular content domain (e.g., health) a specialist micro-corpus can often be much more useful than a much larger general corpus.” Similarly, Hafner & Candlin (2007) suggested that specialized corpora created for a particular purpose are better suited to understanding characteristic lexical and grammatical features of academic or professional discourse than general reference corpora.

On the other hand, there are arguments against usefulness of the academic word list (AWL). Hyland (2002, 2006) highlighted the complexities involved in the intricate distinctions in the communication patterns across disciplines, rhetorical patterns, and even intra-disciplinary conventions characterizing the dominant patterns of scientific argumentation (see e.g. Samraj, 2002). Martínez, Beck & Panza (2009) believe that

Despite this important coverage, the efficiency of the AWL as an instrument for the development of academic vocabulary in specific purpose courses has been questioned recently, as it has been demonstrated that the lexical differences that exist across distinct disciplines may be greater than the similarities (p. 184).

There is still another line of argument that doubts the efficacy of academic vocabulary. Chen & Ge, 2007, Hyland & Tse, 2007, and Paquot (2007) all question the usefulness of the Academic Word List in ESP on the grounds that the academic words are just too general and might be a source of overexposure for the learners who are expected to need more specialized vocabulary.

Other corpus-based studies have used various statistical measures to categorize collocations and word groups. Kennedy (2003) could identify most frequently occurring amplifiers (degree adverbs) in the British National Corpus (BNC). Nelson (2000) could identify business-related words regarding their occurrence and frequency in BNC. Rather than pre-labeling the words as general, academic or specialized, this methodology not only provides an open-ended supply of language data adapted to the learner's needs rather than simply a standard set of examples, but also promotes a learner-centered approach bringing flexibility of time and place and a discovery approach to learning (Krishnamurthy & Kosem, 2007).

Following the trend of studies in the literature, the present study addresses the issue of lexical words in psychology research articles regarding their frequency and a contextualized quantification of their difficulty level by concordancing tool. More specifically, the following research questions were posed:

R.Q. 1: What vocabulary items are typically used with a higher frequency in psychology research article introductions?

R.Q.2: Which sequential order of instruction can be derived from the psychology introduction corpus?

II. METHOD

A. Materials

Our corpus consisted of 200 articles introductions chosen randomly from among 400 psychology research articles using Science Direct and Oxford Journals data bases which were accessed through Central Library, University of Tabriz from December 2011 to September 2012. The articles had been published between the years 1998 to 2011.

B. Instrumentation

Concordancing tools are the key instruments for analyzing corpora. A concordance is a list of occurrences (all or a selected number) of a word or a phrase in a corpus. The concordancer generally lays these occurrences out on the page (or on the computer screen) by the search word or phrase in the middle and 40-50 characters of context on both sides of it. This layout is called KWIC (key word in context). In the KWIC format, a concordance highlights recurrent combinations of the key word (the search word) in the middle with words or expressions around it. Any concordancing software produces more or less the type of output to make statistical calculations (e.g. which words are most frequent in a corpus). The software that is used in this study is CONC330 which can makes wordlists and concordances from your electronic texts. The software used here (CONC330) has the following features: a) making wordlists, word frequency lists, and indexes, b) making full concordances to texts of any size, limited only by available disk space and memory, c) Make concordances straight from text, among many others.

C. Procedures

First of all, twenty top frequency lexical words were chosen for frequency and determining the instructional order. This number of lexical words as the focus of the study was because most EP teachers who were consulted agreed that

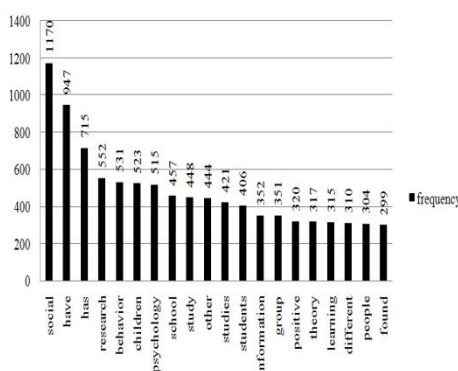
on average twenty words can be taught in one classroom session. Furthermore, practicality concerns especially with determining their context-based difficulty necessitated a maximum of 20 words to be examined.

For the second stage, all two-hundred introductions from their corresponding files were cut and pasted (pdf format) to Microsoft Word 2007 file. The resulting bulk was then fed into the software used in this study (CONC330) to detect and list the words in the ascending order of frequency. Function words were ignored and only twenty (content) lexical words were included in ascending order. Then, each of the twenty high frequency words (HFWs) was located in its corresponding sentence in the bulk. All sentences containing a particular high HFW were copied and pasted into a separate Microsoft Word file. Therefore, there were ultimately 20 files each containing bulks of sentential contexts corresponding to each high-frequency word.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

As far as the R.Q.1., i.e. “What vocabulary items are typically used with a higher frequency in psychology research article introductions?” is concerned, the following pattern of high frequency words could be obtained (see Table 4.1).

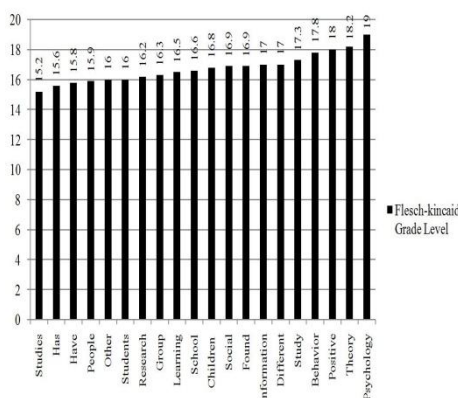
TABLE 4.1
TOP 20 HIGHEST FREQUENCY LEXICAL WORDS IN PSYCHOLOGY INTRODUCTIONS IN DESCENDING ORDER



As Table 4.1 illustrates, the word 'social' is the highest frequency word that occurs 1170 times in local corpus, and the word 'found' is the lowest frequency word occurring 299 times. In between are the words 'have' (945), 'has' (715), 'research' (522), 'behavior' (531), 'children' (523), 'psychology' (515), 'school' (457), 'study' (448), 'other' (444), 'studies' (421), 'students' (406), 'information' (352), 'group' (351), 'positive' (320), 'theory' (317), 'learning' (315), 'different' (310), and 'people' (314).

In order to answer the second research question, that is ‘Which sequential order of instruction can be derived from the psychology introduction corpus?’ each of the twenty words were located in the sentence. Then, all sentences carrying the word in question were put together making a bulk of sentential contexts for each word. So, there were 20 bulks for twenty high frequency words. The readability level of each bulk (as the aggregate of sentential contexts surrounding each word) was calculated. Readability values appear in Table 4.2.

TABLE 4.2
READABILITY VALUE OF THE AGGREGATES (IN ASCENDING ORDER) OF THE 20 HIGH FREQUENCY WORDS



As Table 4.2 illustrates, the word 'studies' has the lowest grade-level as indicated by the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level (15.2). It means that the word 'studies' has the easiest context to read. Conversely, the word 'psychology' has the

highest bulk readability level (19) indicating that it occurs in the most difficult context. Between the easiest and the most difficult context-related words these words occur respectively: 'has' (15.6), 'have' (15.8), 'people' (15.9), 'other' (16), 'students' (16), 'research' (16.2), 'learning' (16.5), 'school' (16.6), 'children' (16.8), 'social' (16.9), 'found' (16.9), 'information' (17), 'different' (17), 'study' (17.3), 'behavior' (17.8), 'positive' (18), and 'theory' (18.2).

IV. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

Findings on high frequency words provide us with a picture of lexical words that appear most frequently in the introduction sections of psychology RAs. Such a distribution, although apparently a mere count of words, gives us the clue that the seeming general words do have a certain frequency of occurrence in the psychology article introductions. The twenty high frequency words are all general lexical words that may appear in general texts as well. However, their very frequency distribution of each word is revealing enough since it characterizes the unique way in which ideas in this field (i.e. psychology) are communicated through the load of lexical elements. Therefore, the findings on frequency distribution are confirmed in broad terms by Coxhead (2000). Also, from a methodological point of view, this part of the study is well-supported by Hafner & Candlin (2007), and Tribble (2010) who defended the use of localized, field-specific micro-corpus. This study appears to corroborate the limited usefulness of academic word list as argued by Chen & Ge (2007), Hyland & Tse (2007), Martínez et al. (2009) and Paquot, (2007), and Krishnamurthy & Kosem (2007).

In terms of the quantification measures, this finding, although admittedly very simple regarding the mathematical approach, can be one type of studies alongside Kennedy (2003), and Nelson (2000). If one assumes that EAP learners would have to learn (and ultimately use) the word in its context, and the order of difficulty can best suit learners' 'easy-to-difficult' route, then the second finding can be seen as consistent with Krishnamurthy & Kosem (2007) who address the learner-centered aspects of corpus. To the best of author's knowledge, no similar study has ever addressed the issue of the instructional order.

The second finding of the study offers an empirical framework for determining the instructional order as derived from the bulk of sentential contexts for each high-frequency word. It can be argued that high frequency lexical words are expected to be instructed for the purpose of writing (if not to say for vocabulary learning). In order to do so, the instructor (EAP teacher) will be required to follow an order of presentation. Following this finding, such an order can be determined through presenting the word with an easier context first, and then continuing to teach those words that occur in more difficult (sentential) context.

In general, it can be claimed that dividing the words into general, academic, and specialized may not be a completely helpful classification at least when the learner is involved in the writing process. ESP/EAP texts may simply be so not necessarily because of their academic or specialized vocabulary content, but because the so-called general words have a certain (field-specific) pattern of frequency distribution.

Identifying the high-frequency words through corpus-based analysis is a time-efficient practice in line with the nature of ESP and EAP pedagogy. Besides, ordering the words from those in the easiest context to those in the most difficult context provides a psycholinguistically sound basis for instruction since it is believed that the learners would developmentally be ready for the easiest learning prior to tracing the learning path the most difficult. All these have clear implications for ESP/EAP teaching, assessment, and syllabus design where ordering, sequencing, and grading have been generic problems.

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Translation of Verbal Anaphora in *The Art of War*

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Abstract—As a key focus of modern linguistic and systematic functional research, discourse anaphora is one of the most important ways of textual cohesion which stresses the interaction between sentences in the text. Verbs are a key issue worth studying as Chinese is a verb-prominent language. One of the three books on the wars, *the Art of War* is a gem in the Chinese military heritage with profound ideas and meticulous logic. The verbal anaphora in the book is striking and unique besides the philosophical ideas and military strategy. Focusing on the verbal anaphora, this paper has a comparison and descriptive study on six authoritative versions of *The Art of War* through the analysis verbs in the book to summarize the translation strategies of verbal anaphora in classical Chinese.

Index Terms—verbal anaphora, repetition, zero anaphora, synonym anaphora, cohesion

I. INTRODUCTION

The Art of War, an ancient Chinese military treatise is impressive and influential with its profound ideas and brief language. Besides the superb military strategy and profound philosophical ideas, the verbal anaphora in the book is striking, which is an issue worth researching to convey the charm of the language to the western readers. Also known as reference or cataphora, anaphora focuses on the referring and the repetition of the antecedent. It has the cohesive function through which the clauses, sentences and paragraphs are interacted.

II. ANAPHOR AND VERBAL ANAPHORA

The term “anaphora” is derived from the Greek word ἀναφορά which means “carrying back”. In contemporary linguistics, it is commonly used to refer to a relation between two linguistic elements, wherein the interpretation of one (called an anaphora) is in some way determined by the interpretation of the other (called an antecedent). (Lust, 1986; Wasow, 1986) Anaphora is at the center of research on the interface between syntax, semantics, and pragmatics in linguistic theory (Huang Yan, 2004).

As a common linguistic phenomenon and an important way of textual coherence, anaphora is the co-reference of one expression with its antecedent such as a person, a thing, an action or feature. Each language has a complete and complex anaphora system to meet the need of communication. The study of anaphora in the discourse and the distribution is the kernel issue in linguistics.

Anaphora has long been regarded as one of the few “extremely good probes” (Chomsky, 1982, p. 23) in furthering our understanding of the nature of the human mind, and thus in facilitating an answer to what Chomsky (1981, 1995) considers to be the fundamental problem of linguistics. In his “Binding Theory”, Chomsky (1981) has emphasized the difference in syntactic distribution among three classes of expressions, which he calls “anaphors”, “pronominals”, and “R-expressions” (“referential expressions”) and proposes the government-binding theory. Horn (1985) and Levinson (1987) simplify the GB theory and proposes the Neo-Gricean theory which stresses the principle of economy in language. Levinson elaborates the concept of deixis and further categorizes them into person, time, place, discourse and social deixis. The non-deictic usage of the deictics is further subdivided by Levinson (1983) into anaphoric usage and non-anaphoric usage. Ariel (1990) suggests that zero anaphora and pronouns co-occurred with high accessibility of referents, whereas full lexical nouns signaled low accessibility of referents. Givón (1983) discusses the difference in referential forms and the distance of the anaphora and its antecedent from the accessibility of referent and divide different degrees of accessibility. Hoey (1991) replaces the anaphora with repetition which he terms as cohesive relation links and defines repetition into nine types varying from simple lexical repetition to omission with different weight. Halliday (1994) stresses the lexical cohesion of reference from the viewpoint of text and system function and states that the reference can be in a sentence or beyond the sentence and the passages. The study of anaphora is of great importance to the study of the intentionality, acceptability, situationality, informativity, cohesion, coherence and intertextuality of the textuality.

At present, many linguists have focused on zero anaphora, nominal anaphora and pronominal anaphora whereas the research on verbal anaphor has been rare. Chinese words can be divided into two kinds of notional words and the function ones with a purely grammatical purpose. As a key part of notional words, verbs in Chinese have stronger function of sentence-making and higher frequency than those in English which is a static language with more nouns and prepositions. They express an action, a behavior, a state of being or positive thought. The study on verbs has been a hot issue both in ancient and modern Chinese grammar as it is a verby or verb-prominent language (Liu Danqing, 2010). From classic Chinese to modern Chinese, many idioms and poems use verb anaphora to stress the connotation and

convey a rhythmic effect. For example, in *The Analects*, Confucius wrote “食不厌精，脍不厌细”，which means “He did not **dislike to have** his rice finely cleaned, **nor to have** his mince meat cut quite small”. (translated by Roger Ames) Sometimes, three verb anaphora can be found in a sentence, for example, a very famous sentence in *Social Wisdom*: “画人画虎难画骨，知人知面不知心。” **Painting** a tiger’s fur is easy, While **painting** its bones is hard. **Knowing** a person’s face is easy, while **knowing** his ideas is hard. (translated by Hu Xiaoyang)

Cornish (1986) proposes verbal anaphora and Chu (1998) suggests the co-reference relationship among verbs, adverbs, nouns and sentences. Huang Yan (2000) elaborates verb anaphora and categorizes verb anaphora into VP ellipsis, sluicing and stripping. The verbal anaphora in Chinese stresses the same verb, which is a reflection of the consistency, continuity and cohesion of the text. The information is intensified by the repetitious verbs in the gradation structure of the oriental spiral thinking. Taking *The Art of War* as the corpus, this paper focuses on the verbal anaphora to have an analysis and research of linguistic phenomenon.

III. THE ENGLISH VERSIONS OF *THE ART OF WAR*

Written by Sun Wu, a high-ranking military strategist, general and tactician in Pre-Qin dynasty, *The Art of war* lists the top among the seven military classics of China. Also known as *Military Science of Sun Wu* and *Military Science of Sun Tzu of Nation Wu*, it is labeled as one of the three military books in the world besides *On War* and *The Book of Five Rings*. It is widely acknowledged as one of the greatest classical books, which deals with warfare and has a profound influence upon the military education of American officers. Besides military fields, the book can provide wisdom and reference in many fields outside military such as diplomatic mediation, business management, medical treatment, sports and games and even office politics and corporate strategy. Therefore, it enjoys great reputation and has over 30 versions in English, Japanese, Russian and Finish etc.

The introduction of *The Art of War* in the western world began in 1772 by Jean Joseph Marie Amiot and its translation can be divided into three phases. In 1905, E. F. Calthrop first translated the book on the basis of *Thirteen Chapters* from Japanese into English. As the version is based on Japanese, there are lots of omission, blunders and translation mistakes. Lionel Giles re-translated the book in 1910 with faithful translation and detailed annotation. As a result, the Giles ground-breaking version is the most wildly spread version even after over 100 years.

During and after World War II, the editions by E. Machell-Cox and A. L. Sadler were not so satisfactory due to the limited conditions in war. In 1963, Dr. Samuel B. Griffith, an officer and commander translated the book into *Sun Tzu: The Art of War* on the basis of *The Collection of Ten Annotations of Sun Tzu* and the title has been spread from then on. As Griffith has a deep understanding of the military systems and weapons of ancient China, the version is accurate in military terms and has been reprinted many a time as another authoritative version.

In 1972, the bamboo slips of *The Art of War* were unearthed in Yinque Mountain, Linyi, Shandong province. More scholars participated in the translation of the classic, such as Yuan Shibin (1987), Lin Wusun(1999), and Gary Gagliardi(2003). Moreover, the versions of Thomas Cleary (1988) and Roger Ames (1993) focus on the Taoism and Confucian ideology and that of Ralph D. Sawyer (2005) has a detailed explanation of military strategy.

