Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

The Pragmatic Analysis of Wilde's Comedy: The Importance of Being Ernest

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Abstract—This paper attempts to pragmatically analyze the verbal behavior of the protagonists of Oscar Wilde's play '*The importance of being Ernest*'. The goal of the research is to investigate the conversations in this literary genre, comedy of manners, from a pragmatic perspective. The analysis covers various pragmatic concepts such as implicature and conversational maxims. The focus of interest is the dyads which create triggers for particular implications in this literary genre. This paper applies Grice's Cooperative Principle to this literary genre to explore which conversational maxims are observed, flouted or violated, and to identify whether the speakers violate the maxims deliberately, unostentatiously or unconsciously. It then illustrates the implicature behind the violated maxim. The results of this study show that in most cases speakers tend to violate the Grice's four maxims of Quality, Manner, Quantity, and Relation respectively, in order to create the intended implicatures.

Index Terms—Grice's maxims, implicature, cooperative principle, pragmatics

I. INTRODUCTION

Since the inception of the discipline of linguistics, linguists have begun to provide a comprehensive theory of language as a specialized tool for the communication of thoughts, feeling, and purposes. To this end, a number of theories have been written according to the linguists' foci and interests. One of these approaches is 'pragmatics' whose main aim of communication is the exchange of information. Pragmatics comes forth as an independent field of study mainly due to the frequent failures of semantics in providing sufficient explanations with respect to meaning. While semantics concentrates on the literal meaning of an expression, it does not consider the context in which it is expressed (Cutting, 2002). Pragmatics, on the contrary, realizes the importance of context, especially in showing the meaning underlying a certain expression. Thomas (1995) explains that meaning in semantics is the dictionary meanings of words or phrases, while meaning in pragmatics is the speaker's intention. Thus, meaning in pragmatics is different from meaning in semantics in connection with a speech situation.

According to Thomas (1995), the interlocutors take physical, social, and linguistic contexts as well as the potential meaning of the utterances into account to make the appropriate meaning in an exchange. In fact, pragmatics caters for not only the exact and literal meaning of words and sentences, but also the various aspects of meaning that come from the intention of the speaker, linguistic performance, and the background knowledge of the speaker and listener. Thomas (1995) defines pragmatics as "meaning in interaction, since this takes into account of the different contribution of both speaker and hearer as well as that of utterance and context to the making of meaning' (p. 23). Yule (1985) explains pragmatics as a branch of language that focuses on how participants interpret what they mean. Meaning in pragmatics has a central role in communication which occurs in social organization; therefore, pragmatics takes into consideration both the study of meaning and parts of linguistics which connect language with social, psychological and philosophical aspects of linguistics.

Aitchison (1995) emphasizes that in a narrow sense pragmatics investigates how listeners get the intended meaning of the speakers, whereas in a broader sense it concerns with certain principles followed by interlocutors when communicating with each other. Yule (1996) believes that people are members of various social groups and follow principles or certain patterns of behavior which are expected within the group. Grice (1989) argues that people basically try to cooperate to convey their intentions and construct meaningful conversations. Grice (1975) proposes that conversation is based on a shared principle of cooperation, and his work on the Cooperative Principle (CP) led to the development of pragmatics as a distinct discipline within linguistics. Since the major aim of communication in pragmatics is to give and receive information, people try to adopt a cooperative behavior to convey their intentions and transfer their utterances implicitly. In this regard, Grice (1975) points out that communication acts depend on the Cooperative Principle and interlocutors try to be cooperative with each other in most of the conversational exchanges, and proposes some principles in order to account for the cooperative behavior of participants in their conversations.

Grice (1975) explained both cooperative principle and conversational implicature in his article "Logic and Conversation" and claimed that the process of producing and perceiving of these implicatures is based on the following principles: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which is occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (p. 48). It is clear that the concept of rationality plays an important role in his discussion of cooperation and the Cooperative Principle tries to make explicit rational

principles which are observed by people through conversation. Grice's theory rests on the assumption that there is a distinction between saying and meaning, therefore, speakers can produce the implicit meaning and their listeners are able to perceive that intended meaning from their conversations. He argues that participants follow certain rules and patterns in their conversations; consequently, they are expected to make their utterances informative and relevant.

A. Grice's Maxims

Grice (1975) developed four conversational maxims, which are subsumed under a general principle he called the Cooperative Principle:

1. Quantity

Speaker's contribution is as informative as required.

2. Quality

Speaker tells the truth or provides adequate evidence for his/her statement.

3. Relation

Speaker's response is relevant to the topic of the conversation.

4. Manner

Speaker speaks straightforwardly and clearly and avoids ambiguity or obscurity.

These maxims identify a particular set of patterns in interaction and speakers are expected to make their utterances informative, truthful, clear and relevant. Grice (1989) believes that these conversational maxims help participants to produce inferences beyond the surface meaning of an utterance. Bowe and Martin (2006) state that if interlocutors are engaged in a cooperative conversation, these maxims will show the norms that listener can expect speakers to have followed. Grice (1989) divides inferences into two categories: first, inferences that are straightforward and listener can get the speaker's intention directly, second, inferences that are conveyed by violating those maxims, which are called 'implicature' by Grice (1975).

According to Davies (2008), when the semantic content of utterances does not follow the Gricean maxims, while the speaker is engaged in CP, the audience should go beyond the surface to understand the implied meaning of the utterance. Grice (1989) describes that speakers sometimes fail to observe a maxim, and makes a distinction among three types of implicatures in which a maxim is flouted, violated or clashed. In the first case, the interlocutor breaks the maxims deliberately to create meaning. In the second case, the speaker may be misled due to hidden non-cooperation, and in the last case, the interlocutor cannot accomplish a maxim in order to observe the social convention of politeness.

According to Thomas (1995), utterances may conform to the maxims or may disobey them by infringing, opting out, and flouting or violating. The infringement of the maxims is because of the speaker's imperfect knowledge of linguistic. When speakers decided to be uncooperative, they opt out of observing the maxims. The flouting of the maxims occurs "when speakers appear not to follow the maxims but expect hearers to appreciate the meaning implied…" (Cutting, 2003, p. 37), therefore, the speakers break the maxims intentionally while trying to be cooperative in the conversation. In this case, the speakers deliberately violate the maxims which would result in misinterpretation. Levinson (1983) declares that it is the hearer who needs to determine what the speakers utter as conforming to or violating the maxims to a certain degree.

II. OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

The present study tries to analyse the conversations in a literary genre called 'comedy of manners', especially the work of Oscar Wilde (1895) '*The Importance of Being Ernest*', to investigate which maxims are the most frequent violated maxims and how are these maxims are violated which has not been studied in this literary genre yet. Therefore, this study selects the dyads which create triggers for particular implications in this literary genre, next, applies cooperative principle to this literary genre to see which maxims are violated, then, identifies whether the speaker violates the maxims deliberately, unostentatiously or unconsciously, and finally illustrates the implicature behind violating the maxims.

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

As mentioned before recognizing the conversational implicature has a central role in understanding a text or discourse. Thus, the main concern of this study is to identify the role of the conversational implicature in comprehension of a written text or a spoken one. Related to pedagogical aspects of pragmatic competence Devine (1982) holds that for learning a second language well learner should acquire discourse structure and communicative competence as well as grammatical forms. A reader or listener who does not possess enough knowledge about the conversational implicature will not be able to get the intended message or may even understand it wrongly. Richards (2006) concludes that second language learners need to acquire not only grammatical forms, but also conversational competence which is one of the important dimensions of the second language learning. He also believes that depending on the degree of universality of the Gricean maxims, they would be relevant to conversation in a second language.

Therefore, the significance of this study is of the following perspectives: first, it is an attempt to examine how it is possible to convey an intended meaning through conversational maxims; second, the findings of this study may have some pedagogical benefits for both the teachers to use the pragmalinguistic aspects of the language in their teaching

programs, and learners of EFL and ESL courses to understand the utterances correctly. Third, it is hoped that this study will help translators, since an awareness of the conversational implicature will give them new possibilities and enable them to translate the meaning of the speaker to their appropriate equivalents.