Many scholars have carried out a research on these English versions of *The Art of War*. Eric Colwell (2005) analyzes Dao, the critical Chinese concept in the book and compares the Chinese understanding of opposites or antonyms and how they interchange with one another. Chen Hong (2009) has an investigation into the lexicon of different English versions. He Jizong (2007) probes into the influences of Sunzi’s strategies over western culture through views from translation effectism. However, the research on the sentence structure of the book has been rare. This paper collects six versions of different ages such as Lionel Giles, Samuel B. Griffith, Yuan Shibin, Roger Ames, Thomas Cleary and Ralph D. Sawyer to study the verbal anaphora in classic Chinese by the comparative reading and quantitative analysis.

IV. THE VERBAL ANAPHORA IN *THE ART OF WAR*

The Art of War is composed of 13 chapters, each of which is dedicated to one aspect of warfare. It advocates “not fighting” and holds that the supreme excellence consists in breaking the enemy’s resistance without fighting (translated by Lionel Giles). Each chapter is independent yet interacts with the others in the coherent and integral whole. The first six chapters lay particular emphasis on strategies and the later six on tactics of Sun Tzu. The book is impressive with the profound insight, penetrating analysis and rigorous description with many rhetoric devices such as parallelism, antithesis, anadiplosis and metaphor. The sentence structures are varied in form with anaphora in many parts of speech. The high-frequency words and their numbers are as indicated in the following table:

TABLE 1.
HIGH-FREQUENCY WORDS AND THEIR NUMBER IN *THE ART OF WAR*

Verb	Know(知)	Fight(战)	Win(胜)	Have(有)	Can(能)	Say(曰)	Use(用)
Numbers	79	73	52	51	50	50	43
Noun	Soldier(兵)	Enemy(敌)	Army(军)	People(人)	General(将)	Land(地)	Victory(胜)
Numbers	69	65	59	46	36	30	29
Adjective	Far(远)	Advantageous(利)	Better(上)	Deep(深)	Few(寡)	Good(善)	Strong(强)
Numbers	12	12	11	10	10	9	9

From the above statistics, we can find the dominance of verbal anaphora such as know (79), fight (73), win (52) is much higher than the nouns such as soldier(69), army (59) and the adjectives such as far(12) and advantageous (12) etc. The verbal anaphora appears in all the chapters of the book, making the sentences orderly and rhythmic. With certain arrangement of ideas, the sentences structure is enhanced or parallel in the same sentence structure with the coherent information chain and strong rhythm, which increases the readability and expressiveness. The verbs are prominent in Chinese, however, the oriental thinking style is rather rare in English. If the translator copies the original structure, the translation will look wordy and overloaded; should the translator discard the original form, the Chinese feature would disappear in the English version. As a result, the translator takes three approaches in dealing with the verbal anaphora.

A. Repetition

The ancient classic Chinese are brief and concise with parataxis and cohesion by the content and the high-frequency words. Consequently, the verbal anaphora is rather common in Chinese. While the adoption of verbal anaphora in English is mostly for the purpose of rhetoric function and applied in literature, speech and advertisement. Take *The Grapes of Wrath* by John Steinbeck as an example: "The movement **changed them**; the highways, the camps along the road, the fear of hunger and the hunger itself, **changed them**. The children without dinner **changed them**, the endless moving **changed them**"(1983). It is impressive because the information focus is stressed through the repetition of the verb. In the case of foregrounding, the translator can keep the original structure in the translation to stress the information in the verb. For example, in the seventh chapter--Manoeuvring, there is a sentence with three verbal anaphora:

1. 是故军无辎重则亡, 无粮食则亡, 无委积则亡。(军争 第七)

Pinyin: Shigu jun wu zizhong **ze wang**, wu liangshi **ze wang**, wu weiji **ze wang**. (Chapter 7 Manoeuvring)

Version (1). An army without its baggage train **is lost**; without provisions it **is lost**; without bases of supply it **is lost**. (L. Giles)

Version (2). For this reason, if an army is without its equipment and stores, **it will perish**; if it is without provisions, **it will perish**; if it is without material support **it will perish**. (Roger Ames)

Version (3). Accordingly, if the army does not have baggage and heavy equipment **it will be lost**; if it does not have provisions **it will be lost**; if it does not have stores **it will be lost**. (Ralph D. Sawyer)

Version (4). We may take it then that an army without its baggage-train **is lost**; without provisions **it is lost**; without bases of supply **it is lost**. (Thomas Cleary)

Version (5). It follows that an army which lacks heavy equipment, fodder, food and stores **will be lost**. (Samuel B. Griffith)

Version (6). It follows that an army which lacks heavy equipment, fodder, food and stores **will be lost**. (Yuan Shibin)

Giles follows the original structure and keeps the rhythm by literal translation. Ralph D. Sawyer and Thomas Cleary translate the sentence in the same way and Roger Ames into "it will perish". They all keep the verbal anaphora in the English version to keep the continuity which is a basic feature of discourse.

2. 以治待乱, 以静待哗, 此治心者也。以近待远, 以逸待劳, 以饱待饥, 此治力者也。(军争 第七)

Pinyin: Yi zhi dai luan, yi jing dai hua, ci zhixin zhe ye. Yi jin dai yuan, yi yi dai lao, yi bao dai ji, ci zhili zhe ye. (Chapter 7 Manoeuvring)

Version (1). Use your proper order **to await** the enemy's disorder; use our calmness **to await** his clamor. This is the way to manage the heart and mind.

Use your closeness to the battlefield **to await** the far-off enemy; use your well-rested troops **to await** his fatigued; use your well-fed troops **to await** his hungry. This is the way to manage strength. (Roger Ames)

Givón(1983) suggests that the linear distance from an anaphor to the antecedent is at least one of the major redictors of referential choice. The farther the anaphor is, the more difficult for the readers to distinguish the indicator. In the case that the sentence stresses the verb or the linear distance is comparatively far, the translator can adopt repetition to activate the readers' phychspace and make the translation rhythmic.

B. Zero Anaphora

Chinese lays stresses on the symmetry in sentence and the balance in phonetics by using lots of antithesis because the part of speech, meaning and function of each word interact with the others in the whole discourse instead of being isolated. The bamboo-like structure enables Chinese to achieve hypotaxis by repeating the same structure without conjunctives, while English tends to avoid repetition in the syllables, words and syntax except for emphatic or rhetoric function. Generally speaking, the repetition of the same verb is not frequent in English. The survey on 43 English essays indicates that the application of the same verb is only 0.7%. Take this proverb as an example: Courage in excess becomes foolhardiness, affection weakness, thrift avarice. All the verbs are omitted in the sentence to make the sentence brief. Take the sentence in Posture of Army, the fifth chapter as an example:

3. 乱生于治, 怯生于勇, 弱生于强。(兵势第五)

Pinyin: Luan sheng yu zhi, qie sheng yu yong, ruo sheng yu qiang. (Chapter V: Posture of Army)

Version (1). Apparent confusion is a product of good order; apparent cowardice, of courage; apparent weakness, of strength. (Samuel B. Griffith)

Version (2). Disorder is born from order; cowardice from courage; weakness from strength. (Roger Ames)

Version (3). Apparent confusion is a product of good order; apparent cowardice, of courage; apparent weakness, of strength. (Yuan Shibin)

Griffith omits the rest verbs after the first utterance and Roger Ames and Yuan Shibin also take the same method.

4. 不知战地，不知战日，则左不能救右，右不能救左，前不能救后，后不能救前，而况远者数十里，近者数里乎？(虚实第六)

Pinyin: Buzhi zhan di, buzhi zhan ri, ze zuo buneng jiu you, you beneng jiu zuo, qian buneng jiu hou, hou buneng jiu qian, er kuang yuanzhe shushi li, jinzhe shu li hu? (Chapter 6 Weaknesses and Strengths)

Version (1). If one knows where and when a battle will be fought his troops can march a thousand *li* and meet on the field. But if one knows neither the battleground nor the day of battle, the left will be unable to aid the right, or the right, the left; the van to support the rear, or the rear, the van. How much more is this so when separated by several tens of *li*, or, indeed, by even a few! (Samuel B. Griffith)

The linguist of George Kingsley Zipf (1949) suggested in his book *Human Behaviour and the Principle of Least Effort: An Introduction to Human Ecology*, that language is subject to the least effort principle which states that an information seeking client will tend to use the most convenient search method, in the least exacting mode available. He theorized that the distribution of word use was due to tendency to communicate efficiently with least effort and this theory is known as Zipf's Law. On the basis of the previous knowledge of the readers, the translator can omit the repetitious verbs without specific rhetoric function to make the translation as brief as proverbs or idioms if the original text is brief.

C. Synonym Anaphora

In Chinese, the verbal anaphora enhances the momentum of the text with rhythmic structures and rigorous logic. The translator can analyze the specific meaning of each word or use synonyms and hyponyms for conjunction in the target language. To avoid monotonous repetition, the translator can compensate in semantic, phonological, rhetoric and pragmatic functions. For example:

5. 故上兵伐谋,其次伐交,其次伐兵,其下攻城。(谋攻第三)

Pinyin: Gu shangbing fa mou, qici fa jiao, qici fabing, qixia gongcheng. (Chapter 3: Offensive Strategy)

Version (1). Thus the highest form of generalship is to **balk** the enemy's plans; the next best is to **prevent** the junction of the enemy's forces; the next in order is to **attack** the enemy's army in the field; and the worst policy of all is to besiege walled cities. (L. Giles)

Version (2). Thus the highest form of generalship is to **baulk** the enemy's plans; the next best is to **prevent** the junction of the enemy's forces; the next in order is to **attack** the enemy's army in the field; and the worst policy of all is to besiege walled cities. (Thomas Cleary)

Giles and Cleary analyze the three verbs carefully and adopts synonyms of balk, prevent and attack as the subjects in Chinese are plans or strategy, alliances and enemy. Although the Chinese verbs are the same, the collocations are totally different in English.

6. Version (2). Disciplined and calm, to await the appearance of disorder and hubbub amongst the enemy:— this is the art of retaining selfpossession.

In another passage, Sun Tzu elaborates how to detect the surroundings through careful observation:“尘高而锐者，车来也；卑而广者，徒来也。”(行军第九)

Pinyin: Chen gao er rui zhe, che lai ye; bi er guang zhe, tu lai ye. (Chapter 9: The Army on the March)

Version (1). When there is dust rising in a high column, it is the sign of chariots **advancing**; when the dust is low, and spread over a wide area, it betokens the **approach** of infantry. (L. Giles)

Giles pays attention to the subtext and nuance in the verbs and adopts different words to avoid repetition. The careful choice of lexicon indicates the specific objects and different environment. The synonyms are not exactly the same in terms of etymology, phonic qualities and usage, which make the translation accurate and varied in pattern and phonetics.

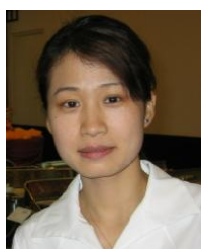
V. CONCLUSION

Verbs are almost necessary in all Chinese sentence structures such as exclamation, slogan, public signs, imperative sentence and headlines etc as Chinese is a verb-prominent language. Different from those in English, they have a great deal more flexibility and function and adapt themselves to serve many purposes. Consequently, verb anaphora is a common linguistic phenomenon worth studying. The application of repetitious verbs, zero anaphora and synonym anaphora can make the translation various in sentence structures.

Although the various English versions of *The Art of War* have conveyed the meaning, the aesthetic, syntactic and phonetic features can be further improved. Laying stress on the context and the communication of languages, the systematic functional linguistics focuses on the interaction between sentences and discourses. The research on the verbal anaphora is of some inspiration to the translation of other Chinese classics to be introduced to the world.

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Grammar: From Experience to Language

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Abstract—This paper attempts to address the nature of language grammar from the perspective of personal experience. Personal experience refers to whatever an individual, situated in a particular life status and equipped with certain innate mental and physical capacities, obtains in his interaction with the natural and socio-cultural surroundings, including various events that he has experienced, knowledge that he has acquired, feelings and emotions that he has gone through, cognitive abilities that he has developed, and whatever that makes him differ from what he was and that will contribute to later processes of his experience acquisition. Personal experience is an individual's lived experience, which enables him to understand the world, to understand what language means, and to behave appropriately in social and verbal communication. With the lived personal experience, an individual can come up with an appropriate communicative notion in a certain communicative context. The communicative notion is the consciousness or intentionality that the individual intends to communicate with the person to be addressed in the context. The communicative notion has its own meaningful structure, from which language grammar originates and develops in the process of serving the purpose of the communicative notion. Grammar is the realization of the communicative notion through the expression of language.

Index Terms—grammar, personal experience, language, communicative notion

I. INTRODUCTION

Just as Tomasello (2009, p.1) observed, psychologists have often waited for linguists to tell them what language is so that they can go on to study its comprehension, processing, and acquisition. But unfortunately much of the theoretical framework and vocabulary of modern linguistic theories relies on the categories and terminology of traditional Western linguistics. Linguists have failed to provide a ready and adequate theoretical framework for the study of language. Psychologists have to go out of their way to study the evolution, development, acquisition, comprehension and processing of language, on behalf of linguists. Language is in the speaker, used between people and situated while being acquired. Therefore, the focus of research on language itself is bound to fail in revealing the nature of language. Halliday (2002) also experienced the constraining rather than enabling walls of disciplines in the past century. He made some reference to the fact that in the mid-century many linguists sturdily proclaimed the independence and autonomy of the discipline of linguistics. Linguists should study language, he said, but they are not in a position to determine what questions should be asked about the domain of language. Halliday also pointed out that linguists always have been located and located themselves within some broader context. “[A]t any given ‘moment’ of space-time, there are likely to be only a few predominant motifs by which the context of linguistic scholarship is defined.”

The paradigm of research has currently shifted to the cognitive approach to language. This approach to language aims to address the complex relationship between social language, personal experience, and mental cognition. Dai (2004) formulated the theory of personal experience (PE) in his doctoral dissertation *The Formation and Development of Verbal Communicative Competence in a Foreign Language: A Perspective of the Personal Experience Theory*. PE refers to whatever an individual, situated with a particular life status and equipped with certain innate mental and physical faculties, obtains by means of interaction with the natural and socio-cultural surroundings, including various events that he has experienced, knowledge that he has acquired, feelings and emotions that he has gone through, cognitive abilities that he has developed, and whatever that makes him differ from what he was and that will contribute to later processes of his experience acquisition. Language experience is part of the personal experience, which is always situated in social interaction and serves the purpose of communication. If language is regarded as a tool for communication, then grammar is the operational mechanism of the language tool. A tool is used for what it is intended to be used. Discussion of the language tool entails the discussion of the process of communication. Language originates and develops in the presence of the speaker's communicative notion, that is, part of the speaker's consciousness or intentionality that he attempts to communicate with the person that he is addressing. This way of reasoning enables us to see the nature of grammar. Like the development of any physical tool for labor, the development of the language tool has been targeted towards the fulfillment of its function and the ornamental or decorative design. A glass is container made of glass for drinking. It originates and develops from humans' need for drinking a liquid. It is humans' need that compels them to invent a container. No matter what material it is made up of, clay, stone, ceramic, metal or glass, the basic and fundamental function of a glass is “its usefulness as a container for drinking”. The design of the glass is its

ornamental feature. Likewise, the language is a tool for humans' communication. The function of language is to meet humans' need to express their communicative notion. It is not important whether it is realized by gestures or vocal sounds. Different languages are like the different materials that a container is made up of. The basic and fundamental function of different languages is the same. Some redundant rules of language are developed for the sake of perfection, formality or agreement of the rules. Functionally speaking, these rules are redundant and useless in the expression of the communicative notion. They are there only to demonstrate the beauty and human cognition of the language form. For instance, English language has the grammatical category of plurality of nouns. We say "Don't put all your eggs in one basket." The plural form "eggs" should be used. But when we say "There are plenty more fish in the sea", we use "fish". "Fish" is considered as an exception to the rule of plurality. Chinese and some other languages do not have plural forms for common nouns, but that does not affect the use of the languages. In the above English sentences, "all" and "more" already indicate the plural, so the plural forms are redundant. If words symbolize abstract concepts, then the agreement of the verb with the subject is also redundant.

Ontologically speaking, humans are beings in nature and society. According to Max-Neef (1991), fundamental human needs stem from the condition of being human. They are constant through all human cultures and across historical time periods. Personal experience is the experience that an individual obtains while he is being in a natural and socio-cultural situation. All psychological, emotional, cognitive and retrospective activities are done through and upon the personal experience. Since social communication is a fundamental human need and like all other fundamental human needs it is the same through all human cultures and across historical time periods, the PE and language-related phenomena are bound to be universal through all human languages, with grammar as part of it.

This article attempts to address the nature of the grammar of language from the PE perspective. We try to argue (1) the communicative notion comes from PE; and (2) grammar originates from and serves the purpose of the communicative notion. Hence the title, grammar comes from experience via the communicative notion.

II. PE: THE ORIGIN OF THE COMMUNICATIVE NOTION

We have all heard Aesop's fable story *The Fox and the Crow*. The Fox saw the Crow fly off with a piece of cheese in its beak and settle on a branch of a tree. The Fox must have understood what that meant. How did he know? He understood it from his lived experience. He co-lived with the Crow and the Crow revealed her being to the Fox, and hence he knew how to deal and communicate with the Crow. Personal experience is an individual's lived experience. Dell Hymes's (1972) communicative competence includes knowing when, where and how to speak, what to speak about, with whom, and so forth. Speakers need knowledge not only of what is grammatically possible but also of what is appropriate and typically done. If we ask further questions about the origin of the knowledge, again we come to the lived experience of the speakers. A person comes up with different communicative notions when he meets different people, say, his boss, his wife and his children. When he is with his different children, he also has different conversations. He may discuss the problem in the work with his boss, his wife's birthday party with his wife, and the English proficiency test with one of the children. Language communication starts from the lived experience of a particular individual.

At any given moment of space-time, an individual is experiencing a particular and specific situation in life. Dewey (1938) discussed two principles of experience: the principle of interaction and the principle of continuity. The first principle means that experience is both the process and the result of one's interaction with the external world; the second principle is to say that experience is continuous process; one's lived experience has a driving force, affecting the manner of his interaction with whatever he will experience. At any given moment of space-time, we are at this cross-point of continuum and interaction of experience. We are confined to our lived experience, which affects, in one way or another, the way we feel and interact with our surroundings.

Dai (2011) elucidated, from a perspective of the PE theory, the cognition and relevance involved in verbal communication. The process of verbal communication, based upon PE, consists of two sub-processes that are heterogeneous in nature: the sub-process of the formation of the communicative notion, which is non-linguistic in nature, and the sub-process of verbal expression of the communicative notion, which is linguistic in nature. The speaker's personal experience enables him to turn an external context into an internal context, and develop a communicative notion and an utterance image, which is then verbally expressed. Liu (1988, 2001) views the process of verbal communication as a "double-layer" process, with one layer being non-linguistic and the other linguistic. Some researchers of cognitive linguistics (e.g. Langacker, 1987, 1991, 2008; Evans 2009) also adopt this "double-layer" view towards the process of language understanding and production. Liu (2001) argues that the reason why the same utterance is subject to different understandings is that different people draw different inferences when they convert the literal meaning of the utterance into contextual meaning and speaker's intention. Then why are people liable to draw different inferences from the same utterance? Liu provide two reasons: the meaning in an utterance consists of elements different in nature; and different people have different ways of cognition.

According to Sperber and Wilson (2001), communication is an ostensive-inferential process. In the communication process, the speaker should make his intended information explicit, and the listener associates the information with the context and infers the speaker's intention. Then how it comes that different people draw different inferences? How can we account for the following talk between husband and wife who have just quarreled?

Husband: Be careful on your way to work.

Wife: Don't worry. I won't kill myself in a car accident.

Dai (2011) pointed out that the interpretation of practical problems such as this in real verbal communication entails the explanation of the mechanisms involved in verbal communication from the perspective of personal experience. Verbal communication begins with the speaker's intention, which is brought about by the intentionality or consciousness that occurs to him in the presence of the listener. That is the communicative notion. The communicative notion arises out of the speaker's need for social communication. The study of verbal communication process should not just focus on the verbal communication process alone. The formation and development of the communicative notion should also be included, and viewed as the starting point of the process of verbal communication. Otherwise, the utterance during the process of verbal communication would seem to emerge out of thin air.

This theory on the verbal communication process interpreted from the perspective of the PE theory attempts to analyze daily routine verbal communication and to provide a clearer, more human and more practical framework for the analysis. Langacker (2013, p.1) argued that his cognitive grammar is intuitively natural, psychologically plausible and empirically viable. Verbal communication interpreted from the PE theory meets these standards of advantage, and more. It comes to the origin of grammar, universal or particular. It attempts to explore why grammar is intuitively natural, psychologically plausible and empirically viable.

III. GRAMMAR AND THE COMMUNICATIVE NOTION

The speaker's personal experience gives rise to the communication notion, and his verbal expression is directed and targeted to the communicative notion. This expressing-and-expressed relation can be vividly illustrated in Vygotsky's (1986, p.251) description of the relation between thought and speech:

Thought, unlike speech, does not consist of separate units. When I wish to communicate the thought that today I saw a barefoot boy in a blue shirt running down the street, I do not see every item separately: the boy, the shirt, its blue color, his running, the absence of shoes. I conceive of all this in one thought, but put it into separate words. Speaker often takes several minutes to disclose one thought. In his mind the whole thought is present at once, but in speech it has to be developed successively. A thought may be compared to a cloud shedding a shower of words. Precisely because thought does not have its automatic counterpart in words, the transition from thought to word leads through meaning. In our speech, there is always the hidden thought, the subtext. Because a direct transition from thought to word is impossible, there have always been laments about the inexpressibility of thought.

Vygotsky implied that what is to be communicated is separated from the language with which the speaker to communicate what is to be communicated. What is to be communicated is the communicative notion, the "thought" in Vygotsky's terminology. This communicative notion comes from the speaker's personal experience. The speaker experienced a barefoot boy in a blue shirt running down the street. This image of the communicative notion has its own structure: the "boy" is the agent; the "barefoot" and the "blue shirt" are the characteristics of the boy; the action of "be running" is what the boy, the agent, is doing; and "in the street" is place where the boy did the running. If the speaker is asked to tell more about what he experienced, he might be able to add more information to what he said. Other people who did not have the experience are unable to do so.

This is what linguists like Chomsky (1965) called "universal grammar". Universal grammar is the structure of the communicative notion. With this universal grammar in mind, humans create and develop their particular languages. The development of human language and children's language acquisition entail the perfection of articulation and of the complicated structure of the expression that matches the complicated structure of the communicative notion, and what is more important, as a tool for communication, language is conventional. This is quite typical of children's language acquisition and of adults' language production in real communication.

In Vygotsky's example, an adult may say "The boy." In his mind, he has the communicative notion of "Today I saw a barefoot boy in a blue shirt running down the street." This communicative notion can be realized in speech in various ways. For instance, "I saw a boy running in the street today. He had no shoes, and wore a blue shirt." Or "I saw a boy in the street. He was barefoot, and had a blue shirt. He was running down the street." No matter how the speech is worded, the meaning is the same because the communicative notion is the same. Grammatically correct sentences are the result of a long-term endeavor to perfect language expression towards the convention of language.

Dai (2004) imagined a situation of a black dog running after a hare. He said that both humans and other animals can experience the situation. The experience of the situation does not require language of any kind. On a certain occasion of social communication, the men in the making through social labor are compelled to communicate the communicative notion of a black dog running after a hare. It was then and only then that they had something to say to each other. This communicative notion is the prerequisite for the creation and development of human language. Human experience is the source of his conception of the "black", "dog", "running after" and "hare". The concepts of "black", "dog", "running after" and "hare" represent the elements of the notion and are realized by the phonological words. No matter how a language socially or collectively conventionalizes the structure of the notion, it should be capable of expressing the communicative notion. Hence Dai concluded that the structure of the natural world and the social one through the perception and conception of humans, the structure of the communicative notion that is formed from the experience within the natural and social world and the structure of language expression are identical and should be viewed in this

logical and sequential order.

It is also quite plausible to conclude that the concepts of “black”, “dog”, “running after” and “hare” in the communicative notion might eventually be separated from the whole notion through various communicative notions formed on various occasions. On one occasion, the black dog is running after a hare; on another, a hare is grazing on the grass. There is no denying the fact that different languages have developed different conventions not only in the domain of grammar, but in the domain of conception of words. In one culture, the notion of “black dog” may be one compound concept, that is, it may be contained in one word; in another, it may be two. In one language, “black” is placed before “dog”; in another, after “dog”. What Chomsky (1965) claimed as “universal grammar” is actually the “grammar” of the perceived world, and the “grammar” of the personal experience and the “grammar” of the communicative notion, whether it be called “grammar” or “structure” or “logic”. A sentence can be divided into a noun phrase and a verb phrase not because language is naturally and logically so, but because humans perceive the world in this way, and language is conventionalized accordingly.

A Chinese scholar and linguist named Lin Yutang (1982, p.1) observed in as early as the 1930s in the Preface “The Science of Expression” of his *Kaiming English Grammar* that “[i]n everything we say, there are always (1) something to say, and (2) the way of saying it. We shall call the former the notion, the latter the expression of these notions. We must understand that grammar has no meaning for us except to teach us about these notions and the ways of expressing them.” Hence he (1982, p.7) advocated that to study grammar is “to look at grammar from the inside, and start from the idea we wish to express to its expression, from inner meaning to outer form.” What Lin proposed is exactly what we have discussed here. In learning English as a foreign language, the learner should first learn to understand the notion that a certain grammatical structure expresses, and then attempt to imagine a situation where the speaker forms a communicative notion that needs to be expressed by the structure. For instance, the subjunctive structure “If ... had done something, ... would have done something.” Just imagine that it rained yesterday and you did not have the picnic. It was a pity. Put yourself in the situation and imagine that you are saying to someone “If it hadn’t rained yesterday, we would have had the picnic.” You will have to direct your thought back to “the rain yesterday” and “the picnic that you did not have.”

IV. CONCLUSION

Cognitive approaches to language emphasize the effect of human experience of the world, the unique way humans perceive and conceptualize that experience, and how these are in turn reflected in the structure of language itself. A tool of any kind is never developed for the sake of the tool per se. Dai and Liu (2012) discussed the origin of tools and languages. They argued that “the crucial point in the creation process of tools and language is the meditation shifting towards a third party for the needs satisfaction. The shifting of meditation is the recognition of the usefulness of another thing to fill the *void* that emerges when the need arises.” Language is a tool for communication, more precisely, a tool for the expression of the communicative notion. The creation of the language tool as a system for the expression of the communicative notion involves perception, emotions, categorization, conceptualization, and reasoning. All these cognitive abilities interact with the communicative notion. The nature of language is its function as a symbolic tool, i.e. the symbolic sign pointing to the communicative notion to be expressed. Theoretically speaking, language does not rely on the sound medium. Any signs (for instance, gestures) can be used as a symbolic tool that serves to fill the *void* between the communicative notion and the linguistic expression addressed to the listener.

According to Croft and Cruse (2004, p.1), there are three major hypotheses guiding the cognitive approach to language: language is not an autonomous cognitive faculty; grammar is conceptualization; and knowledge of language emerges from language use. These three hypotheses are not in the same picture. The first one is a claim against Chomsky’s theory, repeatedly heard in theoretical works of cognitive linguistics; the second one is talking about the cognition involved in the creation and comprehension of human languages; and the third one is about the acquisition of language through the social interaction of verbal communication. The PE theory discussed in this paper has elucidated the phylogenetic and ontogenetic origins and development of language and grammar as a part of the language system. Viewed from the PE perspective, human language is simply easy to understand and analyze. Just imagine the two pictures: the mental and psychological picture of the communicative notion (non-linguistic in nature) and the symbolic picture of linguistic expressions (linguistic in nature, but also mental and psychological). Both Saussure (1983) and Chomsky (1957; 1965) realized that language exists in the speaker’s mind. Saussure chose “*langue*” and Chomsky “*linguistic competence*” as the target of study, but both of them miss the real target. The truth of language is in the history of the being of language, and this being of language should be viewed as co-being of language and humans in the real situation of human beings working with the language in social communication.

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Globalization and Its Effect on the Novels Translated into Persian: A Postcolonial Approach

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Abstract—Translation can be considered as one of the ways which make different cultures closer to each other. Sometimes this affinity can make cultures to adopt some cultural elements. Cronin (2003) named this phenomenon “globalization”. This becomes an important issue when it comes to dominant and dominated cultures. This study was intended (1) to show how globalization can affect translations of Persian novels and (2) to show what strategies the translators use, in order to see if translation and globalization serve English language and impose Western culture into dominated culture, or help dominated cultures to become globally known. “Domestication” and “foreignization” strategies introduced by Venuti (1995) have been considered as main framework of this study. In order to analyze the effects of globalization, culture-specific items have been chosen as the unit of the study. The corpus of the study was an American novel entitled, *The New York Trilogy*, written by Paul Auster and its Persian translation by Khojaste Keyhan and Shahrzad Lolachi. The analysis revealed that although foreignization strategy is more common; whenever an element is against Iran’s religious or traditional rules, domestication strategy was preferred.

Index Terms—globalization, culture specific items, foreignization, domestication, postcolonial approach

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation plays a crucial role in globalizing the cultures in the world. Nowadays, people of the world share more cultural habits than before. Maybe someday everyone would have a homogeneous, globalized culture. However, right now everyone is living in societies where there are different cultures and the relationship between these cultures is asymmetrical. It seems a controversial situation living within the dominated and dominant cultures. According to Wang (2009) “if translations from dominated cultures construct an image of non-western cultures as inferior, creating a need and justification for western civilizing missions, translations from dominant cultures, much larger in quantity than those from dominated cultures, serve the very purpose of intellectual colonization” (p. 202). Wang (2009) also mentioned that “during the past two decades, postcolonial studies of translation have redefined our understanding of translation, particularly its relation to power, ideology and empire building” (p. 203).

As a result of globalization, English language is rapidly gaining strength. This can be seen in the direction and traffic of translation. Most, if not all of the translations are from English and not into it. This can be a reason for globalization. Thus, non-English societies import textual products made in English. However, they do not merely import texts, but cultures are imbedded within texts. In such situations, translators face a dilemma. S/he can either import the cultural element into the target language and culture, i.e. use foreignization strategy (Venuti 1995) or s/he can change the cultural element as an act of resistance against the powerful language and culture, i.e. English. Venuti (1995) called the latter domestication strategy. If globalization means a homogeneous culture, then foreignization serves this end. Most of the non-English and non-natives maybe know more about the western culture because of the huge range of the books translated from it. This can lead to globalization. This can be a unilateral globalization if the globalization of cultures is a western one. Foreignization can be the consequence of this kind of globalization. This fact can fade or even lead to the disappearance of the dominated cultures and even great losses in all non-English languages.

Literature has a great influence on the culture, and translations of literary texts are usually the main reason of the cultural changes. The translations of the literary texts deliver new ideas and cultural elements to the nations. Some cultures, being dominated are more ready for cultural changes. The translators of these countries may usually are considered as foreignized translators while the translators of dominant cultures usually prefer naturalness and fluency in translations. As an example, when Iranian translators translate the concepts like Halloween, Valentine, Christmas, etc. globalization can take place. So gradually the literature of the dominated cultures can get affected and so does the culture itself. As a result of globalization, English gets more powerful. Venuti (1992) says that English has become a source language. Most of the societies translate from English while English doesn’t really want to translate from other languages. The problem is that by doing this, English gains more power and so does the English culture and gets the role of a colonizer; in this case the other cultures can be considered as colonized. This fact gives two choices to the translator while translating: s/he can choose to use foreignization strategy or domestication strategy. The first one can

lead to the entrance of the cultural elements to the target language and culture, which means English language and culture would impose itself to the target language and culture. On the other hand, the latter prevents from the entrance of the cultural elements of the source language to the target language.

The present study is an attempt to investigate the cultural elements of the translated texts and to see that if globalization happens and if it does, to see what its effect is on the novels translated into Persian which would be studied and analyzed in this research from a postcolonial approach to investigate if translation is serving to the expansion of English language and culture or helps to dominated culture's expansion. For example when a Persian translator translated Valentine's Day and gave footnote for it, s/he may have had no idea that s/he is actually globalizing the western culture. Results would help to the practicing translator to get more familiar with the strategies of translation and do more theoretical translations. The results would let trainers and trainees to translate considering the effects that a translation can have on the culture of the target language in the first place and the faithfulness to the source language in the second place.

The purpose of this study is to see how important the role of the translators is, and that how they can play crucial roles in fading some cultural elements or how to make them more strong. The research was attempted to analyze some culture specific items of an English novel, *The New York Trilogy*, written by an American author, Paul Auster. Translations would help different cultures to get closer to each other and they also can give a better understanding of different cultures to everyone. Although during the process of translation some cultural elements may enter to the culture of target language. This study is expected to firstly analyze the cultural elements in the translation of novels and secondly to see how globalization took place on the translations from a postcolonial approach.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *What Is Culture?*

Goodenough (1964) has defined culture as consisting of "whatever one has to know or believes in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members, and to do so in any role that they accept any one of themselves" (p. 167).

Sahlins (1995) defined culture as a "set of distinctive spiritual, material, intellectual and emotional features of society or a social group" (p. 3). In addition to art and literature, culture refers to concepts such as lifestyle, ways of living together, value systems, traditions and beliefs.

B. *Culture-specific Items*

According to O'Donoghue (2005), culture-specific terms are lexical and cognitive gaps. He pointed out that such terms originate from different ways of life, traditions, beliefs, and historical developments. He also maintained that these terms "refer to objects and concepts related to for example ecological, material, social, religious, and political features of a culture" (p. 10). As O'Donoghue (2005) pointed out, culture-specific terms are terms that refer to objects and concepts that relate to different aspects of culture and their culture-specificity depends on the languages involved and cultural distance between the ST and TT readers. These terms are lexical and cognitive gaps and the changes of cognitive meaning between culture-specific terms and their translations create interpretation problems for a TT reader (p. 11). He noted that "studies on culture-specific terms and their translations have shown that all translation procedures of culture-specific terms seem to manifest some changes of meaning" (p. 13).

Newmark (1988, p. 14, quoted in Terestyényi 2011) spoke of cultural words; he defined culture as the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression, thereby acknowledging that each language group has its own culturally specific features. He classified cultural words as follows: 1) ecology: flora, fauna, hills, winds, plains; 2) material culture: food, clothes, houses and towns, transport; 3) social culture: work and leisure; 4) organizations, customs, activities, procedures, concepts: political and administrative, religious, artistic; and 5) gestures and habits.