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

Since the notion of Cooperative Principle and the conversational maxims introduced by Grice in 1975, a number of studies have been done in order to examine its universality, applicability and predictability in relation to different types of spoken and written language within different situation and cultures. Some of those are: Devine (1982), Bouton (1988), Sarami, (1993), Alvaro (2011), and Kheirabadi and Aghagolzadeh (2012).

Devine (1982) managed two pilot studies; in the first study he assessed the universality of the conversational maxims noted by Grice in 1976 and also examined the process of creating implicatures. By comparing the degree of comprehension of the given implicature instances in English, he tested the ability of the understanding of implicature in L2, among native and non-native speakers of English. Devine (1982) chose 15 L2 language students and 15 American students as his subjects. The L2 students were in advanced English classes at Michigan State University. Their levels were determined by placement test. This group consisted of ten males and five females with various language backgrounds such as, Farsi, Japanese, Spanish, and Korean, and their ages ranged from 18 to 43. The other group, namely American students, studied in an introductory level course on language at Michigan State University. This group consisted of eight females and seven males who ranged in age from 19 to 28. They were given brief descriptions of 15 situations to read, and all contained an example of conversational implicature. Researcher devoted three scores to the responses: a) the subjects got the message, b) the subjects didn't get the message, c) it was not possible to determine. The conversational implicatures were based on the three suggested types by Grice (1976) as: flouting and clashing of maxims, and also unstated connection between statements. The results showed that the two groups understood the same, with a little difference; however, in the case of flouting the maxim of Quantity the data were more problematic. Although in different cultures there are different interpretations.

Bouton, L.F. (1988) drew attention to the crucial role of cultural background by performing the following pilot study. He considered two basic assumptions in his study: first, American native speakers of English were asked to interpret some utterances, and if they drew the same implicatures and interpreted in the same way, then it could be a native speaker (NS) norm. Then nonnative speakers' (NNS) responses compared with NS norms in a multiple-choice test in order to identify the extent to which NSs and NNSs interpret the same implicatures in the same way. The second assumption was that, researchers provided a brief description of a situation with enough contextual information within a short dialogue, then a native speaker allowed to interpret any implicature recognized in the dialogue.

To test these two assumptions, the researcher provided a number of open-ended questions and distributed to 60 American NSs and 79 NNSs. They were asked to read a description of a situation within a dialogue in which each character conveyed a message by using implicatures and following each dialogue there was a question leading the subjects to guess the message within the utterance. Then subjects were asked to state the intended meaning of the speaker by their own words. Their responses to the open-ended questions supported two mentioned assumptions, and the most influential NS interpretation made the counterpart multiple-choice questions and distributed them to 436 NNSs entering the University of Illinois. A second group of 28 American NSs served as the controlled group. Time limit was not considered in the test, the cultural background of the subjects was an independent variable, and the individual's score on the implicature test was the dependent variable. Seven different groups of the study were: Germans, Spanish/Portuguese, Taiwanese/Chinese, Koreans, Japanese, Mainland Chinese and Americans. He observed that implicature tests even for NSs did not have the same difficulty and some types of implicatures were easier than such as the maxim of Relevance, but the maxim of Quantity were more difficult than the others, he also considered the influence of cultural background on the performance on both difficult and easy items. The results of the data analysis revealed that NSs interpreted the implicatures of the dialogue in a different way from NNSs. Related to the degree of influence of the cultural background on the performance of subjects in drawing implicatures, Bouton (1988) concluded that employing implicature in cross-cultural communication is a potential obstruction to the success of their interaction.

Sarami (1993) carried out another study which again showed the role of implicature within a text. He picked up 105 Persian dyads from four current satiric periodicals such as Golagha, Khorjin, Tanz va Karikator and Juvalduz. He analyzed Persian satires in terms of observing or violating Gricean maxims in order to find out the conversational implicatures. The obtained results revealed that in most cases, Persian satires tend to observe Gricean maxims, but the other cases showed a tendency to violate Grice's four maxims in order to produce implicatures which are orderly: first, the maxim of Quality; second, the maxim of Manner; third, the maxim of Quantity, and forth; the maxim of Relation. Sarami (1993) concluded that there is a high frequency of violating the maxim of Quality in Persain satires which demand the reader or receiver much less thinking. Therefore, the reader can get intended meaning of the satire by exploiting his/her background knowledge and knowing the meaning of the words. In contrast, when the maxims of Quantity, manner and relation are violated, the reader cannot understand the conversational implicature by relying only on the present wording of the text.

Alvaro (2011) conducted a pragmatic analysis of the use of presupposition and implicatures as fundamental resources in Woody Allen's film *Anything Else*. The author investigated 59 scenes of this film and analyzed the characters'

interactions quantitatively. The results show that presupposition and implicature, especially those that generated by the non-observance of the Gricean maxims and their flouting, play an important role in the creation of humor in this film.

Kheirabadi and Aghagolzadeh (2012) reviewed a wide range of Galtung and Rouge's news values (newsworthiness of an event) lists suggested by media scholars and linguists from 50 years ago and propose Grice's cooperative maxims as linguistic set of news values. The authors indicated that an indispensible number of news values, which are defined clearly by media researchers in recent decades, are rewording of these maxims. In fact, journalists are aware of these pragmatic maxims while writing their news events.

V. METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The subjects of this study are characters in English comedy in which men and women living under specific social codes, especially the codes of the middle and upper classes which are marked by elegance, wit, and sophistication.

Materials of the study

The data for the present study is based on the implicatures taken from '*The importance of being Ernest*,' written by Wilde, O. (1895).

Data analysis

By adopting pragmatics and conversation analysis, the selected comedy will be analyzed as follows:

First, those dyads in which there are triggers of maxim violating will be picked up. Second, those dyads will be studied carefully to determine which maxims are flouted. Third, the implicatures behind the violation will be defined. The fourth stage would be to categorize those dyads under the four Gricean maxims.

VI. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The data for the existing study include those conversations in which there are traces of violating a number of Gricean maxims. The analysis of the data is based on the conversational maxims and implicatures. The selected samples are as follows:

(1) Algernon: Did you hear what I was playing, Lane?

   Lane: I did not think it is polite to listen, sir.

Lane ostentatiously violating the maxim of Quality, he could simply have replied: 'No' – this would give the maximum amount of information possible in the situation. Instead, Lane gives a more informative response. Thus, he conveys the existent difference between middle and upper classes. (p. 5)

(2) Algernon: How are you, my dear Ernest? What brings you up to town?

   Jack: Oh, pleasure, pleasure! What else should bring one anywhere? Eating as usual, I see, Algy!

In this conversation the maxim of Quality is violated. Jack travels to town because he has fallen in love with Gwendolen. In fact, he has come up to town expressly to propose to her, but he says pleasure which is untrue. (p. 6)

(3) Algernon: How immensely you must amuse them! [Goes over and takes sandwich.] By the way, Shropshire is your county, is it not?

   Jack: Eh? Shropshire? Yes, of course. Why all these cups? Why cucumber sandwiches? Who is coming to tea?

In this dialogue Jack violates the maxim of Quality, and he says something which is untrue about his address and then deliberately flouts the maxim of Relevance at the same time, because he wants to change the topic of their conversation and also wants to know who the guests are. (p. 7)

(4) Algernon: Yes, but that does not account for the fact that your small Aunt Cecily, who lives at Tunbridge Wells, calls you her dear uncle. Come, old boy, you hand much better have the thing out at once.

   Jack: My dear Algy, you talk exactly as if you were a dentist. It is very vulgar to talk like a dentist when one is not a dentist. It produces a false impression.

Jack ostentatiously violates the maxim of Manner by using the word dentist, he intends to produce obscurity, but he means that Algy as a dentist pulls out words of his mouth. That is, he does not like to respond, but he has to. (p. 9)

(5) Algernon: You have invented a very useful young brother called Ernest, in order that you may be able to come up to town as of as you like. I have invented an invaluable permanent invalid called Bunberry, in order that I may be able to go down into the country whenever I choose. Bunbery is perfectly invaluable. If it was not for Bunbery's extraordinary bad health, for instance, I would not be able to dine with you at Willis's tonight, for I have been really engaged to Aunt Augusta for more than a week.

   Jack: I have not asked you to dine with me anywhere tonight.