C. *Globalization*

Since twentieth century, some "changes" have globally influenced and touched the everyday life of people from different aspects, i.e. "economics, cultures and societies". Cronin (2009) called these changes "globalization" (p. 126). According to him (2003, p. 77), the term globalization has "the sense of a critical theory of globalization that encompasses global movements and exchanges of people, commodities, and ideas, and a politico-historical approach to changes in global processes" (quoted in Ho 2005, p. 86). Cronin (2003) further distinguished between "instantaneous time" and "mnemonic time". Instantaneous time in translation refers to the time pressure that creates a situation "where space-time compression and time-to-market imperatives generate demands for an extremely rapid turnaround of translation job" (p. 71, quoted in Ho 2005, p. 87). Mnemonic time in translation, in contrast, is the time assigned to translation tasks that bring existing yet inaccessible texts created in ancient times or in another language and culture to the current society or the host culture that receive the texts from past or from after. Cronin (2003, p. 34) remarked that "within a context of multiple modernities it is more proper to talk not so much about translation and globalization as about globalization as translation". Rather, translation should be regarded as "a constituent, integral part" of globalization instead of "a by-product" of it. Cronin (2003, p. 34) stressed that globalization has facilitated the explosive demand for translation rather than the demise of translation as an activity. According to Cronin (2009) on the

one hand, there is the centripetal form, the notion of globalization as homogenization. This implies imperialism, subjection, hegemony, Westernization or Americanization. On the other hand, there is the centrifugal form, suggesting globalization as resulting in interdependence, interpenetration, hybridity, syncretism, creolization and crossover (pp. 127-8).

According to Pieterse (1995, pp. 45-67), what is at stake in the relation between the phenomenon of globalization is a tension between the so-called centrifugal and centripetal forms of globalization (quoted in Cronin 2009, p. 127). Pieterse (1995) pointed to various conceptualizations of globalization, especially in cultural studies where the focus is on the global communications and worldwide cultural standardization (p. 45). According to Pieterse (1995), globalization emanate from Europe and West. Indeed, it is a theory of Westernization, which replicates all the problems associated with Eurocentrism. For him, it is a narrow window on the world, historically and culturally. Due to this reason, he called it Westernization and not globalization (pp. 46-7).

D. Postcolonial Approach in Translation Studies

According to Venuti (2004), during the 1980s a postcolonial reflection on the translation in disciplines such as anthropology, area studies and literary theory and criticism emerged. For Venuti (1995a) "fluent, domesticating translations create the illusion of invisible translators and transparent representations, which helps to conceal their imperialistic, ethnocentric reduction of cultural difference" (quoted in Wang 2009, pp. 201-2). Venuti argued that translation tends to be an invisible practice in the United States and is judged successful when it reads 'fluently'; giving the appearance that it has not been translated (Gentzler, pp. 15-16). The problems with such a situation are twofold: (1) it marginalizes practicing translators making them subservient to the author and defining their practice as derivative and secondary; (2) it erases the linguistic and cultural differences of the foreign text that the very act of translation purports to carry over into the receiving culture (Gentzler, p. 16). For (1995a, p. 20) foreignizing translation was a means of resisting 'ethnocentrism and racism, cultural narcissism and imperialism' and promoting 'democratic geopolitical relations' (quoted in Wang 2009, p. 203).

Wang (2009) pointed out that if translations from dominated cultures create an image of nonwestern cultures as inferior and create a justification for Western agenda, the translations from dominant cultures serve the very purpose of intellectual colonization (p. 202). For Wang, translation is not merely a channel of colonization. It can also be a means of resistance to colonial and neocolonial powers. Some of the researches have revealed traces of resistance in translations undertaken in colonial contexts and proposed ways of putting translation at the service of decolonization (Wang 2009, p. 202).

III. METHODOLOGY

The type of this study is of interpretative approach which is of qualitative type. Roughly speaking, the goal of qualitative research is to describe the quality of something in some enlightening way. More strictly, qualitative research can lead to conclusions about what is possible, what can happen, or what can happen at least sometimes; it does not allow conclusions about what is probable, general or universal. (Williams & Chesterman 2002, p. 64)

This research is going to be based on the ideas of scholars who already worked and researched about globalization and postcolonial approaches in translation. The foreignization and domestication model of Venuti (1995) would be the basic theoretical framework of the study in recognizing the results from a postcolonial approach. The unit of the study is culture-specific items (CSIs); the categorization of different scholars was based in identifying cultural elements, namely Newmark (1988) and O'Donoghue (2005). The research also followed the definition that Cronin (2003) presented on globalization.

The comparison was between a novel in English, *New York Trilogy*, by Paul Auster (2006) and the translation of the novel into Persian translated by Khojasteh Keyhan and Shahrzad Lolachi (2010).

In order to discover the cultural elements which have or may have globalization effects on the culture through a postcolonial approach, the source text of Paul Auster's, novel *The New York Trilogy* was compared by its translation.

Venuti (1995a) divided translations into domestication and foreignization types. This study tried to discover that which one is more common among translators and that if dominant culture imposed its cultural elements into dominated culture. This study also intended to see that what effects globalization had on dominated culture of Iran and that if translation led to the entrance of the cultural elements of dominant culture into dominated culture or not. In order to do so, the researcher first analyzed the cultural specific items from globalization view. On the next aspect cultural items has been analyzed from postcolonial aspect and at the end a chart has been illustrated to show that if translators preferred domestication or foreignization on their translations.

IV. ANALYSIS

In this section a small number of culture-specific items (CSIs), which have been taken from *The New York Trilogy* novel, has been taken in order to illustrate and analyze the translation of CSIs from a globalization aspect and also from a postcolonial view.

تنها سرخ پوست خوب سرخ پوست مرده است.
(Lolachi and Keyhan 2010, p. 64)

The only good Indian was a dead Indian (Auster 2006, p. 42).

Romanization of the Sample:

tanhā surkhpūst-i khūb surkhpūst-i murdah ast.

A. Culture-specific Item(s)

This is an old American saying. Pilgrims who were colonizer Europeans migrated to the America. Early Americans killed a lot of native Indians, native people of the North America, while they first arrived to the America and put the rest on reservations.

This saying wants to show that no Indian is good. As Auster (2006, p. 42) wrote in his novel "it was not until 1537, with the papal bull of Paul III, that the Indians were declared to be true men possessing souls".

B. The Globalization Aspect of the Sample

Since no translation is entirely "the best or even acceptable" (Robinson 1997, p. 25), the translator cannot be certain that the adequacy of the proposed proverb equivalents. According to Catford (1965), when the lexical substitutes are unavailable in the target language, equivalence is not achieved at all. In light of Catford's remark, proverbs are idiomatic and this makes them idiosyncratic elements which are culturally bound to a specific language (Gorjian 2008, p. 1).

Mollanazar (2001) defined the proverb as "a unit of meaning in a specific context through which the speaker and hearer arrives at the same meaning" (p. 53). Translating sayings and proverbs is sometimes very difficult if not impossible. Translators in these cases have only a few options.

Beekman and Callow (1974, p. 139) suggested three ways to translate a proverb as follows:

1. The words following the proverb could be introduced as the meaning of the proverb;
2. it can be replaced with an equivalent local proverb; and
3. its non-figurative meaning could be stated straight forwardly.

Duff (1989, p. 11) cited that "idiomatic expressions are notoriously untranslatable. These include similes, metaphors, proverbs and sayings (as good as jargon, slang, and colloquialisms)." Duff also noted that if these expressions have no equivalents in TL, the translator may approach to TL equivalents as follows:

1. Literal translation,
2. original word in inverted commas,
3. close equivalents, and
4. non- idiomatic translation.

They may try to convey the meaning by explaining or interpreting, especially when the saying is too difficult to understand for a target text (TT) reader who has no or little background knowledge about the source language (SL). Here the translator preferred to translate the source text (ST) literally. With regard of media and other translations, most Iranians may know about the Indian American battle. This saying has entered to the Persian language and Iranians also say that saying when they want to refer to someone or something who/which is really not good although they use it rarely. According to Cronin (2009) translation here is of "centripetal form" which is "implying imperialism, subjection, hegemony, Westernization or Americanization".

C. Sample from a Postcolonial Approach View

Venuti (1995a, p. 20) "advocated foreignizing translation as a means of resisting 'ethnocentrism and racism, cultural narcissism and imperialism' and promoting 'democratic geopolitical relations'" (quoted in Wang 2009, p. 203). Translator of this novel preferred foreignization once again. The literary translation of this sentence empowered the source language's (SL) culture and whether consciously or subconsciously imposes some cultural elements of dominant culture into dominated culture. This old American saying might lead to new Iranian sayings in the future.

خاطرت هست که برای پدر ملت چه اتفاقی افتاد؟ درخت گیلاس را با تبر قطع کرد و بعد به پدرش گفت: من نمی توانم دروغ بگویم. کمی بعد از آن، سکه ای در رودخانه انداخت.

(Lolachi and Keyhan 2010, p. 126)

Remember what happened to the father of our country. He chopped down the cherry tree, and then he said to his father, 'I cannot tell a lie.' Soon thereafter, he threw the coin across the river (Auster 2006, 84).

Romanization of the Sample:

khātirat hast ki barāyi pidar-i millat chi ittifaq-i uftād? dirakht-i gīlās rā bā tabar qat' kard va ba'd bi pidarash guft: man nimītāvānam dūrūgh bigūyam: man nimītāvānam dūrūgh bigūyam. kamī ba'd az ān sikke-yī dar rūdkhānah andākht.

D. Culture-specific Items(s)

As Nord (1997) defined cultural items can be "a social phenomenon of a culture X that is regarded as relevant by the members of this culture and, when compared with a corresponding social phenomenon in a culture Y, is found to be specific to culture X" (p. 34).

Historical events or stories can be considered of this type like George Washington's story. These kinds of stories can be found in almost all of the countries, e.g. the story of آرش کماندار in Iran. When an author refers to such historical facts

and the text gets translated, translators may face two strategies. They can choose a foreignization strategy and remain faithful to the source text (ST) by translating the fact. They can give footnotes to help the target text reader to have a better understanding. By doing this the historical fact will become more and more global. Even if the translator does not give footnotes the fact will still become more global. The second strategy is using a very domesticated method and a translator can mention a similar fact of the target culture instead of translating the source text (ST). This can lead to a great loss in translation.

E. The Globalization Aspect of the Sample

The text is talking about the father of America. The target text reader would have probably no idea with the concept if the author would not mention George Washington's name on the following line. Although it helps to the target text reader to know that to whom it refers but the reader who does not have enough historical background about American history may still wonder why do Americans refer to George Washington as the father of their country? Interested reader with a little research can find that Washington was the first president of the America and one of the founding fathers who put in place America's governmental system. If it were not for his defeat of the British in the American Revolution, the USA would not have come into being (Wikipedia). Translation of this text is imposing dominant culture's history to the target language.

F. Sample from a Postcolonial Approach View

Source text (ST) here is referring to two stories about George Washington. An Eastern or non-American reader may probably do not know about these stories and translation of this text is imposing or from an optimist view is transferring some historical facts about the United States. Besides target text reader can find out that George Washington is known as the father of his country. Translator could not translate this part according to domestication strategy. She just could give footnotes to help the interested target text reader to know more about these two stories which she didn't find necessary to do.

...و بعد به آشپزخانه رفت تا نوشیدنی بیاورد. دو شیشه نوشابه آورد.

(Lolachi and Keyhan 2010, p. 138)

...and then went off to the kitchen to fetch some beer. He returned with two bottles (Auster 2006, p. 93).

Romanization of the Sample:

... va ba'd bi āshpazkhānah raft tā nūshīdānī biyavāvarad. du shīshah nūshabah āvard.

نوشابه هم داشت بر او اثر می کرد

(Lolachi and Keyhan 2010, p. 142)

The beer had gone slightly to his head (Auster 2006, p. 95).

Romanization of the Sample:

nūshabah ham dāsht bar ū aṣar mīkard.

G. Culture-specific Items(s)

According to what Newmark (1988) called "material culture" food can be considered as a culture specific item, e.g. beer. Beer is an alcoholic drink, and alcoholic drinks are forbidden to be sold or used in Iran, as they are forbidden in Islam and are against Iran's Islamic rules. Translators sometimes are not allowed to translate the names of the alcoholic drinks or may prefer to don't do themselves. This act leads to a loss in translation and an unusual look of the target text (TT). For example in this sample the translator has translated beer into cola (نوشابه). As the translator translated the following sentence which is "The beer had gone slightly to his head" (Auster 2006, p. 95) into نوشابه هم داشت بر او اثر می کرد which means the cola had gone slightly to his head, target text (TT) looks weird as everyone knows that cola is not an alcoholic drink and cannot go to one's head.

H. The Globalization Aspect of the Sample

As Cronin (2009) mentioned globalization is a "homogenization". The translation of this part did not serve as an imperialistic tool to westernize the text.

In some societies there are some cultural aspects which are stricter than the others and they do not let any foreign cultural aspect to impose itself to the target culture. For example on this text beer has been translated into نوشابه (Cola) for Iran's Islamic rules forbid trading and drinking beer in the entire country. So the translator is not allowed to translate beer into its real Persian equivalence as it may lead the Western culture to get imposed and enter to Iranian culture. Although the wise reader will know that drinking cola will not go to one's head.

Globalization did not happen here at least in an obvious way as translator just implied the original author's intention. If someone points out that globalization had happened in a hidden way, it can be claimed that it did not affect the dominated culture of Iran at least. The fact that Iranians are not allowed to use alcoholic drinks according to country's rules is so strong that neither translation nor globalization can have any influence on it.

I. Sample from a Postcolonial Approach View

Venuti (1995a, p. 20) advocates foreignization in translation but sometimes translators has to obey the rules of their country. In these situations domestication is the only way. The translator while translating this part of text had to obey the Islamic rules of the country and chose domestication. Sometimes domestication can be so close or even lead to

censorship. Domestication strategy and censorship may be judged as an unfaithful translation but in some occasions they can be looked from an optimistic view as those kinds of translations can show the respect that a translator has about his/her country's values and beliefs.

زنی است که ماسک هالووین¹ به صورت دارد.

(Lolachi and Keyhan 2010, p. 162)

There is the woman with a Halloween mask on her face. (Auster 2006, p. 108)

Romanization of the Sample:

zan-ī ast ki mask-i Hāluvīn bi š ūrat dārad.

J. Culture-specific Items(s)

There are different customs and holidays in any language and culture. They can sometimes be common with other languages and cultures and sometimes can be different. Halloween is a non-Iranian culture-specific item. According to what Newmark (1988) categorized this is as because it is a "custom".

K. What Is Halloween?

Halloween, also referred to as All Halloween's Eve, falls on October 31. It is believed that on this day, ghosts, sprites and witches come out to harm people. In order to scare the evil spirits away, people place scary decorations such as black cats and skeletons, and ghosts in front of their homes. Children dressed in masks and colorful costumes go from door to door saying "trick or treat" and people give them candy, cookies, fruit or money. (Collis 2006, p. 102)

L. The Globalization Aspect of the Sample

Book or media translation can lead to "changes affecting culture and societies worldwide" (Cronin 2009, p. 129). Globalization here is imposing new cultural items to Iran's dominated culture. By doing so translators may lead to the entrance of the new dominant cultural items to the language.

M. Sample from a Postcolonial Approach View

Translation of customs, events and holidays is not usually possible through a domesticated strategy as any language and culture has its own customs, etc. so translators have to use a foreignized method and in the case of lack of equal equivalence they may even get transliterated. For translating different aspects of the source culture, the translator gave footnote to explain the situation and help the target text reader to have a better understanding, although the footnote is not detailed and gives the reader a very general overview of the custom.

یک سینی غذا کنار تختش بود، از روی بشقاب رست بیف بخار بلند می شد

(Lolachi and Keyhan 2010, p. 187)

There was a tray of food beside him on the floor, the dishes steaming with what looked like a roast beef dinner (Auster 2006, p. 126).

Romanization of the Sample:

yik sīnī ghazā kinār-i takhtash būd, az rūyi bushqāb-i rust bīf bukhār buland mīshud.

اول به رستوران چینی در خیابان سی و نهم می رفتند و در حالی که با خوراک چاپستیک کشتی می گرفتند، پنهانی زیر میز دست یکدیگر را می گرفتند و بعد برای دیدن فیلمی به سینما پارامونت می رفتند.

(Lolachi and Keyhan 2010, p. 201)

First the Chinese restaurant on 39th Street, where they would have wrestled with the chopsticks and held hands under the table, and then the double feature at the Paramount. (Auster 2006, p. 136)

Romanization of the Sample:

avval bi ristūrān-i Chīnī dar khīyābān-i sī u nuhum mīraftand va dar ḥ ālī ki bā khvurāk-i chāpistīk kushī mīgīrīftand, pinhānī zīr-i mīz dast-i yikdīgar rā mīgīrīftand va ba'd barāyi dīdan-i filmī bi sīnamā Pārāmunt mīraftand.

بقیه ی هیكلش كاملا عادی است (پالتوی تونید خاکستری پوشیده و دستمال گردن سرخی بسته است).

(Lolachi and Keyhan 2010, p. 243)

The rest of him is perfectly ordinary (gray tweed overcoat, red scarf wrapped around his neck) (Auster 2006, p. 164).

Romanization of the Sample:

baqiyyah-yi hiyykalash kāmīlan 'ādī ast (pāltu-yi tu'īd-i khākistari pūshidah va dastmāl garden-i surkhī bastah ast).

N. Culture-specific Items(s)

As Newmark (1988) categorizes from one hand, food is a "material culture" so it has been considered as a culture-specific item. From another hand also "lexical gaps are culture specific terms" (O'Donoghue 2005, p. 8).

O. The Globalization Aspect of the Sample

The two general strategies identified by Vinay and Darbelnet (2000, p. 84-93) are direct translation and oblique translation. The two strategies comprise seven procedures, of which direct translation covers three (quoted in Munday 2001, p. 55). One of those is calque. The other name of translating only the alphabet of the source word in target language is transliteration. Sometimes because of the lack of an equal equivalent word in the target language translator

¹ عید هالووین، شب سی و یکم اکتبر، که کودکان در آن ماسک وحشتناک به صورت می زنند و برای گرفتن شیرینی و پول تو جیبی به در خانه ها می روند. Halloween.

has no choice but to transliterate. This act can lead to the entrance of new words to target language, e.g. kiwi, computer, telephone, etc. But sometimes there are still equal equivalences in target language, translators still transliterate instead of translation, e.g. *تی بگ* instead of *چای کیسه ای* for tea bag.

Here, there are three words which had been transliterated. First one is roast beef which could easily translated into *گوشت بریان شده ی گاو* but the translator preferred *رست بیف* instead. The third one is tweed which could get translated to *پشمی* or *فاسطونی* instead of being transliterated into *توئید*. Target reader who does not know enough English may not know the exact meaning of the sentence. If translators keep doing so, the target language may soon face the entrance of a lot of English words into Persian language.

The second word is chopsticks. There is no good equal equivalence for chopsticks in Persian as Iranians do not use them at all. The best way here is to transliterate which will lead to the entrance of the word and its meaning to the language. Translator could help the target reader better by giving a footnote. Although there is some mistranslation here the researcher did not consider it as it would not be to the point of this study.

Globalization here is not leading to the disappearing of the dominated culture of Iran but it imposes dominant language vocabularies into the target language culture.

P. Sample from a Postcolonial Approach View

Foreignization strategy is obviously used here even in an exaggerated way. There is no reason to transliterate instead of translation while there are equal equivalences. These kind of translations impose the Western elements into the target language and they “inform and empower the colonizers” (Niranjana 1992 quoted in Wang 2009, p. 201).

V. RESULTS

To make a summary of the results, there were altogether 16 culture-specific items identified in the novel, *The New York Trilogy* that the researcher tried to analyze from a globalization aspect and also from a postcolonial view based of Venuti's domestication and foreignization strategies. The following figures illustrate the frequency of the usage of both strategies by Iranian translators in the translation of the novel.

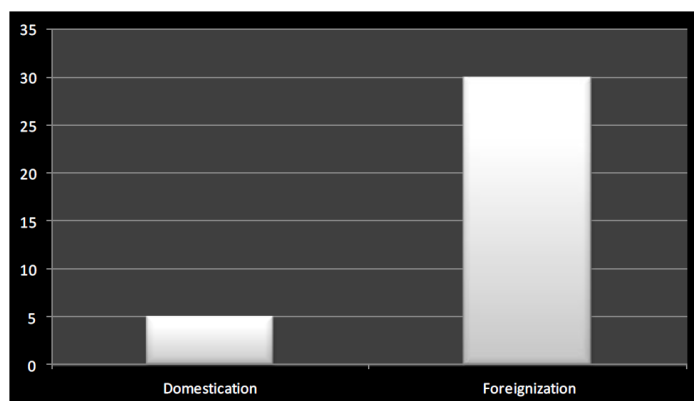


Figure 1. The Frequency of Using Domestication and Foreignization Strategy

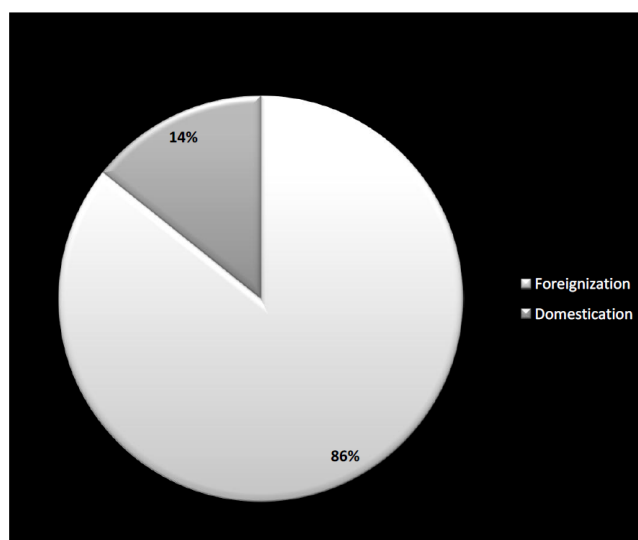


Figure 2. The Percentage of Applying Foreignization and Domestication Strategies during the Process of Translation

As the figures above demonstrate translators used foreignization strategy preferably. “Fig. 2”, demonstrates the percentage of applying each strategy which had been used during the process of translation. Foreignization strategy had been used 86% and domestication strategy had been used 14% in this study.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study attempted to detect what the effect of globalization on the dominated culture of Iran is. In order to achieve to this the researcher attempted to find out if Iranian translators prefer domestication strategy on translations or foreignization strategy.

Globalization is a good phenomenon from an optimistic aspect. It makes nationalities and different cultures closer to each other and helps people from all over the world to have a better and more correct attitude toward each other and helps them to have a better understanding of each other. With the help of globalization borders fade more and more on the daily life of the people and turn to something that is just clear only on the geographical maps. Globalization has a wrong aspect too and it is the way it is not equally reciprocal. Actually it is unilateral most of the time. Sometimes it seems that globalization is a tool which is serving the powerful to get more powerful and makes the weaker to become weaker. As it has been mentioned in chapter one, translation usually occurs from English and not into it. In this case globalization only or at least mostly takes place from a dominant culture, i.e. in this case English language and American culture and affects the dominated language and culture, i.e. Persian language and Iranian culture.

Foreignization in translation helps to globalization to occur from the original language to the target language. On the other hand domestication in translation keeps the cultural elements of the target language more stable. It leads to a fluent translation and perhaps translations who follow a domestication strategy may consider more successful translations because of their fluency. According to the results Iranian translators prefer foreignization strategy most of the time.

As it has been mentioned above, Iranian translators preferred foreignization strategy in most cases. It was also pointed out that foreignization strategy can lead to globalization. As analyzed in chapter four, Iranian translators can lead to the entrance of the new cultural specific items into the Persian language and Iranian culture. Those culture specific items include customs, idioms and sayings, habits, dress ups, food, work and leisure, concepts, etc.

This study has analyzed translation from a postcolonial approach. As mentioned in chapter two according to Venuti (1995a quoted in Wang 2009) “fluent, domesticating translations create the illusion of invisible translators and transparent representations, which helps to conceal their imperialistic, ethnocentric reduction of cultural difference” (pp. 201-2). With regard to this concept, this study followed domestication and foreignization strategy of Venuti in analyzing the data from a postcolonial approach.

Translators can lead to the entrance of any one of above mentioned culture-specific items from the dominant original language and culture into the dominated target language and culture, especially in the case of repetition.

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Research on the Application of Context Theory in Vocabulary Study*

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Abstract—Context theory is usually used in reading comprehension. Some scholars tried to put it into the study of word meaning. The relationship between the word meanings and context, the functions of context to word meaning also have been analyzed in the paper.

Index Terms—context, word meaning, linguistic context, non-linguistic context

I. INTRODUCTION

In studying English, most of the students are accustomed to the old methods of learning. Usually they grasp grammatical rules, and then remember a large vocabulary. Actually it is a large obstacle on their way of learning English. So here comes the question: how to memorize so many English words and how to use them correctly and appropriately in writing and speaking. This shows that the teaching of words is a fundamental part in language.

In English class, a vast amount of teaching time is consumed by explanation and definition. Students compile page upon word list that they rarely have chance to practice. So the traditional translation method in the vocabulary teaching and learning should be discouraged, because it will lead students to acquire a bad habit of automatically matching words, regardless of real situation. Furthermore, this mechanical absorbing of words can lead to students' bad habit of study.

With the development of reform of vocabulary teaching, many teachers have explored new approaches to classroom teaching to change the situation in which study isn't combined with practical application. Applying context theory can change effectively to improve teaching quality of English teaching.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. B. Malinowski's View

The concept of context was initiated by B. Malinowski, a Polish professor of anthropology, while he did the field work in the primitive culture. Malinowski thought that "a text written by these people into this language could not be understood by any foreigners or by people living outside this society even if translated into their own languages because each message brought much more meanings than those expressed through the words, meanings that could only be understood if accompanied by the situation". Thus, "Malinowski introduced the notion of context of situation, meaning by environment of the text". (Halliday, 1989, p.6)

On the other hand, the limitation of Malinowski's conception of context is clear that little attention has been paid to the significance of language in the understanding of utterances.

B. J. R Firth's View

J. R. Firth was one of those who took part in Malinowski's seminars at the University of London. He was also one of the founders of British Functionalism greatly influenced by Malinowski. He not only accepts Malinowski's concept of "context of Situation" but extends it to linguistics. Firth is the first scholar to analyze language from the perspective of context and make a framework for the study of context thereafter. He states that "the context of situation is not to be interpreted in concrete terms as a sort of audiovisual record of the surrounding 'props' but was, rather, an abstract representation of the environment in terms of certain general categories having relevance to a text" (Halliday, 1978, p. 109).

C. M. A. K Halliday's View

Halliday remarks, "Knowledge is transmitted in social contexts, through relationships, like those of parent and child, or teacher and pupil, or classmates, that are defined in the value systems and ideology of the culture. And the words that are exchanged in these contexts get their meanings from activities in which they are embedded, which again are social activities with social agencies and goals." (Halliday, 1989, p.17)

Later, he develops the theory of situation into "register", "a more generalized interpretation intended as a basis for deriving the features of the text from the features of the situation." (Halliday, 1964, p.87) He defines register as a

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variety of language according to the use. Language varies as its function varies; it differs in different situations.

Absorbing the ideas of both Malinowski and Firth, Halliday proposed his own opinion on the study of the context. He employed Firth's idea of context to establish the systemic-functional theory in which the categories and their relations could be explicit.

According to Halliday and Hasan (1985), context is no longer just an abstract concept concerning the environment in which language is used, but an abstract theoretical category in which language can be interpreted from the perspective of semiotics.

D. J. Lyons' View

J. Lyons, an English linguist, makes a great contribution to the study of context. He proposes that "context is a theoretical construct, in the postulation of which the linguist abstracts from the actual situation and establishes as contextual all the factors which, by virtue of their influence upon the participants in the language event, systematically determine the form, the appropriateness or the meaning of utterances." (Lyons, 1977, p.572)

E. Study of Chinese Scholars

Hu Zhuangling also probes into the concept of context. He divided context into three categories: Linguistic context: "the accompanying context within a text"; Situational context: "some factors outside the text, including the relationship of participants, their communicative intention and the environment where the utterance occur"; Cultural context: "the speech community in which the speaker lives, including the custom and social culture". (Hu Zhuanglin, 2002, p. 78)

Professor He Zhaoxiong defines context as "the environment in which the language is used, illustrating context as two kinds of knowledge: inner-linguistic knowledge and extra-linguistic knowledge" (He Zhaoxiong, 1989, p.22). Many professionals support the idea of inferring word meanings from context.

III. WORD MEANING AND CONTEXT

A. Research Questions

The research takes qualitative approach. It is intended to find answers to the following:

- (1) What are word meaning and context and the relationship between them?
- (2) What are the classifications of word meaning and context?
- (3) How are context theories used in vocabulary teaching in China?

B. Classification of Word Meaning

When we talk about the meaning of a word, we tend to think of dictionaries immediately and assume that the meaning exists in such books. But Dai Weidong states that dictionaries are put together by authors according to the ordinary usage of words, so the meaning of words is eventually determined by users of words not by dictionaries (Dai Weidong, 1998, p.89). In addition, dictionaries often tend to be behind the times. Bilingual dictionaries are especially less satisfactory because they usually provide only a list of glosses and have no definitions.

Many scholars have been trying to divide word meanings into different categories. Linguist Geoffrey Leech (1981) listed seven types of meaning of words and sentences.

1. Grammatical Meaning

"Grammatical meaning refers to that part of meaning of a word that indicates grammatical concept or relationship such as part of speech of words (nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs), singular and plural meaning of nouns, tense meaning of verbs and their inflectional forms". Geoffrey Leech (1981, p.78)

2. Lexical Meaning

Unlike grammatical meaning, this meaning is identical in all the forms of the word. Let us take the variables of the word do (make, makes, making, and made) as an example. They have different grammatical meanings of person, tense and so on, but in each of these forms we find one and the same semantic component serving the process of movement.

Lexical meaning can be subdivided into conceptual meaning and associative meaning.

2.1 Conceptual Meaning

"Conceptual meaning (also known as denotative meaning) is the meaning given in the dictionary and forms the core of word meaning. Being constant and relatively stable, conceptual meaning forms the basis for communication as the same word generally has the same conceptual meaning to all the speakers in the same speech community". Geoffrey Leech (1981, p.82) Dictionaries generally focus on conceptual meaning of words. It is that aspect of lexical meaning that makes communication possible.

2.2 Associative Meaning

"Associative meaning is the secondary meaning attached to conceptual meaning. It differs from conceptual meaning in that it is open-ended and indeterminate, liable to be influenced by such factors as culture, experience, religion, geographical region, class background, education, etc. It is the total of the meanings a person thinks of when he hears or reads the word". According to Leech (1981, p.85), associative meaning includes four types "connotative, stylistic, affective, and collocative".

2.3 Stylistic Meaning

What's more, many words have stylistic features, which make them suitable for different contexts. The features form the stylistic meanings of words. In some dictionaries, the stylistic features are clearly marked as "formal", "informal", "literary", "slang" and so on. For example, cop and policeman have the same conceptual meaning, but differ in their stylistic values.

Leech (1981) thinks that language application can be grouped as different levels in different situations, that is formal and literary, colloquial, familiar and slang. Different words may be employed in different styles, and this part of word meaning constitutes the stylistic meaning of a word.

2.4 Affective Meaning

Affective meaning denotes the expression of feelings and attitudes of the speaker or writer. It is concerned with the speaker or writer's attitude towards the person or thing in question.

For example, just as statesman and politician, slender and skinner, fat and overweight. Statesman is admirable, but politician is looked down upon. In fact, affective meaning differs from one to another, from one culture to another culture. For example, the word dog may have quite different affective meanings in different countries. In western countries it is associated with "loyalty", "men's best friends" which are all positive meanings, while in China, dog is only a useful animal. Sometimes it implies negative meanings.

2.5 Collocative meaning

"Collocative meaning consists of associations a word acquires on account of the meaning of words which tend to occur in its environment". (Leech, 1981, p.88). For example, the pair of synonyms beautiful and handsome offers good illustration. These two words share the conceptual meaning of "good-looking", but are distinguished by the extent of nouns they collocate with: beautiful girl or flowers, handsome boy or car.

3. Experiential Meaning

Besides grammatical meaning and lexical meaning, there is the very special interpretation that is brought to each word by both speaker or writer and reader because of each person's own particular, personal experiences and those experiences that are common to the culture of which he or she is a part (Robinett, 1980, p.113). Sometimes it is not enough to know the lexical meaning of a word in order to understand and be understood completely. Experiential meaning is beneficial to the understanding of the passage.

C. Context

Context is of great importance for the understanding of word meaning. Without context, there is no way to determine the very sense of the word that the speaker or writer intended to convey; whereas with context there is generally no danger of misinterpretation, for meaning lives in context and the context defines meaning. Therefore, we may use context in vocabulary teaching to help students improve their word power and reading comprehension as well.

1. Linguistic Context

Linguistic context refers to the linguistic setting in which a word occurs. To put it in details, "it refers to the words, clauses, sentences in which a word appears and it may also cover a paragraph, a whole chapter and even the entire book". (Leech, 1981, p.91). Linguistic context includes lexical and grammatical context.

For example, the polysemous word such as make. This word conveys a large number of meanings and only context will determine exactly which is meant.

- (1) He made (earned) a lot of money.
- (2) We made (arrived at) Beijing in two hours.
- (3) We have made (covered) 60 miles since noon.
- (4) She will make (become) a good doctor.
- (5) I do not like milk. But she made (forced) me drink it.

In the above sentences, make has different meaning according to the linguistic context.

2. Grammatical Context

When it appears in different grammatical contexts, a polysemous word may have different meanings. Take the verb get for example. Its meaning varies in different syntactical structures:

- get+n., as in
I got a present today (meaning "receive")
 - get+adj., as in
The food is getting cold. (meaning "become")
 - get+n.+infinitive, as in
I will get him to see a doctor. (meaning "to cause to do something")
- So different get has different meaning in varies grammatical context.

3. Situational Context

"Non-linguistic context refers to the extra-linguistic factors abstracted from the physical environment and cultural settings in which the utterance occurs. It embraces the people, time, place, mode of transmission and even the whole cultural background". (Leech, 1981, p.94)

Non-linguistic context includes situational context and cultural context, which is also known as cultural knowledge.

Situational context refers to "the actual speech situation in which a word (or an utterance, or a speech event) occurs. Situational context is understood to be the physical, relatively easily identifiable level related to such factors as whom

the participants are, and what the relationship is between them: parent and child, friends, employer and employee, or strangers". (Zhang Yunfei, 1988, p.237)

Where the language happens is also relevant; talking in a church is different in many ways from talking in the home or a restaurant, talking in the theatre is not like talking in a church.