In this conversation Algy violates both maxims of Quantity and Quality. Algy fails to give the right amount of information and prompts his interlocutor to look for an implicature, and also makes a sentence which is untrue. He gives more information about their false brother and friend, and says he is invited by Jack which is completely untrue. In fact, he does not want to go to the Augsta's party. (p. 10)

(6) Lady Bracknell: It is very strange. This Mr. Bunbery seems to suffer from curiously bad health.

   Algernon: Yes, poor Bunbery is a dreadful invalid.

In this dialogue the maxim of Manner is violated, because the second subdivision of this maxim says, avoid ambiguity. Algy use the phrase 'dreadful invalid' which has 2 meanings: first, it means null; second, it means weak or disabled through illness or injury. Of course, this case of violating is deliberately. (p. 12)

(7) Lady Bracknell: It really makes no matter, Algernon. I had some crumpets with Lady Harbury, who seems to me to be living entirely for pleasure now.

    Algernon: I hear her hair has turned quite gold from grief.

In this instance an implicature is generated by the (speaker) Algernon's saying something which is clearly false. Through the violation of the maxim of Quality, Algy wants to imply that Lady Harbury feels freedom after the death of her husband. (p. 12)

(8) Cecily: Oh, yes, Dr. Chasuble is a most learned man. He has never written a single book, so you can imagine how much he knows.

Cecily ostentatiously violates the maxim of Quality, because she believes that Dr. Chasuble does not have enough information, when he has never written a single book. (p. 9)

VII. IMPLICATION TO RESEARCH AND PRACTICE

This research will have pedagogical implications for students and teachers of pragmatics. In order to communicate effectively, language learners need to acquire more than just the syntax and semantics of the language; they actually need to learn more about pragmatics. In this regard, Gricean conversational maxims would enable language learners to comprehend the intended meaning of other speakers and also convey their own messages successfully. One way of teaching and learning these maxims is through texts in different literary genres especially Comedy of manners.

VIII. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The existing study analyzed dyads in 'The importance of being Ernest', written by Oscar Wilde (1895), in terms of observing or violating Gricean maxims. The obtained results showed that in most cases interlocutors tend to violate Grice's four maxims in order to create implicatures. The violation of Grice's maxims is respectively: first, the maxim of Quality; second, the maxim of Manner; third, the maxim of Quantity; fourth and the last one is the maxim of Relation.

It is recommended that further research needs to be conducted due to the limited number of studies in this field related to other literary genres, languages and cultures. This study focused on written text; however, future researchers can collect data from naturally occurring conversation in different settings. They can also take other influential variables such as age, gender, and nationality into consideration.

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The English But and Its Equivalent in Standard Arabic: Universality vs. Locality

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Abstract—**This paper attempted to compare and contrast the discourse functions of the English primary contrastive discourse marker *but* with its equivalent in Standard Arabic *lakin*. A judgment test of forty-eight examples was presented to 5 Arabic-English speaking informants and 5 English native informants. The results showed that, like *but* in English, *lakin* functions as the primary contrastive discourse marker in Standard Arabic. The analysis of the results showed that although the English *but* can be translated to Arabic using other discourse markers such as *bal*, *bianama*, and *lakinna*, none of them can function as the primary contrastive discourse marker equivalent to the English *but* because they cannot capture the semantic meanings of the English *but*. Only *lakin* can capture most of the semantic meanings of the English *but*. However, while *lakin* and *but* share many of the discourse functions, they greatly differ when it comes to non discourse marker functions. *Lakin* does not have the same semantic meanings of *but* in non discourse marker sequences. The study concluded with several suggestions for teaching and research.**

Index Terms—**discourse analysis, discourse markers, but, English, lakin, standard Arabic**

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, a sizeable body of linguistic inquiry has been concerned with the study of connective words such as *but*, *however*, *instead*, *as a result*, etc. in English and other languages. In the literature, researchers approach these connective words under a variety of labels including *discourse markers* (Schiffrin, 1987; Schiffrin, 2008; Fraser, 1990, 1997, 1999, 2005, 2008), *discourse connectives* (Blakemore, 1987; 1992; 2002), *discourse operators* (Redker, 1991), *cue phrase* (Knott, 2000; Knot & Dale, 1994; Knott & Sander, 1998; Sander & Noordem, 2000), *discourse particles* (Schorrup, 1985), *semantic conjuncts* (Quirck et al, 1985), *sentence connectives* (Halliday & Hasen, 1976), *pragmatic formatives* (Fraser, 1988, 1990; Schiffrin, 1987). In addition, researchers disagree on what words are considered connectives. For example, Fraser (1999) rejected Shciffirn's classification of *Oh!*, *Look!*, *Y' know* as connective words. In this paper, the term discourse markers (hereafter DMs) will be adapted because it is the most wide-spread and considered to be the most inclusive (Barderia, 2008; Fisher, 2008), and the focus will be on the contrastive discourse marker (hereafter CDM) *but* in English and its equivalent in Standard Arabic (hereafter SA).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definition and Meaning of a DM

Despite wide research interest in the area of DMs from around 1985 (e.g., Schorrup, 1985; Schiffrin, 1987) to the present (e.g., Fraser, 2008; Bazzanella, 2008), a generally acceptable definition and unified treatment of DMs are still lacking (Bazzanella, 2008; Fraser, 1999; Hussein, 2008c). This might be due to the relative newness of research on DMs (Malamud-Malowksi, 1997) and the disagreement among researchers on what to classify as DMs (Fraser, 2005). Schiffrin (1987) gives a thorough account of the importance of DMs to discourse coherence. In so doing, she employs *conversational analysis* as her approach towards the analysis of DMs. According to her, DMs are "sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talks" (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 31). This definition characterizes DMs as dependent in their occurrence on the content where they may occur. They also function as brackets by which the boundaries between the units of talk are signaled. Schiffrin's definition is unexhaustive. That is, she only dealt with *and*, *because*, *but*, *I mean*, *now*, *of*, *or*, *so*, *then*, *well* and *y' know*.

Fraser defines DMs as "lexical expressions, independent of the basic sentence structure, which signal a sequential relationship of a specific sort between the basic message conveyed by the utterance of which they are a part and some earlier message, and they have a core meaning signaling the general nature of this relationship" (Cited in Mlamud-Malwaski, 1997, p.17). Fraser's definition is more comprehensive and discernible than Schiffrin's because of his treatment of a large number of DMs in English and other languages. In another context, Fraser (1999, p. 936) briefly defined DMs as "a linguistic expression ... which: (i) has a core meaning which can be enriched by the context, and (ii) signals the relationship that the speaker intends between the utterance the DM introduces and the foregoing utterance ... "These two definitions in fact summarize most of the characteristics associated with DMs.

To begin with, Fraser argued that every DM has a core meaning. To explain this, let us examine the following examples.

(1) a. John was sick *So* DM, don't expect him.

    b. John was sick, *so* scj he went to bed. (Fraser, 1993, p.6)

Fraser claims that *so* in (1.a) has the meaning of a DM since it relates the proposition in sentence 2 (S2) with the proposition in sentence 2 (S1). *So* here signals a consequent relationship. It is used to relate two separate messages. In (1.b), *so* is functioning as a subordinate conjunction connecting two propositions with the same message. The DM, which introduces the message in S2, provides the hearer with a comment on the basic message in S1. To demonstrate this, let us consider the following examples furnished by Fraser.

(2) a. John is very sick. *Therefore*, he was admitted to the hospital.

    b. Sandy delivered a baby. *Therefore*, she took a leave from her job.

    c. I like Laura. *Therefore*, I would do whatever she asks me. (Fraser, 1993, p.7)

Although the core meaning of *therefore* is the same in the three examples given above, it allows different interpretations for the contexts where it occurs. It is the job of the hearer to figure out the intended core meaning inserted within the particular discourse context (Fraser, 1993)

Although DMs have core meaning, they don't contribute to the propositional content of either S1 or S2. According to Fraser (1993, p. 6), "a discourse marker does not participate as a part of the propositional content of the sentence. It is detachable and may be deleted without changing the content meaning and the grammaticality of the sentence." Malamud-Makowski supports Fraser's view and maintains that a DM is "a part of a sentence, but it is not part of the proposition expressed in such sentence" (1997, p. 20). The following examples explain this point further.

(3) a. Mohammed is Saudi. *In contrast*, Ali is Egyptian.

    b. Nora speaks French. *And* Anna speaks Japanese.