Thus, situational context clues are important in determining the meaning of a word. The analysis of situational context is necessary. In vocabulary teaching, if students want to fully understand a word in a text, they should also know some of the background knowledge.

4. Cultural Context

"Cultural context represents an abstract way of people's social activities. Culture consists of all the shared elements of human society. This includes not only such material things as cities, organizations and schools, but also non-material things as ideas, customs, family patterns, relationships and languages". (Leech, 1981, p.98)

D. Function of Context to Word

Generally speaking, the role of context to word is illustrated from the following three aspects.

1. Eliminating Ambiguities

The context often makes the meaning of a polysemous word so certain that we do not think of the fact that it has different senses. Was it not for the context, the readers will be confused.

But in daily life, polysemous words do not create any ambiguity or confusion, because the word reaches us already prepared by what precedes and by what surrounds it, interpreted by time and place, and determined by the speaker's relevant features such as personality, age, sex, education, occupation, etc. That is the "context" in real life.

2. Conveying Emotional Implications

Another example is nice, which is an appreciative word. For example, the word "good" in the sentence "He is a good man" Means kind because the object is a person. But if the modified object is changed into "orange", "good" changes its connotation into the meaning of "sweet", because nobody will like a sour orange. Thus, only the context can show whether a word should be taken as a purely objective expression, whether it conveys and shows emotions, or whether an appreciative word is used in an unfavorable way. Observing context carefully seems to be the best way to catch the word's exact meaning.

3. Supplying Information of Omitted Part

As a rhetoric method, omitting is widely used in English communication. Without the instruction of context, however, omitting would probably hinder reader's understanding instead of improving it. The sentence "A rose is rose" is almost meaningless for people when they first read it. Only by getting to know the context will people catch the real meaning of the strange sentence. Then, we know that omitting would not work well without the help of the context.

From the above description, we can see that context, both linguistic and non-linguistic, plays an important role on the determination of word meaning.

Rivers (1968, p.53) suggests "introducing vocabulary items in such a way as to allow the student to infer the meaning from the context. She feels students should be encouraged to make intelligent guesses about word meanings". So we suggest a number of different context clues that can help students to infer the meaning of an unfamiliar word.

IV. CONTEXTUAL CLUES AND APPLICATIONS

A. Contextual Clues

1. Definition

The most obvious source of help is the context that acts like a dictionary and defines a word. The writer often defines the meaning of the word right in the sentence or gives enough explanation for the meaning to be clear. For example:

Desalination, or the removal of salt from seawater, is a method of providing fresh water for business, home, and agricultural use.

"The removal of salt from seawater" is the definition of "desalination". The word "desalination" may be unfamiliar to some of the readers, so the writer makes an explanation in the former sentence.

2. Synonym

Very often learners can find in the same passage a familiar word that relates to a subject in a manner similar to the way that the unfamiliar term does. For example:

Cellphones have become ubiquitous; you can use and hear them everywhere.

From the description of the events in the sentence we know that the words ubiquitous and everywhere are synonymous.

3. Antonym

Words with opposite meanings may be found in the same context. For example:

My sister thinks it is futile to study hard the night before an exam, but I find it quite useful.

We note that useful and futile are opposites, so when we see the next pair of words in a parallel construction, we can assume that futile means "useless".

4. Summary

A summary clue may sum up a situation or an idea with a word or a phrase. For example:

Mr. Brown donates money to the church, the schools, he also volunteers many hours in the nursing home. He is indeed altruistic.

From this description of Mr. Brown's deeds, readers may conclude that altruistic means unselfish.

5. Simile

A simile is a figure of speech that compares things. For this discussion, the important point is that the comparison may clarify a word's meaning. The following contexts illustrate this.

The ancient mammoth in Inner Mongolia, like other elephants, is huge.

With the help of like, the meaning of mammoth can be easily guessed out to be a kind of elephant.

6. Grouping

The appearance of a word in a series assigns it at least a general classification. For example:

The wallpaper was so colorful that I can only remember seeing yellow, aqua, and black.

This context demonstrates an important point: Knowing what a word in general (for instance, knowing that aqua is a kind of color) may be sufficient for comprehension, it may make the comprehension fluently.

7. Appositive

An appositive is another direct source of help with meanings. For example:

Thermostat, an instrument to shut off the heat when the temperature reaches 25 degree centigrade, was set in our room.

With the explanation, readers may understand the word thermostat easily.

8. Hyponymy

If the reader wants to identify the relationship between an unfamiliar word and a familiar word, he may get the relation that a general concept is accompanied by a specific example.

The garden contained almost every type of flowers: lily, tulip, morning-glory and sun flower.

Lily, tulip, morning-glory and sun flowers are of the same category, which are called hyponyms, while flower is a general term which encompasses all of the listed items. So it is easy for the readers to know the words' meaning with the help of the relationship.

B. Applications of Linguistic Context to Vocabulary Teaching

1. Applications of Linguistic Context to Vocabulary Teaching

1). To draw the readers' attention to cue words and phrases. "Signals of connection, such as and, but, that is to say and in spite of, relate sentences or parts of sentences to each other". Generally, they specify, "the way in which what is to follow is systematically connected to what has gone before". (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, p. 227)

For example:

A court stenographer, that is, a person has to be able to take down more than 250 words a minute, is greatly needed.

By introducing the function of signal words, the definition, the restatement and some related information, readers may work out the meaning of the unfamiliar word. In this way, readers become sensitive to these signals of context clues, and they became skillful in finding and using them to infer the word's meaning successfully.

2). Guiding questions is important to direct the readers into a deep search of context clues. With their limited experience, common sense and word knowledge in the target language and without the guidance of the teacher, readers may find it hard to identify context clues.

3). Do exercises that make inference of the meaning of unknown words in short contexts. In these exercises, students may be asked to explain how they infer the meaning of new words. Gradually, they may get the key point.

2. Application of Non-linguistic Context

1) Application of Situational Context

In the process of vocabulary teaching, teachers should emphasize the importance of situation. For example, "mum", "female parent", "mother" the words must be employed in suitable occasions, cannot be confused. Otherwise you make a big mistake. "Mum" is for children in their family and informal spoken word. "Mother" is neutral word. "Female parent" is a specialized term, and it can not be used in our daily life.

2) Application of Cultural Knowledge

To overcome the cultural failures, we English teachers should introduce some related cultural knowledge to students so that they can understand such words and phrases better and be informed to read more books concerning the life-styles and cultures of English-speaking countries.

The application of cultural knowledge to the teaching of vocabulary is helpful for students to understand word meaning. So in the teaching practice, teachers should encourage the students to enlarge their world knowledge, especially the knowledge about the western cultures, customs, historical events and habits, and take every chance to convey cultural knowledge to students in order to let them achieve better interpretation of English vocabulary.

V. SUMMARY AND FURTHER RESEARCH

According to the detail analysis, we get a conclusion: the understanding and utterance of the word meaning depends on context. Vocabulary teaching must be combined with context which particular words occur. It is very important for students to acquire the context information. Only with this can they catch word meaning, and strengthen the ability to

use vocabulary freely. Teachers should always take the context in vocabulary teaching into consideration.

It is also an efficient way for them to master the meanings of new words and choose appropriate words to express themselves in writing or communication.

With the limited space, not enough materials, preliminary research and other factors, the paper is only a tentative study of the application of context. And the classification and analysis of word proceeded will probably not present a complete pattern. More examples and words will be put out in the further research.

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The Adjectives of Securities English Make a Difference

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Abstract—This paper argues that the adjectives of securities English are used most flexibly. They mean differently from ordinary adjectives, so they have their own semantic meanings that can't be literally understood and translated. Otherwise misunderstandings and misinterpretations will inevitably occur. Therefore it is imperative the adjectives of securities English be carefully and profoundly studied and skillfully grasped in order that this kind of English can be faithfully and correctly understood and translated and proficiently applied.

Index Terms—adjectives, securities English, semantic meaning, flexibly, culture

I. INTRODUCTION

Adjectives are words that describe a person or a thing. The adjectives of securities English are used to describe and modify nouns of securities English. Securities include stocks, futures and bonds ect..The adjectives of securities English are extremely flexible and special in their semantic meanings, so we are to pay special attention to the semantic meaning of securities English. If we want to understand correctly securities English, first we are to know its adjectives, because we can't get their meanings by looking up in dictionaries. Here I dwell on the main features of the semantic meaning of the adjectives of securities English.

II. DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

Adjectives usually have special semantic meaning. We can't make sense of the adjectives of securities English solely by their literal meanings. Here are the details of the use of the adjectives of securities English.

A. Adjectives Are Used to Modify Listed Companies and Unlisted Companies

1. The **private company** goes public to raise money to fund the company. The **public company** can sell the shares to the public and it should conform to strict rules and regulations. It is to have a board of directors and report financial information every quarter and be overseen by governing bodies similar to SEC -- Securities Exchange Commission.

The private company here does not stand for the company that belongs to a private person but the company that has not been listed, so we can't buy or sell the shares of its stock of the company. In fact lots of state-owned companies are still private companies. The public company is not a company that belongs to the public but that the shareholders can buy or sell the shares of its stock of the company. A certain public companies still belong to a private person or some private people despite the fact that the companies have been listed.

2. Companies can be listed quickly by **reverse merger**, that is, Companies buy a shell company that has been listed to get listed. After the process the two companies become one public company that can sell the shares to the public.

Reverse merger here does not refer to do something opposite but it is a process that a private company is listed by buying shell company that has been listed.

B. Adjectives in Their Root Forms or Comparative Forms Are Used to Express Their Superlative Forms

1. China's direct investment in the United States **hit a record high** through the first nine months of 2012, despite election-year rhetoric against the country and a congressional report alleging that Chinese tech companies posed a possible threat to Us national security. (Weekend edition October 20-21, 2013, page 9, China daily)

2. Median sale price of homes in Washington, D.C., hits record **high**

3. Stocks fall to monthly **low** on growth concerns

Here high means the highest and low the lowest.

C. Adjectives Are Used to Modify the Stock Market

1. Now the stock market is a **feverish** market.

A feverish market refers to a stock market where prices change rapidly and no direction is easily identified.

2. ChiNext Index closes almost **flat**. The ChiNext Index, tracking China's Nasdaq-style board of growth enterprises, dropped 0.08 percent, or 0.73 point, to close at 882 points on Friday

A flat market refers to a market that is typified by a horizontal price movement because of little or no market activity in the security.

3. The stock market is very **heavy**.

A heavy market refers to a declining securities and commodities market created when sell orders exceed buy orders, resulting in a price drop.

4. With the Financial Crisis, the stock market is a **soft** one.

A soft market refers to a market characterized by an excess of supply over demand. A soft market in securities is marked by inactive trading, wide bid-offer spreads and pronounced price drops in response to minimal selling pressure. It is also called buyer's market.

5. We can do nothing in the **rigged** market.

A rigged market is a market in which the prices for a security are manipulated so as to lure unsuspecting buyers or sellers

D. *Adjectives Are Used to Modify Stocks or the Marketing of the Stocks*

1. Investors are **bearish** on weak economic data. Having dropped 4 percent since the start of the year, the Chinese stock market has won the label as one of the world's worst performers because of underlying macroeconomic reasons as well as market technicalities, analysts say.

Bearish refers to the fact that investors sell stocks and the price of the stock will fall.

2. People buy stocks in **bullish** phase.

Bullish phase refers to the fact that has been in the trend to rise.

3. The **accumulated earnings** of the stock are two dollars per share.

Accumulated earnings refer to the earnings that has not been allotted.

4. The **bottom line** of the stock this year is 220,356,300 dollars.

The bottom line is the term that refers to the last line in an income statement that reflects a firm's net income (profit) or net loss.

5. The listed company has a **classified loan**, so the stock of the company is weak.

A classified loan is a loan that is not paid in due time.

6. **Dead cat bounce** occurred after a steep, rapid decline of the stock price.

Dead cat bounce has nothing to do with a cat but refers to a moderate strong bounce.

7. When **abandoned baby pattern** appears, wise people buy stocks.

Abandoned baby pattern is the signal that the price of the stock will not fall again but rise.

8. I've got a **bad book**.

A bad book here refers to a situation when an investor had purchased a security and the security price had then fallen, leaving him with the choice either of holding his stock in the hope of rising in price or of selling now at a loss.

9. You can buy the stock at the **best bid** and sell it at the **best ask**.

Here best bid refers to the lowest price at which a trader is willing to sell a stock and best ask the highest price at which a trader is willing to buy a stock.

10. We undergo **net transaction** when we buy a new issue.

Net transaction refers to securities transaction in which a fee or commission is not charged for the seller and buyer. No commission is charged when people purchase a new issue. If the stock is offered at \$30 a share, the investor pays that exact or issue price.

11. The stock I have bought is now a **dirty stock**.

A dirty stock refers to a stock which is cum-dividend and close to the date for payment of interest.

12. As an investor we should buy **fine papers** and avoid any risks.

Fine papers are securities which are nearly risk-free.

13. A sound investor is to do **good buying** but not to buy the rumor and sell the news.

Good buying means that investors buy securities based on sound, reasonable information.

14. If you want to get more money in a shorter period of time, you had better buy **gray chips** not **blue chips**.

Gray chips are stocks of small-and-medium-sized companies while blue chips are the stocks of large companies with a solid record of stable earnings and dividend growth and a reputation for high quality management, products and services. Blue chips are relatively high priced and low yielding.

15. I'm very glad that the stock I have bought is a **hard spot** in the bearish phase.

A hard spot is a security that remains strong in a weak market.

16. Tom is the very speculator who always buys a **high flyer**.

A high flyer is a high-priced and highly speculative security that moves up and down sharply in price over a short period. Generally glamorous in nature due to the capital gains potential associated with them.

17. Institutional investors would like to buy **long stocks**.

A long stock is a stock that has been bought in anticipation of increasing price.

18. We are to avoid buying stocks that are **rich**.

Rich here is a term for a security whose price seems too high in light of its price history.

19. He likes a **quick turn**.

A quick turn occurs when a security is sold immediately after it is purchased, with the investor seeking short-term profits such as in day trading.

20. He always earns in the stock market. He is a **smart money**.

A smart money is a wise investor who has more knowledge and experience in the market than the average investor.

21. The stock I've bought is a **soft spot**.

Soft spots are securities that are weak when the general securities market is holding or even moving ahead.

22. Stocks tend to rise in an **easy-money** environment.

Easy money refers to increase in the amount of money available for business and individual spending as a result of reduction in the interest rate in the economy. Easy money tends to encourage investment spending and promote economic growth, which can be inflationary.

23. Now the bonds have become **fallen angels**.

Fallen angels are the bonds that were at the date of issuance investment grade but have since fallen to below investment grade because of perceived lower quality. An example is a bond that has gone when issued from A to its present rating of C.

24. We'd better not buy a **watered stock**

A watered stock is one that represents drastically overvalued assets. Assets can be overvalued for several reasons, including inflated accounting or excessive issue of stock through a stock dividend or employee stock option program. This term actually originates from the Wild West. Before taking cattle to the slaughterhouse, ranchers would feed cattle huge amounts of water. The excess water would make the cows weigh more at delivery, which meant more money for the rancher.

25. We can know the company's current liabilities by **acid test (quick) ratio**.

Acid test ratio refers to the fact that current assets less inventories divided by current liabilities. It shows a firm's ability to meet current liabilities with its most liquid (quick) assets.

26. The stocks are worth investing and the company has got more and more **treasury stocks**.

Treasury stocks are shares of stock required by an issuing corporation and available for retirement or resale. It is issued but not outstanding. It hasn't a voting right and pays or accrues no dividends. It is not included in any of the ratios measuring values per common share. Among the reasons treasury stock is created are: (1) to provide an alternative to paying taxable dividends, since the decreased amount of outstanding shares increases the per share value and often the market price; (2) to provide for the exercise of stock options and warrants and the conversion of convertible securities; (3) in countering a tender offer by a potential acquirer; (4) to alter the debt-to-equity ratio by issuing bonds to finance the reacquisition of shares; (5) as a result of the stabilization of the market price during a new issue. Also they are called reacquired stock or treasury shares).

27. Now we can buy **cyclical stocks**

Cyclical stocks are stocks whose prices are directly and significantly tied to economic conditions. If the economy is improving, stock prices rise, but if the economy is deteriorating, stock prices decline. Cyclical investing is buying or selling securities based on the point in the long-term market cycle. Cyclical stocks are somewhat risky. The automobile, steel and housing industries are all examples of cyclical business. Noncyclical stocks are not as directly affected by economic changes.

28. In bearish stock market we can buy **defensive stocks**

Defensive stocks are the opposite to cyclical stocks. They tend to do well during poor economic conditions. They are issued by the companies whose products and services enjoy a steady demand. Food and utilities stocks are defensive stocks since people typically do not cut back on their food or electricity consumption during a downturn in the economy. But although defensive stocks tend to hold up well during economic downturns, their performance during upswings in the economy tends to be lackluster/dull compared to that of cyclical stocks.

29. He is a typical speculator. He always buys **speculative stocks**.

A speculative stock is one whose worth is unproved or has or has had a history of boom and bust. Speculative stocks have the potential for very high returns. However, they are more risky than other types of stocks and investments, and investors could lose all of their money. Generally speculative stocks are issued by young companies and Small Cap companies in the resource (e.g. silver and gold), energy (e.g. coal and oil), biotech and emerging market (e.g. Internet businesses) sectors.

30. She owns some **preferred stocks** of the listed company.

A preferred stock represents partial ownership in a company, although preferred stock shareholders may not enjoy any of the voting rights of common stock shareholders mentioned above. Preferred stock promises guaranteed dividends and a claim on a company's assets over common shareholders. It gives the shareholder a claim, prior to the claim of common stockholders, on earnings and also generally on assets in the event of liquidation. Most preferred stock pays a fixed dividend that is paid prior to the common stock dividend, stated in a dollar amount or as a percentage of par value. This stock does not usually carry voting rights. The stock shares characteristics of both common stock and debt.

31. Forex purchases rise for 3rd **straight** month

This sentence means that foreign exchange purchases grew for the third consecutive month in February, releasing liquidity while adding pressure to authorities' selection of monetary policy.

32. Chinese shares closed **mixed** Friday, as the benchmark Shanghai Composite Index increased 0.01 percent, or 0.32 points, to end at 2,236.62. The Shenzhen Component Index lost 0.78 percent, or 69.49 points, to 8,889.77

Here mixed refers to the mixture of higher and lower.

33. There are signs of **short** selling in A-share market. There is insufficient evidence to show that foreign capital is aggressively underselling stocks or taking short positions in China's A-share market, a spokesman for the China Securities Regulatory Commission said on Friday

Here short means that the investors anticipate that the price of the stocks will be in a down trend, and they sell the stocks.

E. Color Adjectives Have Special Meaning

Colors in different cultures have different meanings.

The Chinese stocks close **red**, but American and European stocks **green**.

But in china we use red to express the fact that when the close is higher than the open, and green when the close is lower than the open. Meanwhile in American and western countries it is just the opposite. Green expresses the fact that when the close is higher than the open, and red when the close is lower than the open.

F. Adjectives Are Used as Adverbs

1. China's farm produce prices rise **slower**

2. Chinese stocks opened **higher** on Friday, with the benchmark Shanghai Composite Index opening at 2,203.89 points, up 0.21 percent.

G. Adverbs Are Used as Adjectives

1. The trend of the stock is a **down draft**.

A down draft is a downward movement, as of the stock market.

2. We'd better cut loss by selling the stock for there has appeared a **down gap**.

A down gap occurs when the lowest price in a given market day is higher than the highest price of the next day. An open space appears on the stock chart.

3. We can buy the stock with an **up volume** and sell it with a **down volume**.

When a stock's close price of one day is higher than the close price of the proceeding day, the volume in that stock is considered up volume and when a stock's close price of one day is lower than the close price of the proceeding day, the volume in that stock is considered down volume. Technical analysts often compare up volume to down volume to look for buy and sell signals.

I'm happy that I've got the **hard** spot.

A hard spot is a security that remains strong in a weak market.

He builds his investment portfolio by **bottom-up** approach while she **top-down** approach.

Bottom-up approach is the investment approach that plays down the significance of economic and market cycles. The attention is paid to the analysis of individual stocks. It tries to identify the specific companies and stocks that will go into the portfolio. This is the point at which if you are using a computer you see "screens," which are nothing more than filters designed to weed out companies that do not clearly fit your investment philosophy—Growth Investment or Value Investing. For example, worldlyinvestor.com (www. Worldlyinvestor.com) has ADR Screener that helps you select the criteria you are interested in to find the American Depositary Receipts that meet your investing goals.

Top-down approach is process of building an investment portfolio in such a way as to first analyze economic trends, then select a suitable industry, and finally invest in an attractive company in that industry. For the international investor, top- down research is aimed at identifying the regions or countries of the world that have the macroeconomic environments suitable to the kinds of companies and stocks that fit together with your investment philosophy---Growth Investing or Value Investing. For the value investor, that means identifying countries where markets have fallen because the economy is weak, there are political problems, or something else is undermining investor confidence. Growth investors, on the other hand, are looking for countries or regions where economic growth is shifting into high gear. That's where they expect to find companies profiting from that growth by increasing market share or providing new products or services. Also, that is where the Hot Money will soon be healed and where the stock market performance is most likely to take off.

H. Adjectives Are Used as Nouns

1. SHANGHAI Stocks advanced on the Chinese mainland, lifting the benchmark index from a one-month **low**, as airlines climbed on speculation that competition from the high-speed rail industry will fall after a train crash on Saturday.

Here low means the lowest price.

2. China's consumer price index (CPI) in June reached a three-year **high** at 6.4 percent. Expectations for the July figure, scheduled for release in mid-August, are that it might approach or even exceed the June figure.

High here means the highest price.

In a bullish market it is a good chance to buy stocks at **ascending bottoms**.

An ascending bottom is a technical analysis term for a chart pattern in which each bottom in a security's price is higher than the previous one. It is considered a bullish indicator.

I. Adjectives Are Used to Describe Investors

1. He is a **bargain hunter** in the stock market.

A bargain hunter refers to the investor who looks to buy shares at reduced prices in a period of market decline.

2. She is a **bottom fisher**.

A bottom fisher is an investor who seeks bargains among stocks whose prices have recently dropped dramatically.

3. We always ignore the broker's **cold calling**.

Cold calling refers to telephoning by a broker (usually one recently hired) on an unsolicited basis to individuals to get business such as pushing particular stocks, bonds, mutual funds, or other investment products. Some cold callers are dishonest and may recommend low quality investments and/or those securities not suitable for the particular investor.

4. He is an **independent (outside) director** of the company.

An independent director is member of the board of directors of an entity who is an outsider, meaning he or she is not an employee of that entity. An example is a broker sitting on the board of a client company. Such directors are important because they bring unbiased opinions regarding the company's decisions and diverse experience to the company's decision making process. In order not to have a conflict of interest, independent directors should not participate on the boards of directly competing business. Directors are typically compensated based on a standard fee for each board meeting.

III. ADJECTIVES ARE USED AS VERBS

1. China's January inflation **slows** to 2%.
2. Job growth **slows** just as spending cuts loom
3. Hiring slowed to 88K jobs in March; unemployment rate drops to 7.6 percent
4. China's vehicles exports topped the one-million mark for the first time in 2012.

IV. CONCLUSION

Adjectives play an extremely important role in securities English. They are the most difficult to be understood and translated and applied. The better we grasp the adjectives of securities English, the better we master securities English. I sincerely hope this article to help people better master securities English.

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The Effects of Teaching Lexical Collocations on Speaking Ability of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—The present study aimed at a) investigating the effect of teaching collocations on the speaking ability of EFL Iranian Learners, b) examining the relationship between the participants' knowledge of collocations and the participants' use of collocation taking into consideration, and c) finding out participants' attitude towards teaching collocations. To this end, after administrating the Quick Placement Test (QPT), 40 intermediate L2 learners were selected out of 80, and assigned to two experimental and control groups. For pretests, collocation test and collocation interview were run. Then, *Collocation in Use* was taught to the experimental group as a treatment. After collocation instruction, another collocation test and interview were conducted on both experimental and control group. The result of paired sample *t*-test showed that the participants' speaking ability in the experimental group significantly improved in posttest. The analyzed data also revealed that after the collocation instruction in experimental group the participants' performance in interview increased too. Moreover, the result of ANCOVA displayed that the participants had positive attitudes towards explicit instruction of collocations. This study has theoretical and pedagogical implications in the field of foreign/second language teaching and learning. It can be considered as a solution for language teachers, constantly searching for the better ways to train native-like speakers.

Index Terms—speaking ability, knowledge of collocation, use of collocation, collocation

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the most difficult tasks of foreign/ second language learners is appropriately combining words in L2. In contrast to L2 speakers, native speakers have the knowledge about which words go together and how to use the diverse words. Having such knowledge is one of the vital competencies of native speakers. These combinations of words are referred to as "collocations". The proper use of collocations is crucial to sound like a native speaker (Ellis, 1996), yet this is not so easy for non-native speakers of a target language (Vasiljevic, 2008).

Using collocations accurately is necessary in order to produce language with native-like accuracy or near-native competency. However, even advanced ESL/EFL learners have trouble with collocations. Learners in EFL settings typically have problem of lacking exposure to the target language and consequently, they are often not aware of the differences in collocational restrictions between the L1 and the L2. The gap between L1 and L2 interferes with learners' acquisition of collocations in the target language and might "even lead to lexical fossilization" (Vasiljevic, 2008, p. 3). The other difficulty in learning collocations is that learners' knowledge of collocations does not expand in parallel with their knowledge of general vocabulary. Because of their relative transparency in meaning, collocations offer L2 learners little difficulty in terms of comprehension. However, collocations are more problematic when they are used in productive skills, such as speaking and writing, than in receptive skills, such as listening and reading. Even if learners can manage to guess the meanings of collocations in receptive processes, they might not be able to use them properly in reproducing the language. Thus, producing collocations requires pedagogical treatment.

Nattinger (1988) states that the meaning of a word mostly depends on the other words that it collocates with; by the help of these collocates the learner keeps the words in memory and can easily infer the meaning from the context. He also argues that the notion of collocations is extremely important for acquiring vocabulary but its potential has not been fully utilized.

Similarly, Chan and Liou (2005) explain that teaching of collocations in English foreign language classes have not got enough attention; as a result, students learning English as a foreign language are weak in collocation use. Rather than teaching vocabulary as single lexical items which causes a lexical incompetence on the part of learners, students must be made aware of the necessity of acquiring collocations.

II. BACKGROUND

Collocations are recognized as a crucial part of language use and distinguish native speakers and non-native speakers (Ellis, 2001; Fontenelle, 1994; Herbst, 1996; Koya, 2006; Lennon, 1996; Moon, 1992; Nation, 2001; Wouden, 1997). Many researchers conducted empirical studies found EFL teachers and practitioners figured out English collocations too

diverse, yielding findings of limited practical value. For instance, numerous pioneer studies only examined EFL/ESL learners' knowledge of collocations (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; Biskup, 1992; Farghal & Obiedat, 1995; Keshavarz & Salimi, 2007; Zughoul & Abdul-Fattah, 2003) or explored how EFL/ESL learners made errors¹ of collocation (Huang, 2001; Jeng, 2006; Liu, 1999a, 1999b; Lombard, 1997; Wu, 2005). Only recently have we seen studies targeting the possible connection between collocations and general language skills (Al-Zahrani, 1998; Bonk, 2000; Sung, 2003).

One of the researches was investigated the knowledge of English lexical collocations among four academic levels of Saudi EFL university students and the relationship between the participants' collocational knowledge and their general language proficiency. Al-Zahrani found that among the different academic years there was a substantial difference in his subjects' knowledge of lexical collocations. The knowledge of lexical collocations improved with the subjects' academic years. Above and beyond, he reported that there was a strong correlation between the subjects' knowledge of collocations and their language proficiency.

Lin (2002) surveyed the impact of collocation instructions on receptive and productive collocation competence of high-achievers and low-achievers in a group of EFL high school students. The results indicated that all students made more progress in receptive collocation tests than productive ones, but low-achievers performed better in productive tests after collocation teaching. Both groups held positive attitudes toward collocation teaching activities.

Tseng (2002) divided 94 high school participants into an experimental group, who received 12 weeks of explicit collocation instruction, and a control group, who did not receive any training. After collocation instruction, the experimental group far exceeded the control group in the post-test regardless of their prior collocation levels.

Sung (2003) looked at the knowledge and use of English lexical collocations in relation to speaking proficiency of international students enrolled in a university in Pittsburgh area. A total of 72 non-native English speakers and 24 native English speakers participated in her study. Her results showed that there was a significant correlation between the knowledge of lexical collocations and the subjects' speaking proficiency.

Koosh and Jafarpour (2006) investigated the role of the Data-Driven Learning (DDL) and the concordance materials in the production of collocation of prepositions. Their findings recommended a new approach, such as DDL, towards the teaching of collocations using concordance material. They also come to this conclusion that learners' difficulty in spoken and written product is not related to their grammatical or lexical knowledge but to lack of knowledge of the words accompanies it, that is, the collocation.

Rahimi and Momeni (2012) examined the effects of teaching vocabulary through collocation and concordance techniques on language proficiency. The results showed that teaching vocabulary has an effect on the improvement of language proficiency and vocabulary teaching, be traditional methods such as translation, explanation and definition or new trend of collocation teaching of the words, can bring about a significant growth in language proficiency.

A conclusion reached by a number of studies is that learners use overall fewer collocations than native speakers (e.g. Hasselgren 1994; Howarth 1996; Kaszubski 2000; Granger 1998; Lorenz 1999) except for the small number of frequent ones which are overused (Kasuzbki, 2000). Other recurrent findings have been that learners are not aware of restrictions (e.g. Herbust, 1996; Howarth, 1996), but that they are at the same time not aware of the full combinatory potential of words they know (Channell, 1981; Granger 1998). Individual studies have indicated that learners are insecure in the production of collocations (Burgschmidt & Perkins, 1985) and that the collocation problems are more serious than general vocabulary problems (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993).

Research Questions

This study will shed light on the following questions:

- 1) Does teaching collocation have any significant effect on speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners?
- 2) Is there any relationship between participants' knowledge and use of collocations in speaking?
- 3) What are the learners' attitudes towards teaching collocations?

Research Hypotheses

The first two research questions learnt themselves to be reformulated in the form of following null hypotheses:

Ho1: Teaching collocation has no effect on speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners.

Ho2: There is no relationship between the participants' knowledge of collocation and the participants' use of collocations in vocabulary.

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants who were studying at intermediate level were selected. They took Quick Oxford Placement Test (QOP) and 40 out of 80 were chosen to participate in this study. They were 31 females and 9 males with the age range of 17 to 32. All of them spoke Persian as the same mother language and they had never lived abroad. They had been studying English for 2 years at Shokouhe Tarbiat Institute in Isfahan. They had been learning English through *American Headway Book 3* at intermediate level.

Instrument

In this study, the participants were given QPT test, a collocations test, a collocation interview and they answered a questionnaire before and after the treatment.

For selecting the intermediate students, QPT, version1, was used. This test is divided into two parts: Part 1 (Questions 1-40) and Part 2 (Questions 41-60). The participants whose proficiency scores of the test were between one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected to take part in this study.

Collocation test which was used as the pretest and posttest involved 30 multiple choice items. It was administrated to all forty students with the scores from 0 to 30. All of collocations were selected according to 10 units of '*English Collocations in Use*' which is written by Michael McCarthy and Felicity O'Dell. Reliability of collocation test was calculated and it was 0.82.

Then the participants took part in a ten-minute interview, as a pretest and posttest, with the aim of considering the effects of teaching collocations on speaking ability. The 10-minute interview consisted of twenty questions in two parts: comprehension and production. In the comprehension part interviewer asked 10 questions which included collocations and students had to comprehend them to answer.

Next, the students answered other ten questions to produce the collocations. They had to talk about some topics, describe some pictures and complete some sentences to use the collocations. Each question had one score and the total score was out of twenty. The inter-rater reliability was calculated (.899) which is significant at the $p = 0.01$.

A questionnaire was given to the participants before and after the treatment to collect information about participants' attitude in learning collocation. This questionnaire shed light on the better ways of learning collocations for intermediate students.

IV. PROCEDURE

First, QPT was given to 80 students. This placement test consisted of 60 items with 30 vocabulary items and 30 grammar items. This test was given to four classes that involved 20 students in it. They were permitted to answer it in only in 30 minutes. The aim of this test was to homogenize and select intermediate level students. Forty out of eighty students were selected. Then, they were divided into two groups: 20 students in the control group and 20 students in the experimental group.

All of forty students were fallen through pre-tests including a collocation test, an interview and a questionnaire. Only 20 minutes was allocated for answering the 30-item collocation test. The participants had to choose one of the four choices to fill in the gaps with the correct collocations. After that, each one took part in an interview with 20 questions. It took each participant 10 minutes to answer them. Students circled the best choice on the questionnaire according to their attitudes of learning English collocations.

After the pretest session, students in the experimental group were engaged in a treatment which was ten sessions on learning lexical collocations. Each session was one hour and three times in a week. In the first session, they were taught one unit of the book '*English Collocation in Use*'. They were asked to practice the collocation exercises by making example sentences in which those collocations were used. Then, they had to do the exercises in the following pages. In the second session, the instructor went through the new units, after she made some questions of the previous unit. This procedure was the same for following sessions. The selection of these units, as it was mentioned in this book, was based on more useful collocations in written and spoken English and the collocations which were less obvious and the Cambridge Corpus shows can be problematic.

One week after the treatment, as the posttest, another collocation completion test which was parallel to the first one was administrated along with 10-minute interview was conducted. Again the collocation questionnaire was given to the participants in order to determine the possible changes in their attitudes of learning vocabulary through lexical collocations.

During these four weeks of experiment, while the experimental group used the lexical collocations, the control group didn't receive lexical collocations instruction. The other procedures like time limits, the content of completion test and interview (in pre and post test) were the same for control group.

V. RESULT

Descriptive Statistics for Oxford Proficiency Test

As it was previously mentioned, 31 female and 9 male students participated in this study were studying English as a foreign language at Shokouhe Tarbiyat Institute in Isfahan. In order to make sure that the participants had enough knowledge of vocabulary, an Oxford Placement Test developed by Allen (2004) was administrated in 30 minutes. Table 1.1 shows the number of students, mean and standard deviation.

TABLE 1.1
RESULTS OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF OPT

Group Statistics					
	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
OPT	experimental	20	31.50	2.373	.531
	control	20	31.35	1.814	.406

40 students whose scores were 1 SD above and 1 SD below the mean were selected from the main sample. The table displays that experimental group and the control group were found to be at similar levels of English proficiency because their means are fairly similar (control group=31.50, experimental group=31.35). To find out whether these two means are statistically different or not, an independent samples *t*-test was run in Table 1.2.