The two DMs *in contrast* in (3.a) and *and* in (3.b) do not affect or change the meaning of the two sentences. They merely function as lexical clues by which the hearer can sense some relationship between the two segments. The absence of the DMs *in contrast* and *and* is unharmful to the meaning of the proposition in S1 and S2. Let us delete the DMs from the two sentences and see what might happen to their meaning.

(4) a. Mohammed is Saudi. Ali is Egyptian.

    b. Nora speaks French. Anna speaks Japanese.

The meaning in (4.a) and (4.b) is still intact. This raises the question whether the meaning of DMs is procedural or conceptual. Fraser (1999) claims that the meaning of a DM is procedural rather than conceptual. He maintains that "an expression with a conceptual meaning specifies a defining set of semantic features, as the case with a boy and hypothesis. On the other hand, an expression with a procedural meaning specifies how the segment it introduces is to be interpreted relative to the prior..." (Fraser, 1999, p. 944).

B. Position of DMs

As a result of being not part of the structure or the meaning of a sentence, DMs can occur in various positions within a sentence. Some of them may occur in sentence-initial position. Others may occur in sentence-medial position. A few of them may occur in sentence-final position (Fraser, 1993). Fraser supplied the following examples to show these positions.

(5) "I am willing to ask the dean to do it.

    i. <u>However</u>, you know he won't agree.

    ii. You, <u>however</u>, know that he won't agree.

    iii. You know, <u>however</u>, that he won't agree.

    iv. You know that he won't agree, <u>however</u>." (Fraser, 1993, p. 5)

With regard to the position of the DM *but*, the focus of this study, it can only appear in initial and medial positions. It cannot appear in final position. The following examples illustrate this point.

(6). a. Water freezes at 32 degrees *but* it boils at 212 degrees. (Fraser, 2008, p. 193)

    b. A: John is at home. B: *But*- I just saw him in the mall. (Fraser, 2008, p. 194)

    c. A: You must go today. B: *But* I (*but) don't want to go (*but) (Fraser, 2008, p. 195)

In (6.a), *but* appears in medial position between S1 and S2. In (6.b) and (6.c), *but* appears in initial position introducing S2. However, as in (6.c), *but* cannot appear in S2 medial position or in final position.

C. The English But

In the first book titled *Discourse Markers*, Schiffrin (1987) discussed *but* intensively. She grouped and presented *but* with two DMs: *and* and *or* in a lengthy chapter. As with the other ten DMs she discussed in her book, Schiffrin investigated *but* in relation to discourse coherence. She described *but* as a DM of three types of contrast: *a referential contrast*, *a functional contrast*, and *a contrastive action*.

Schiffrin's use of *referential contrast* can be accounted for in terms of Lackoff's (1971) dichotomy: *semantic opposition but* and *denial of expectation but* (Bell, 1998). Schiffrin provided the following examples to explain this point.

(7). "Jane: I used t' go every summer. My mother'd send me down with relatives. But I used t' cry I wanted to go home.

I didn't like it.

Debby: When you go home. You liked the summer there. No?!
Jane: I'm not one for staying too long down there." (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 156)
(8). "Debby: And you were born in North Philadelphia.
Ira: a. No. I was born in uh in- in South Philadelphia.
        b. but I moved to North Philadelphia when I was a year old." (Schiffrin, 1987, p.159)

In (7), there is a sense of *denial of expectation*. Contrary to the expectation that children enjoy being at the seashore with their relatives, Jane did not enjoy her time. In contrast, North Philadelphia and South Philadelphia are semantically opposed. There is also a semantic contrast between being born and being a year old as shown in (8) above.

But also has a *functional contrast* in that it signals units of ideas. In (9) below, Henry and Irene are both Jewish who hold different ideas about intermarriage between people with conflicting religions. Irene does not believe in such marriage, and she believes that one day there will be one religion. In contrast, Henry shows extreme position towards such intermarriage on the basis that Jewish people are tolerance to other people who are in turn intolerance to Jews. The utterance presented by *but* marks the contrast between the hypothetical situation (that would force him to disavow his position) and the actual situation (that allows him to maintain his position)" (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 154). Schiffrin further describes this contrast as inferable only because a particular proposition violates speaker/hearer expectations, which is not based on prior proposition in the discourse, but on expectation which is influenced by background experience and knowledge.

(9). a. You're not livin' in a world where you have equality completely.
      b. You put that in this world, I'll go along with it.
      c. If I stays that way,
      d. And where it does not make any difference ....
      e. Yes. I'll go with that in a second.
      f. I won't disagree with anything>
      g. *But* the- the Arabs call us infidels...
      h. The Christian call us pagans... (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 154)

Finally, Schiffrin (1987) argued that *but* functions as *a point-marking device*. That is to say, the speaker may return to a previously stated idea or action to support his or her position. She referred to this as *contrastive action but*. She provided the following example to support her view.

(10). Henry: And not- and there is less=
       Irene: But it's not a matter of –even-=
       Henry: *But* today there is less respect
       [Henry continues] (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 164)

In this example, *but* signals Henry's return to a previous point (*there is less respect*) to defend himself against Irene's challenge. However, Schiffrin contends that *but* is not only used to correct misunderstanding or defend one's position, but it also can be used to perform a remark which disagrees with a previous remark, as in (11).

(11). Henry: Y'see you move across the way, you live in a big house. And, you belong to eh may be a country club.
       Zelda: eh: it's a different phrase of living! *But* it doesn't necessarily mean you have to! (Schiffrin, 1987, p. 144)

Schiffrin's treatment of *but* and the other DMs lack comprehensive data. She focused on the conversation of a few Jewish speakers in Philadelphia. The sample is not adequately representative. It only included a few speakers whose English was not the language of heritage. Moreover, the subjects appeared to be influenced by their Jewish background which makes the data restricted to the type of conversation they produced.

Within the framework of the *Principle of Relevance Theory*, as proposed by Sperber and Wilson (1986, 1995), Blakemore (1987, 1989, 1992, 2000) examined the semantic and pragmatic uses of *but* in English. She argued that the *Principle of Relevance Theory* is important in that it helps the hearer understand the function of discourse connectives such as *but*. She contended that "a speaker who has a specific interpretation in mind may direct the hearer toward the interpretation by making a certain set of contextual assumptions immediately accessible thus ensuring their selection under the Principle of Relevance" (Blakemore, 1989, p. 21). Based on this view, Blakemore (2000) rejected Grice's (1975) notion of *conventional implicature*, which holds that propositions are implicit because they are not part of what is being said.

Blakemore (1989, 2000) treated DMs, including *but*, as linguistic devises which the speaker may use to constrain the hearer's interpretation of a given utterance. According to her, these devices do not contribute to the propositional content of the utterance in which they occur. Instead, they guide the interpretation process by determining certain context and contextual effects. In other words, DMs are conceptually empty *but* have procedural meanings.

Relevant to the focus of this study is her focus on the English *but*. Blakemore (1989, 2000) classified *but* into two types: *denial of expectation but* and *contrast but*. She argued that in both cases, *but* instructs the hearer to derive a negation of a proposition of which its value is determined by the interpretation of the first clause. However, they differ in terms of the role played by the first clause. She gave the following example to demonstrate her argument.

(12). a. John is a Republican, *but* he's honest. b. John is not honest. (Blakemore, 1989, p. 26).

Blakemore argues that in (12.a) *but* indicates that the hearer is expected to have derived the proposition in (12.b) from the proposition in S1. In this respect, *but* is seen as a constraint on the meaning of the proposition in S1. *But* here is used to prevent the hearer from the derivation of an implication which the speaker thinks is not true.

Unlike *denial of expectation but*, *contrast but* forms a conjoined utterance because it has "and" as part of its meaning (Blakemore, 2000, p. 29). However, *but* is used differently from *and* in that it can only connect two propositions. It is used to present the hearer with a single conjoined proposition whose relevance is dependent on the way in which the first conjoined influences the context for the interpretation of the second. Blakemore supplied the following example to support her view.

(13). Mary votes Labour, Susan votes SDP, Anne votes Tory, *but* Jane votes for the Communist Party. (Blakemore, 2000, p. 29)

The task of the hearer in (13) is to find out how Jane is different from the others: Mary, Susan, and Anne.