TABLE 1.2
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF OPT

Independent Samples Test										
		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	
OPT	Equal variances assumed	.043	.836	.225	38	.824	.150	.668	-1.202	1.502
	Equal variances not assumed			.225	35.556	.824	.150	.668	-1.205	1.505

The above table shows that the experimental group and the control group were equal in terms of English proficiency before the treatment, $t(38) = .22, p > .05$. In other words, the mean score of control group was not distinctly different from the mean score of experimental group in English proficiency before the treatment.

Results of Pre-tests

Before the treatment a collocation test was given to participants to measure their knowledge of collocation. In addition, they were asked to sit for a collocation interview to measure their ability in using of collocations in their speaking. Table 1.3 displays the mean and standard deviation.

TABLE 1.3
RESULTS OF COLLOCATION PRETEST AND INTERVIEW PRETEST

Group Statistics					
	group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
collocation pretest	experimental	20	6.65	1.599	.357
	control	20	6.20	2.167	.484
interview pretest	experimental	20	6.70	.979	.219
	control	20	6.25	1.446	.323

As the table shows the mean scores of collocation test for experimental group and control group are 6.65 and 6.20, which indicates that they had nearly similar knowledge of collocations. The mean score of participants on interview pretest for the experimental group was 6.70 and for the control group was 6.25 showing that both groups were fairly similar in terms of collocation knowledge and collocation use.

Two independent Sample *t*-test were run to find out any significant differences in pretests. Table 1.4 shows the results.

TABLE 1.4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF PRETESTS

Independent Samples Test										
		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	
collocation pretest	Equal variances assumed	1.781	.190	.747	38	.459	.450	.602	-.769	1.669
	Equal variances not assumed			.747	34.956	.460	.450	.602	-.772	1.672
interview pretest	Equal variances assumed	8.171	.007	1.152	38	.256	.450	.391	-.341	1.241
	Equal variances not assumed			1.152	33.383	.257	.450	.391	-.344	1.244

As the table represents, the amount of *t* for collocation pretest is $t(38) = .7747, p > .05$. It indicates that the result is not significantly different between the mean scores of two groups. For interview pretest, it shows $t(38) = 1.125, p > .05$. It means that the differences between the participants' mean scores in both control and experimental group in the pretest are not significant. In other words, there were no significant differences between the performances of participants in control and experimental groups in pretests and before the treatment. In fact, both groups were homogeneous regarding knowledge of collocations before the treatment.

Results of the Effects of Teaching Collocations on the Speaking Ability of EFL learners

The first research question aimed to examine significant effects of teaching collocations on speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. In order to answer this question, the descriptive statistics participants' performances on the pretests and posttests of the control group (CG) and the experimental group (EG) were calculated. Table 4.5 tabulates the descriptive statistics of the control group and experimental group.

TABLE 1.5
RESULTS OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE CG AND EG IN PRETEST AND POSTTEST

PairedSamples Statistics						
group			Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
experimental	Pair 1	collocation pretest	6.65	20	1.599	.357
		collocation posttest	18.95	20	4.032	.902
	Pair 2	interview pretest	6.70	20	.979	.219
		interview posttest	14.90	20	2.713	.607
control	Pair 1	collocation pretest	6.20	20	2.167	.484
		collocation posttest	6.45	20	1.669	.373
	Pair 2	interview pretest	6.25	20	1.446	.323
		interview posttest	5.05	20	1.276	.285

As the table shows the mean score of the experimental group has increased from collocation pretest (6.65) to collocation posttest (18.95). The same rise is easily noticeable in interview pretest (6.70) to posttest interview (14.90). For control group, the mean scores of collocation tests also increase, but this rise is trivial from pretest (6.20) to posttest (6.45). The performance of control group on interview from pretest (6.25) to posttest (5.05) decreases.

Table 1.6 shows the homogeneity of the participants in both control and experimental groups by running an independent sample *t*-test.

TABLE 1.6
RESULT OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF THE CG AND EG

PairedSamples Test			Paired Differences					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
group			Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
experimental	Pair 1	collocation pretest - collocation posttest	-12.300	3.962	.886	-14.154	-10.446	-13.885	19	.000
		interview pretest - interview posttest	-8.200	2.215	.495	-9.237	-7.163	-16.558	19	.000
control	Pair 1	collocation pretest - collocation posttest	-.250	1.118	.250	-.773	.273	-1.000	19	.330
		interview pretest - interview posttest	1.200	1.642	.367	.432	1.968	3.269	19	.004

As the table represents, the difference between participants' collocation performance from pretest to the posttest in the control group is not significant, $t(19) = 1.000$, $p = .330 > .05$. In other word, there is no significant improvement in the control group from pretest to posttest. The paired sample test for control group indicates that participants' interview performance from pretest to posttest is negatively affected, $t(19) = 3.269$, $p = .004 < .05$. In other word, participants answered fewer oral questions in posttest than pretest. It seems that they avoided producing the collocations.

In contrast to control group, the experimental group performed significantly better from pretest to posttest on the collocation test, $t(19) = 13.88$, $p = .000 < .05$. It is as different as participants' interview performance in experimental group, $t(19) = 16.558$, $p = .000 < .05$. In other word, the performance of the participants in the experimental group significantly improved from pretest to posttest in both collocation and interview tests. Therefore, based on the obtained and analyzed data, it can be concluded that teaching collocations had a positive and significant effect on the participants' speaking ability.

Result of the Relationship between Participants' Knowledge of collocation and Participants' Use of Collocation

The purpose of the second research question was to determine whether there was any relationship between participants' knowledge of collocations and participants' use of collocations. The Pearson Correlation was used to

measure correlations between the scores of knowledge of lexical collocations and use of collocations among all subjects. The results displays in Table 1.7.

TABLE 1.7
RESULTS OF PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN COLLOCATION TEST AND COLLOCATION INTERVIEW IN PRE AND POSTTEST

Correlations					
		collocation pretest	interview pretest	collocation posttest	interview posttest
collocation pretest	Pearson Correlation	1	-.045	.280	.139
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.785	.080	.393
	N	40	40	40	40
interview pretest	Pearson Correlation	-.045	1	.326*	.331*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.785		.040	.037
	N	40	40	40	40
collocation posttest	Pearson Correlation	.280	.326*	1	.934**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.080	.040		.000
	N	40	40	40	40
interview posttest	Pearson Correlation	.139	.331*	.934**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.393	.037	.000	
	N	40	40	40	40

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

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

As the table displays, Pearson correlation between collocation test and collocation interview in pretests was $r = 0.04$ < $p = 0.05$. In other words, the relationship was not significant between participants' knowledge and use of collocations or it is better to say that there was no relationship between collocation knowledge and collocation use among participants.

After the treatment, results revealed that the relationship between knowledge of lexical collocations' scores and use of lexical collocations' scores was positively correlated. Statistically significant correlation existed between the collocation knowledge's scores and collocation use's scores for the participants ($r = .94$ > $p = 0.05$). In brief, there was a positive correlation between participants' knowledge and use of collocations

Result of Learning Collocation Questionnaire

The last question of this study concerned participants' perceptions and opinions about the learning collocations and its impact on speaking. To analyze the questions individually before and after the treatment, first the descriptive statistics were calculated. Tables 1.8 show the results.

TABLE 1.8
RESULTS OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR LEARNING COLLOCATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Paired Samples Statistics					
group		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
experimental	Pair 1 q1	3.50	20	.946	.212
	1 q1	2.60	20	.883	.197
	Pair 2 q2	2.70	20	1.455	.325
	2 q2	1.95	20	1.146	.256
	Pair 3 q3	3.15	20	.813	.182
	3 q3	2.65	20	1.137	.254
	Pair 4 q3	3.25	20	.910	.204
	4 q3	3.55	20	.945	.211
	Pair 5 q3	2.35	20	.933	.209
	5 q3	2.75	20	.967	.216
	Pair 6 q4	2.90	20	.718	.161
	6 q4	3.60	20	.503	.112
	Pair 7 q5	1.75	20	1.209	.270
	7 q5	2.20	20	1.005	.225
	Pair 8 q6	3.55	20	.826	.185
	8 q6	3.70	20	1.081	.242
	Pair 9 q7	3.10	20	1.119	.250
	9 q7	3.55	20	.999	.223
	Pair 10 q8	2.65	20	1.496	.335
	10 q8	3.00	20	1.451	.324
	Pair 11 q9	3.45	20	1.276	.285
	11 q9	3.40	20	1.188	.266
	Pair 12 q10	4.05	20	1.050	.235
	12 q10	4.80	20	.410	.092
	Pair 13 q11	3.65	20	1.040	.233
	13 q11	3.85	20	.875	.196

For determining its level of significant sample t-tests were run. Table 1.9 represents the results.

TABLE 1.9
RESULT OF PAIRED-SAMPLE T-TEST FOR LEARNING COLLOCATION QUESTIONNAIRE

Paired Samples Test										
			Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
			Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
						Lower				Upper
group			Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
experimental	Pair 1	q1 - q1	.900	1.210	.270	.334	1.466	3.327	19	.004
	Pair 2	q2 - q2	.750	1.251	.280	.164	1.336	2.680	19	.015
	Pair 3	q3 - q3	.500	1.670	.373	-.282	1.282	1.339	19	.196
	Pair 4	q3 - q3	-.300	1.218	.272	-.870	.270	-1.101	19	.285
	Pair 5	q3 - q3	-.400	1.353	.303	-1.033	.233	-1.322	19	.202
	Pair 6	q4 - q4	-.700	.733	.164	-1.043	-.357	-4.273	19	.000
	Pair 7	q5 - q5	-.450	1.099	.246	-.964	.064	-1.831	19	.083
	Pair 8	q6 - q6	-.150	1.137	.254	-.682	.382	-.590	19	.562
	Pair 9	q7 - q7	-.450	1.317	.294	-1.066	.166	-1.528	19	.143
	Pair 10	q8 - q8	-.350	1.663	.372	-1.128	.428	-.941	19	.358
	Pair 11	q9 - q9	.050	1.638	.366	-.716	.816	-.137	19	.893
	Pair 12	q10 - q10	-.750	.967	.216	-1.202	-.298	-3.470	19	.003
	Pair 13	q11 - q11	-.200	1.196	.268	-.760	.360	-.748	19	.464

The mean scores of experimental group for questions 1, 2, 4 and 10 are respectively .900, .750, .700 and .750. They are significant at $t(19) = .004$, $t(19) = .015$, $t(19) = .000$ and $t(19) = .003$.

Within the learning collocation questionnaire items, the purpose of items, 1 and 2 were to determine the participants' attitudes towards teaching collocations on their speaking ability. For these two items the number of scales was revised; totally disagreement = 5, partially disagreement = 4, no comment = 3, partially Agree = 2 and totally Agree = 1. The following table shows the results of this investigation.

TABLE 1.10
RESULTS OF ITEMS 1 AND 2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Item One	Valid 5	1	5.0	5.0	5
	4	10	50.0	50.0	55.0
	3	5	25.0	25.0	80.0
	2	4	20.0	20.0	100.0
	Total	20	100	100	
Item Two	Valid 5	9	45.0	45.0	45.0
	4	6	30.0	30.0	75.0
	3	3	15.0	15.0	90.0
	2	1	5.0	5.0	95.0
	1	1	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	20	20	20	

Table 1.11 displays the frequency and percentage of the participants' choices regarding the effects of collocation instruction on their speaking ability. The scale of partially disagree = 4 and totally disagree = 5 have the highest frequency. It shows their positive attitudes towards learning collocation and the relationship between collocation knowledge and their speaking ability. In other words, students believe that collocation instruction makes them to focus on the words accompanying and recall them while they are speaking.

Items 4 and 10 intended to determine the participants' attitudes to how important collocation learning is in classroom setting. Table 1.12 represents the results.

TABLE 1.12
RESULTS OF ITEMS 4 AND 10

		Frequency	percent	Valid percent	Cumulative percent
Item Four	Valid 3	8	40.0	40.0	40.0
	4	12	60.0	60.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	
Item Ten	Valid 4	4	20.0	20.0	20.0
	5	16	80.0	80.0	100.0
	Total	20	100.0	100.0	

Table 1.12 indicates the frequency of choices the participants selected regarding teaching collocations. The scales of very important = 4 and totally agree = 5 have the highest frequency. In other words, participants agreed that collocation instruction is very important in English learning. As the participants mentioned learning collocations in classroom setting is the best way for learning collocations. The frequency of choices the participants selected regarding these items indicates their positive attitudes towards learning collocations in classroom setting.

VI. DISCUSSION

In the present study, an attempt was made to investigate the impact of teaching collocations on speaking ability of intermediate EFL Iranian learners. This experimental research supports the claim that the teaching of collocation has a direct influence on the learners' speaking ability. There is almost lack of literature to be compared with this study. In

this domain, Tim Hus (2008) and his colleagues in their study sought to find appropriate answer to this question. They wanted to know whether the knowledge and use of English lexical collocations is related to speaking proficiency of Taiwanese EFL students enrolled in a university in Taiwan. Like the present study, they used instruments such as a collocation test and speaking tests to collect appropriate data. The first test was used to measure the participants' knowledge of collocations by the participants' scores on the fill-in the-blank lexical collocations while the latter was used to elicit the participants' use of lexical collocations and their speaking proficiency by the participants' scores in Pear Film test and Phone Pass spoken English test. In contrary to present study, this study did not employ any collocation instruction treatment and the researcher participated EFL junior university students.

Therefore, the result of the present study is partly in contrast and partly in accordance with the result of that study. In Tim Hus et al.'s study, the comparison of data indicated that the more collocation knowledge the speaker had, the more proficient the speaker was. The result of Tim Hus's study is the same as the present study which there is a significant correlation between the knowledge of lexical collocation and the subjects' speaking proficiency. On the other hand, in Tim Hus et al.'s study there was no significant relationship between the use of collocation and speaking proficiency of learners, although in the present study the use of collocation proved the learners' speaking ability.

Regarding the second research question, the analysis of the data reveals that collocation knowledge improved use of collocations in intermediate Iranian EFL learners. The result conform some other scholars (e.g. Gitsaki, 1996; Lombard, 1997; Tseng, 2002). This result also obtained in Al-Zahrani's (1998) study. In that study, the researcher investigated the relationship between English lexical collocation knowledge and their general language proficiency among four academic levels of university students. The data, received by a cloze test and TOFEL test, showed the strong correlation between the participants' knowledge of collocations and their use of collocations, which is in line the result of the current study.

In another study, Tseng (2002) compared an experimental group, received 12 weeks of explicit collocation instruction, and a control group who was not under the treatment procedure. The results of that study like the present study showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group on participants' collocation use.

While Zhang (1993) took consideration of writing skill in their studying, they also reached the conclusion that collocation knowledge is in relation to use collocation among intermediate students. It is while the participants of Zhang's study (1993) were also the same as the present study but participants were divided in two groups of native and non-native speakers of English. Zhang's study showed English native speakers used more collocations in their writings than non-native speakers. The present study also improved its positive effects on the intermediate level group.

Moreover, the result of the present study is partly in accordance and partly in contrast with the results of study conducted on different L1. Howarth's study (1996) demonstrated verb-noun combinations in a corpus of 10 essays were fewer in nonnative speakers than native speakers. However, the result of Howarth's (1996) study was a little bit different that there was no relationship between the knowledge of collocations and the collocation used. Contrary, the present study showed that the knowledge of collocations affected on participants' collocation use.

Concerning the last research question, i.e., the participants' attitudes concerning collocation instruction, the finding of the present study was again in accordance with some other studies (Abdaoui, 2010; Çakır & Balci, 2011).

There are several possible explanations for the beneficial effects of explicit collocation instruction in this study. The result of this study gives evidence to support that teaching collocations that enhances speaking ability in EFL contexts results in empowering students in three ways: first, they can use language that they already partly know. Second, the rate of processing and producing of language is much faster by learning collocations and, third, increasing their awareness that they can identify the powerful partnerships in a text (Daniela Forquera, 2006).

According to Warning (1997), instead of learning individual words, our mind tend to use chunks in a way that when we are going to speak or write, it is more efficient to remember chunks or phrases rather than constructing single words at once. Additionally, he states that native speakers will consciously predict what they are going to say. Therefore, if a non-native speaker uses unusual phrases, it becomes hard to comprehend. An increase in students' knowledge of collocations results in the improvement of their oral and reading comprehension. It means, since grammar, vocabulary and meaning work together to make a learner competent in language, it will be a mistake to neglect any of them or not to pay enough attention to them (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1990)

VII. CONCLUSION

To summarize, the major goal of the present study was to determine the extent to which lexical collocation teaching, especially the use of collocation knowledge, can develop L2 learners speaking proficiency. It is done while making L2 learners native-like and fluent speaker which is one of the teachers' aim.

The findings of this study reveal that teaching lexical collocation is a useful mean to maximize collocation knowledge, having positive effects on Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability. It appears that through the use of collocation knowledge, L2 learners can manage to have more control over speaking ability in English and comprehend the ideas within the dialogues and conversations. In addition, L2 learners' responses to collocation questionnaire confirmed that they have positive attitudes towards learning collocation in classroom settings and its impact upon speaking ability.

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Techniques of the Translation of Culture <i>Xiao Geng</i>	977
Review of Wolfgang Iser and His Reception Theory <i>Yanling Shi</i>	982
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A Probe into the Profile of Tom Sawyer in <i>The Adventures of Tom Sawyer</i> <i>Shuqin Li</i>	1021
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