In a series of studies, Fraser (1997, 2005, 2008) characterized the core meaning of *but* in English. He summarized the core meaning of *but* as follows:

... the target of S2 with the CDM *but* can be either the direct, an implied, a presupposed, or an entailed message. In all cases, *but* signals that S2 is to stand in contrast to a message conveyed by S1, and any refinement of this simple contrast to a more specific one, for example, that in a protest use it directly rejects the S1 direct message, follows from the context and the messages involved and does not follow from an ambiguity of the core meaning of the CDM *but*. (Fraser, 1997, p. 8)

According to Fraser (1997), the only core meaning of the DM *but* is to signal a simple contrast, and this actual contrast may be interpreted from the S1 message. The contrast could be the direct S1 message as in (14).

(14). John is tall. *But* Sam is short. (Fraser, 1997, p. 8)

Fraser (1997) argued that the two messages contrast in at least two corresponding areas. These contrasts may be along well-defined continua, such as height in (14) above. The order of S2 and S1 in (14) is irrelevant and can be reversed with no change in interpretation.

Fraser (1997) suggested other ways to identify contrast between the direct S2 and S1 messages. First, there may be only one area of contrast but an *also, too* or *either* will be used or implied as in (15).

(15) a. John gave toys to Mary. *But* he gave toys to Jane (, *also/too*.)

      b. Tim is not short. *But* Max is not short (, *either.*) (Fraser, 1997, p. 8)

Second, S2 is denying the content in S1. This denial arises from the content of S2 and S1, not as a function of the core meaning of *but* (Fraser, 1997). Fraser called this "protest" *but*, which must involve two speakers, as shown in the following example.

(16) A: Harry is honest. B: *But* he's NOT honest. (Fraser, 1997, p. 8)

Third, S2 may provide a reason for a confirmation which had been deleted, as illustrated in (17).

(17). A: James is not in his office. B: *But* (he IS in his office since) I just saw him there. (Fraser, 1997, p. 9)

Fourth, if the hearer cannot detect an explicit contrast, s/he should look for a presupposed message of S1, as shown in (18) or an entailed message of S1, as illustrated in (19).

(18). A: Three of my four kids are in school. (Presupposed: The fourth is not.). B: *But* all of your children are in school.

(19). A: Nancy is enjoying being a bachelor. (Entailed: Nancy is a male). B: *But* Nancy is female. (Fraser, 1997, p. 9)

Finally, the target of the CDM *but* may be implied, an indirect message of S1, as illustrated in (20).

(20). a. John is a politician. (Implied: Politicians are dishonest.) *But* he is honest. (Fraser, 1997, p. 9)

In (20), the segment "He is honest" contrasts a widespread implication that all politicians are dishonest. The speaker of (20) apparently wants to avoid the implication that this is his viewpoint (Fraser, 1997)

Fraser (1997) further argued that If the target contrast of S2 is an implied, presupposed or entailed message, the order of S2 and S1 is critical, and S2 and S1 cannot be interchanged. Thus, (21.b) does not mean the same thing as (21.a).

(21) a. John is a politician. *But* he is honest. b. John is honest. *But* he is a politician (Fraser, 1997, p. 9)

With regard to the syntactic sequences of *but*, Fraser (1997) suggested the following five sequences:

Declarative. BUT+ Declarative

(22). We didn't leave late. But, we arrived late. (Fraser, 1997, p. 7)

Declarative. But+ Imperative/Interrogative

(23). a. The shipment of candy has arrived. But, don't touch it.

      b. It's all alright Sue wasn't here today. But, when will she be able to come? (Fraser, 1997, p. 4)

Imperative. But+ Declarative

(24). Take a letter. But, I don't want you to send it right away. (Fraser, 1997, p. 4)

Imperative. But+ imperative

(25). Take a letter. But, tell me if I am going too fast (Fraser, 1997, p. 4)

As a non-DM, the English *but* has some systematic functions (Fraser, 1997). The first non-DM use of *but* is that of a "topic change pragmatic marker" (Fraser, 1996, p.7). In this regard, *but* has the task of signaling a reorientation of the conversational topic where there is no semantic contrast between S1 and S2 (Fraser, 1997), as shown in (26) below.

(26). I promise to go. *But***,** leave me alone for the time being. (Fraser, 1997, p. 4)

The second non-DM use suggested by Fraser (2005) occurs when *but* is a preposition, with the meaning of *except*. Fraser claims that the object of the preposition *but* is an exception to the information given in S1. The following example demonstrates this use of *but*.

(27). Come anytime *but/except* now. (Fraser, 2005, p. 18)

The third systematic use of the non-DM *but* is that of an adverb. *But* may have the meaning of *only, simply, just*, and sometimes *merely*, as shown in the following examples.

(28). a. I *have but/only/just* a moment. b. He is *but/merely* a child. (Fraser, 2005, p. 18)

The fourth systematic use of the non-DM *but* occurs with the combination *all but* (*nearly/almost/ practicably/almost*) where the interpretation is just less than the scope content.

(29) a. He has *all but/nearly* clinched the championship.
b. The paper money in Russia is *all but/practically* worthless.
c. They are finding it *all but/almost* impossible to make a living. (Fraser, 2005, p.18)

The final systematic use of the non-DM *but* proposed by Fraser (2005) occurs when S1 is an apology and carry a deferential tone, as shown in (30).

(30) I apologize for saying this, *but* don't you think you should drive more slowly? (Fraser, 2005, p.18)

Fraser (2005) listed unsystematic uses of the non-DM *but* in English. He described some of these as unique idioms. He didn't comment on them. They are reproduced in (31) for consideration.

(31) a. *but good***:** I'll get you *but* good.
b. *If I could (would/had) but* Verb*...*: If I could *but* explain.
c. *Rhetorical question*: What belief is so foolish *but* some will embrace it?
d *can (could) not help but wonder if* …: I can't/couldn't help *but* wonder if we did the right thing yesterday.
e. *but of course*: A: Is it done? B: (*But*) of course it's done/*it's not done.
f. *but the thing that/what pleases him/her most/least*: He is happy with his work, with his marriage, and with his children. *But what/the thing that pleases him most* is the fact that he has finally stopped drinking.
g. *but above all:* Thanks are due to John and Mary. *But above all*, I want to thank Harry.
h. *but for = except for***:** *But for* the grace of God, that was I. ((Fraser, 2005, p. 19)

D. But across Languages

To cross-validate the findings of these studies that examined *but* in English and establish a universal theory of the discourse functions of *but*, other researchers investigated the DM *but* in their languages. For example, Fraser and Malamud-Makowski (1996) compared English CDM with those in Spanish, including *but* in English and its counterpart in Spanish *pero*. They described the differences and similarities between *but* and *pero*. In terms of the English *but*, they found that *but* was the most general CDM. They also found that *but* occurs in some positions where other CDM may not occur. Fraser and Malamud-Makowski claimed that *but* does not only function as a denial of expectation and semantic constraint, but it has more general relationship than this. As a discourse marker, they argued that *but* signals both *a contrast* and a *denial*. *But* signals that S2 should be interpreted as a denial of a proposition arising from S1. However, the denial *but* tends to be a simple one. *But* also signals implicit, explicit, and assumed contrast. Finally, they argued that *but* in English can occur in the same utterance with all of the other CDMs. Like English Fraser and Malamud-Makowski found that the Spanish *pero* (but) was the most general CDMs in the Spanish language. It can be used in a wider range of contexts than the other CDMs. They found that *pero* tend to appear more often in naturally occurring data. Like *but* in English, *pero* is not subject to mood restrictions. That is, it can occur after declarative, imperative, interrogative, and performative structure.

In another study, Permikul (1999) investigated the discourse marker *tɛɛ* (but) in Thai. She found that *tɛɛ* was the most frequent and common CDMs in Thai. As in other languages, *tɛɛ* signals that proposition in S2 in is in contrast with the proposition in S1. She also found that *tɛɛ* can occur in a number of positions on the condition that the construction is of that: S1 CDM S2. However, Permikul found that that *tɛɛ* is not normally used as a concessive marker connecting S2 and S1. The analysis of the data showed that *tɛɛ* is often accompanied by two Thai words *klab* (a model verb) and kɔ ɔ (a particle). Permikul fond that *tɛɛ* can precede a question, either by a new speaker or by the same speaker. Finally, she found that that *tɛɛ* in Thai is interchangeable with all other CDMs, but not vice versa.

Othman (2000) examined the *tetapi* (but) in Malay. She found that *tetapi* in Malay signals that S2 is in either explicit or implicit contrast with the segment in S1. Othman found that *tetapi* has the widest scope and imposes the fewest restrictions between S2 and S1 with which it is contrasted. That is why *tetapi* may substitute for all Malay CDMs, except for some instances of *sebaliknya* (instead). Finally, the findings showed that *tetapi* can only occur in initial position.

Fraser (2005, 2008) examined whether there is a single, primary CDM equivalent to the English *but* in other Languages and whether the uses of this primary CDMs are the same across languages. He constructed a judgment test and sent it to native speakers of Arabic, Catalan, Chinese, Danish, Dutch, Finnish, French, German, Greek, Hebrew, Japanese, Korean, Norwegian, Spanish, and Swedish. The judgment test included the following contexts.

1. Those contexts that accept the DM use of *but* in English
   John is not fat ____ is very thin.
   We started late ____ we arrived on time.

2. Those contexts that reject the DM use of *but* in English
    I rarely open the door. ___ I simply ignore them.
    Mary didn't make a trivial mistake. _____ she made a horrendous error.
3. Those uses of *but* that are not DMs in English
    All left ___ one.
    He is ___ a child.
    I'll get him ___ good. (Fraser, 2005, p. 19)

The results showed that all speakers identified a primary CDM equivalent to *but* in English. With a few exceptions, all the uses of *but* as a DM in English were judged to be similarly used by at least one of the individuals from each language. In many cases, all agreed.

Fraser noted that the most consistent disagreement was with sequence such as (32) where speakers from a variety of languages indicated that an alternative form (Spanish: *pero/sino*; German: *aber/sondern*; Hebrew: *ela/aval*) was required in this context. This was to be expected. There was no other outstanding exception.

(32) John is not tall *but* short. (Fraser, 2005, p. 20)

The sequences of non-DM uses of *but* provided some curious results. Three of the sequences were surprisingly judged acceptable across many of the languages.

(33) a) You may think I'm crazy, ____ where is the dog?
     b) Thanks go to John and Mary. ____ above all, I want to thank Harry.
     c) You have to get up early. ____ after all, how much sleep do you need? (Fraser, 2005, p. 21)

The example in (33.a) is acceptable to nearly everyone. Fraser claims that these results were unexpected and will require further research.

Unfortunately, Fraser didn't elaborate in his discussion of the results. Although Arabic was included among the languages in which he tested the universality of the CDM *but*, he didn't mention it in his discussion.

Hussein (2008a) examined the different meanings encoded by the DM *but* in English. He argued that *but* in English encodes a general procedure meaning that can be applied in four different ways to derive the following meanings of *but* in English: "denial of expectation, "contrast, "correction" and "cancellation." He claimed that these meanings come under the terms "contrast" but are separate. To support his position, Hussein used data from SA. He argued that the four linguistic expressions that correspond to *but* in SA (*Lakinna*, *bainama*, *bal*, and *lakin*) are translations of the four different meanings of the general procedure encoded by *but* in English. Thus he rejected the ambiguity account of *but* in English suggested by some theorists such as Anscombre and Ducrot (1977) and Horn (1989). Hussein's study has some defects with its treatment of the concept of ambiguity of the DM *but* in English. He focused on the meanings of *but* in SA to reject the ambiguity associated with it in English without examining the variety of meanings *but* has in English. Furthermore, the other DMs in Arabic (*Lakinna*, *bainama*, *bal*, *lakin*) not always mere translation of *but* in English. Another legitimate argument is that he assigned single meaning of the English *but* to each of these four DMs in Arabic. *Lakin* in Arabic can cover these four meanings of *but* in English, i.e., *denial of expectation, contrast, correction*, and *cancellation*, while the others do not.

III. CONCLUSION

To summarize this section, the English CDM *but* has received a great attention in the past three decades. Although researchers agree, to a great extent, on that *but* has the discourse function of contrast, they do differ in their approaches to explain this function. While a group of researchers (e.g., Schiffrin, 1987, 2008; Fraser, 1999, 2008) argue that *but*, like the other DMs, plays a crucial role in the interpretation of discourse by signaling coherence relations between discourse units, other researchers (e.g., Blakemore, 1989, 2000, 2002; Hussein, 2008a, 2008c) argue that *but*, like other DMs, is a procedure and an indicator that constrains the inferential part of the utterance interpretation by guiding the hearer to recognize the intended cognitive effect with the least processing effort. With regard to the universality of *but* across languages, it's still tentative to conclude that *but* functions the same across languages. However, the very few cross-linguistic studies conducted so far have shown that *but* may have universal aspects. For example, *but* signals *contrast* between the proposition in S1 and S2 across languages. It doesn't add to the meaning of either S1 or S2. Therefore, *but* has a procedural meaning rather than a conceptual meaning. However, it's not clear yet whether *but* is viewed as the primary CDM across languages, and can appear in almost the same sequences. Research is needed to investigate this area to reach a universal theory of *but* as a DM shared by all languages. It's the purpose of this current study to bridge this gap in the literature through comparing and contrasting the English CDM *but* with its equivalent in SA.

IV. RESEARCH PROBLEM AND HYPOTHESES

Arabic has not received adequate research concerning the functions of DMs on either the sentence or text level. Traditionally, the study of DMs in Arabic has been limited to the boundaries of the sentence with the grammarians' primary focus on studying the syntactic properties of DMs and the governing powers they have over nouns and verbs (Al-Batal, 1985, 1990). Because of their utmost interest in al-iraab case and mode inflections, the Arab grammarians

viewed DMs as inflection-changing elements than as text-building units. However, the Arab traditional grammarians gave little attention to DMs as cohesive and text-building elements. They studied them under an independent discipline called al-balaagha "rhetoric." Those grammarians dealt with some aspects of cohesion including al-fasl wa al-wasl "disconjunction and conjunction." Their treatment was limited to *wa* "and" and its different uses, and thus does not provide a thorough understanding of the cohesive role of DMs in Arabic in general. A few modern Arab linguists (e.g., Al-Batal, 1985, 1990, 1994; Al-Khalil, 2005; Ghobrial, 1994; Hussein, 2008a 2008b) have tried to view DMs from a different perspective by placing more emphasis on examining the semantic and pragmatic functions of DMs in SA and colloquial Arabic. Although their treatment of DMs in Arabic is valuable, it does not provide a unified approach towards the study of DMs in Arabic, and thus does not contribute to the universal theory of DMs. In addition, some of these studies focused on colloquial discourse aspects of certain Arabic dialects such as Cairene Egyptian Arabic (Ghobrial, 1994), Lebanese Arabic (Al-Batal, 1994), and Syrian Arabic (Al-khalil, 2005). Others were concerned with only one literary text and classified DMs according to semantic meanings rather than their discourse functions, as in Al-Batal (1985, 1990). Others like Hussein (2008a, 2008b) discussed single DMs in SA such as *fa*, *bal*, *lakinna*, *bainama*, *lakin* based on the *Principle of Relevance theory*.

In order to further understand the functions of DMs from a universal perspective, it is essential to compare and contrast the sequences in which DMs occur across languages. Fraser (1988, 1993, 1996, 1997, 1999, 2005, 2008) has stressed the need to look at the extent to which DMs, especially the primary ones, "have the same nuanced interpretations across languages" (2008, p. 202). Unfortunately, despite the call for cross-linguistic studies on DMs there seems to be very few studies that investigated the universality vs. locality of DMs in general and primary DMs such as *but*, *and*, *so* in particular. Although we find several studies that compared and contrasted pair of languages (e.g., English vs. Spanish, English vs. French) in terms of DMs, we hardly find studies that did the same with Arabic vs. any other languages such as English. For this reason, any argument in favor of the universality of DMs shall remain tentative until more research with other languages is conducted. To contribute to this area of research, the current study examined the sequences in which the English *but* and its equivalent in SA may occur. Following Fraser (2005), this study addressed the following two null hypotheses:

1. There is a single, primary CDM in SA equivalent to the English CDM *but*.
2. The uses of this primary CDM (*But* in English and its equivalent in SA) are the same in both languages.

V. METHOD

A. Informants

Ten informants participated in this study. Five Arabic-English speaking informants answered a judgment test of forty-eight examples related to the possible uses of the CDMs *lakin* in certain contexts in which the English *but* may or may not occur. The other five informants were English native speakers who were requested to answer the judgment test in which the English CDM *but* may or may not occur. All the Arabic-English speaking informants were native speakers of Arabic and highly educated in English with MA and PhD degrees in linguistics, translation, or TESOL. There were four linguistics professors and one lecturer. Two of the professors have been teaching English/translation for more than 30 years. The reason for employing informants with high degrees in linguistics and translation was to avoid the problem of bilinguality. It was very important to make sure that the informants have equal proficiency in the two languages under investigation (Arabic and English). Similarly, the native speakers of English were educated, one with a PhD. in linguistics, and four with masters' degrees in English.

B. Instrument

In order to determine if SA has a primary CDM equivalent to the English CDM *but* and patterns of occurrence similar to that of *but* in English, Fraser's (2005) judgment test of *but* was adapted. Fraser developed and applied this test to other languages such as Catalan, Chinese, Danish, English, Finish, German, Greek, Hebrew, Japanese, Korean, Norwegian, Spanish, and Swedish. There were two versions of this test with the same items, but the informants received different instructions. The Arabic-English speaking informants were instructed to first determine the primary CDM in SA which they think is equivalent to the English primary CDM *but*. Then, they were instructed to write *Yes* if the Arabic primary CDM they selected (*lakin*) fits in the 48 examples and *No* if it does not. Native informants of English were instructed to write *Yes* if the English *but* fits and *No* if it does not.

Following Fraser (2005, 2008), the judgment test of *but* included the following contexts:

1. Those contexts that accept the DM use of *but* in English, as in: *John is not fat _____ is very thin.*

2. Those contexts that reject the DM use of *but* in English, as in: *I rarely open the door. _____ I simply ignore them.*

3. Those unsystematic uses of *but* that are not DMs in English, as in: *All left _____ one.*

Fraser (2005) clearly pointed out the deficiencies that accompanied the construction of the judgment test of *but*. First, he realized that he used the contrastive contexts of English and didn't consider if the contrastive contexts in the other languages he tested were different. Second, there was no guarantee that the respondents were truly bilingual, which might have biased their judgments. Third, Fraser realized that he left certain critical areas uncovered. To reduce or even eliminate the effect of the first deficiency, the Arabic-English informants were directed to use translation, whenever

necessary, to judge whether *lakin* is acceptable or not in these constructions. To avoid the second deficiency in this study, the Arabic-English speaking informants were chosen on the basis that they have higher degrees in English/translation with a long experience in their fields. With regard to the third deficiency, nothing was made to avoid it except proceeding with the results cautiously.

C. Date Collection and Analysis Procedures

Date was collected by distributing the judgment test of *but* to the informants in two ways. First, the researcher handed in the test to two Arabic-English speaking informants with whom he had immediate contact. To have more participants, the judgment test was sent out to more informants via the email. Only seven responded; three Arabic-English bilinguals and five native speakers of English. The frequency of the informants' responses were statistically introduced and discussed.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Primary CDM But in English and SA

The analysis of the results showed that the five Arabic participants identified *lakin* as the primary CDM in SA equivalent to the English CDM *but*. This came to no surprise because *but* is usually translated to *Lakin* in SA. However, it is very important to keep in mind that some other DMs may share some of the meanings of *lakin* in SA. For example, Hussein (2008) claimed that the English *but* can be translated to four meanings in SA: *bal* (denial of expectation), *bainama* (correction), *lakinna* (contrast), and *lakin* (cancellation). But the analysis of the results here showed that none of the three DMs (*bal*, *lainama*, *lakinna*) can be considered the primary CDM in SA equivalent to the English *but*. These three DMs can only occur in certain contexts where the English CDM *but* is used. It is the CDM *lakin* which can occur in many of the contexts where the English *but* is used. Let's discuss the following examples answered by the informants.

18. Take a drink, *but/lakin/*bainama/*bal/*lakinna* be careful you don't spill any.
12. I' m a nurse. *But/lakin/*bainama/*bal/lakinna* my husband won't let me work.
13. I know this bus goes to Count Hall. *But/lakin/*bainama/*bal/*lakinna*, does it also go to the gym?
26. A: Consider this triangle. B: *But/ lakin/* bainama /*bal/lakinna* this figure has four sides.
1. John is fat, but/*lakin/bainama/*bal/lakinna* Mary is thin.

The CDM *lakin* occurs in all the contexts where the English *but* is possible, whereas the other DMs *bainama, lakinna and bal* do not, except for *lakinna* which may occur in 12, 26, 1, and *bianama* in 1. This supports the informants' choice of *lakin* as the primary CDM in SA equivalent to the CDM *but* in English. A possible reason of why *lakinna* may replace *lakin* in some contexts is that both have the function of adversative (Al-Batal, 1985, 1990); that is, denial of expectation.

In addition, *lakin* covers all the discourse functions of the English *but*: *contrast, denial of expectation, correction, cancellation*. For example, *lakin*-clause in 12 introduces S2 as a denial of expectation of what the hearer may conclude from S1 in that since *she is a nurse* she should be working in a clinical facility. This is also could be a cancellation of the assumption that may arise from being a nurse. In 13, *lakin* conveys a contrast between two things: the bus going to Count Hall and the bus going to the gym. *Lakin* in 26 functions as a corrector or canceller of the information contained in S1. Speaker B corrects and cancels A's statement that this is a triangle because it has four sides than three sides. In 1, *lakin* contrasts between two peoples John and Mary in terms of weight. However, *bianam* and *lakinna* can replace *lakin* in 34e, just when S2 is in clear contrast with S1. Again, this finding refutes Hussein's (2008a) argument that the English *but* can be translated to Arabic as: *bianam* (contrast), *bal* (correction), *lakinna* (denial of expectation), and *lakin* (cancellation). The problem with Hussein's claim is that classifying the meanings of the English *but* in SA in this way is inaccurate and restricts the discourse function of *lakin* to only one function "cancellation" which is not true as revealed by the examples stated above.

Another evidence supporting the argument that *lakin* is the primary CDM in SA equivalent to the English CDM *but* comes from the possibility of using *lakin* in some of the unsystematic uses of *but* in English, but not the other DMs *bainama* and *bal*. To explain this, let's examine the following examples in the data.

6. You may think I'm crazy, *lakin/*binama/*bal/?lakinna*, where is the dog?
7. I'm not sure if this is relevant, *lakin/*bianama/*bal/?lakinna* isn't that bag leaking?

only *lakin* fits in sequences 6-7. *Lakinna* may fit semantically but not syntactically. Substituting *lakin* with *bianama* or *bal* will make the sentences semantically and syntactically unacceptable.

Finally, *lakin* in SA behaves syntactically very much like its counterpart *but* in English. According to Fraser (1997), the English CDM *but* can occur in five syntactic sequences, reproduced here for the sake of comparison.

Declarative. But+ Declarative
12. I' m a nurse. *But/Lakin/*bainama/*bal/lakinna* my husband won't let me work.
Declarative. But+ Imperative/Interrogative
14. The launch on the table. *But/lakin/*bainama/*bal/*lakinna* don't touch anything.
Imperative. But+ Declarative
24. Say what you will, but/ *lakin/*bainama/*bal/*lakinna* you're not going to make me get upset.

Imperative. But+ imperative

18. Take a drink, but/*lakin*/*bainama*/*bal*/*lakinna* be careful you don't spill any.

Performative. But+ declarative/imperative

3. I suggest that you take some cookies, *but*/*lakin*/*bainama*/*bal*/*lakinna* leave the cake alone.

5. You promise to help me. *But*/*lakin*/*bainama*/*bal*/*lakinna* you let me down.

In 12, the English *but* and its equivalent in SA *lakin* preceded and followed by declarative sentences. Except *lakinna*, *bainama* and *bal* do not fit in this syntactic structure. In 14, *but* and *lakin* can be preceded by a declarative and followed by either imperative or interrogative sentence. None of the DMs *bal*, *bainama*, and *lakinna* can fit in this syntactic structure. The two primary CDM *but* and *lakin* can also fit in the syntactic structure where they can be preceded by imperative and followed by declarative as in 24. Once again, none of the three DMs *bal*, *bainama*, and *lakinna* can syntactically fit in this structure. Both *but* and *lakin* can be preceded and followed by imperative sentence, as in 18. None of the DMs *bal*, *bainama*, and *lakinna* can fit in this syntactic structure. Finally, another syntactic structure in which *lakin* and *but* can occur is what Fraser (1997) called perfomatice expression as shown in sequences 3 and 5. In this structure, SI includes a performative expression followed by *but* and S2. None of the other DMs, which Hussein (2008) (*bainama*, *bal*, *lakinna*) claimed to have the same meanings of the English *but* when it is translated to SA, can fit in this syntactic structure.

B. Discourse Sequences of But and Lakin: Similarity vs. Anomaly

The purpose of this section was to find out the sequences in which the English and Arabic primary CDMs *but* and *lakin* may co-occur in an attempt to reach a universal linguistic account of *but* across languages. All informants in both languages agreed that the primary CDMs *but* and *lakin* co-occur in the sequences 1, 5, 11, and 18. These sequences are reproduced here for further consideration.

1. John is fat, *but/lakin* Mary is thin.

5. You promise to help me. *But/lakin* you let me down.

11. I could give you this book, *But/lakin* frankly, I don't want to.

18. Take a drink, *But/lakin* be careful you don't spill any.

Similarly, all informants in both languages except one Arabic-English speaker indicated that *but* and *lakin* fit in the sequences 10, 12-14, 23-25, 27, 29, and 31. They are reproduced below for consideration.

10. I'd take more, *But/lakin* I'm full.

12. I'm a nurse. *But/lakin* my husband won't let me work.

13. I know this bus goes to Count Hall. *But/lakin* does it also go to the gym

14. The lunch is on the table. *But/lakin* don't touch anything.

23. A: Now you know all the facts. B: *But/lakin* I'm still not convinced he is guilty.

24. Say what you will, *But/lakin* you're not going to make me get upset.

25. The flower was beautiful, *But/lakin* it was plastic.

27. A: All the boys left. B: *But/lakin* there were only two boys to start with.

29. A: When did he die? *But/lakin* he didn't die. he only left town.

31. A: John is home. B: But/lakin I just saw him at the store.

The informants' responses to the judgment test items 9, 15, 19, 22, 28, 30, 32, and 33 show less agreement between speakers in both languages. For each sequence, three out of the five Arabic-English speakers indicated that *lakin* can fit in these sequences. All native speakers of English said that *but* is acceptable in sequences 9, 15, 22. 28, and 30. Only 2 native speakers of English said that *but* is acceptable in sequence 9. Four of the native English speakers agreed that *but* fits in sequences 19 and 32.

9. Take one, *But/lakin* don't take more than one.

15. A: It's warm in here. B: *But/lakin* turn up the heat anyway.

19. I cut a finger yesterday, *But/lakin* it wasn't mine.

22. A: John was assassinated in Dakar. B: *But/lakin* I always thought he died of natural causes.

28. A: I realize that John is sick. B: *But/lakin* John isn't sick.

30. A: I apologize for disturbing you. B: *But/lakin* you have nothing to apologize for.

32. I *should have* tried to open the door. *But/lakin* I simply ignored the boys.

33. Mary didn't make a trivial mistake. *But/lakin* she made a horrendous error.

With regard to the judgment test items 3, 4, and 26, two of the Arabic-English speakers agreed that *lakin* fits in these sequences. In contrast, all native informants of English agreed that *but* fits in these sequences. These sequences are illustrated here for consideration.

3. I suggest that you take some cookies, *But/lakin* leave the cake alone.

4. Take an orange, *But/lakin* leave the apples alone.

26. A: Consider this triangle. B: *But/lakin* this figure has four sides.

Finally, unlike the English *but*, *lakin* in SA does not fit in the sequences 2, 6, 8, 16, 17, 20, and 21. All native informants of Arabic said that *lakin* does not fit in these sequences.

2. John is not tall *But/*lakin* short.

6. John is a cop, *But/*lakin* he's also a carpenter.

8. Don't move your hand, *But/*lakin* don't talk either.
16. A: What time is it? B: *But/*lakin* don't you have a watch?
17. A: What time is it? B: *But/*lakin* why do you want to know?
20. John died yesterday, *But/*lakin* he had been ill.
21. A: John speaks perfect German. B: *But/*lakin* he was raised in Germany.

A possible interpretation of why speakers of Arabic judged *lakin* as unacceptable in these sequences is that S2 is not negating or denying the propositional content in S1. For example in sequence 6, S2 is an additional information about John. The English *but* has the meaning "not only a cop but also a carpenter." The Arabic CDM *lakin* does not have this meaning which can be conveyed by using *wa* (and). This further is shown in sequence 8 where both S1 and S2 are negative statements. Therefore, *lakin* does not fit in such a context because both sentences are already negated.

C. Unsystematic Uses of Lakin vs. But

With regard to the unsystematic uses of *lakin* in SA and *but* in English. All the Arabic-English speaking informants indicated that the CDM *lakin* cannot fit in the judgment test items no. 1-4 and 8-11, whereas the English native informants said that the CDM *but* fits in these sequences.

1. Everyone *but/*lakin* John was here.
2. Nothing *but/*lakin* soda would satisfy her.
3. He is nothing *but/*lakin* a child.
4. I have *but/l*lakin* a moment.
8. A: Is it finished. B: *But/*lakin* of course it's done.
9. A: John didn't leave. B: *But/*lakin* of course he didn't leave.
10. He has all, *but/*lakin* clinched the championship.
11. I can't help *but/*lakin* obey her.

The English CDM *but* fits in these sequences because it has the meaning of *except* as in 1 and 2, *merely* as in 3 and *only* as in 4. *Lakin* in SA does not have these meanings and therefore it didn't fit in these sequences. A possible interpretation of why *lakin* didn't fit in sequences 8 and 9 is that *lakin* in SA introduces S2 as a *contrast*, *denial of expectation*, *correction*, and *cancellation* of information in S1. These two sequences do not allow *lakin* to occur because none of these functions is implied. In sequences 10, the English *but* has the meaning of *nearly*, and *except that* in sequence 11. It seems that *lakin* doesn't fit in these two sequences because it does not have these meanings in SA.

For the judgment test items 6, 7, 12, and 13, all native informants of English said that *but* fits in these sequences, except one informant who said that *but* does not fit in 6. In contrast, native informants of Arabic showed variation in their responses. For sequence no 6 and 7, four informants said that *lakin* fits in these sequences. Three out of the five Arabic informants indicated that *lakin* fits in 12. All the Arabic informants except one said that *lakin* does not fit in 13. A possible interpretation of why native informants of Arabic said that *lakin* does not fit in sequence 13 is that it does not have the meaning in English *except for*. The informants' responses are reproduced below for more consideration.

6. You may think I'm crazy, *But/lakin* where is the dog?
7. I'm not sure if this is relevant, *But/lakin* isn't that bag leaking?
12. Thanks are due to John and Mary. *But/lakin* above all, I want to thank Harry.
13. *But/*lakin* for the grace of God, there go I.

Finally, with regard to the informants' responses to the judgment test items 14 and 15, all the Arabic informants except one agreed that *lakin* does not fit in sequence 14. However, three out of the five Arabic informants said that *lakin* fits in sequence 15. The English native informants said that *but* does not fit in 14 and 15.

14. I will get you, **But/*lakin* good.
15. You have to get up early. **But/lakin* after all, how much sleep do you need?

The English native informants' rejection of *but* in 14 and 15 contradicts with Fraser's (2008) claim that *but* fits in these sequences where it is not used as a DM. The only possible account of this inconsistency is dialect variation.

However, the results pattern in this section bears some resemblance to Fraser's (2005, 2008) findings. Like the English informants and informants of the other languages in Fraser's study, native informants of Arabic judged *lakin* in 7 and 8 as acceptable.

7. I'm not sure if this is relevant. *But/Lakin* isn't that leaking?
8. Thanks are due to John and Mary. *But/Lakin* above all, I want to thank Mary.

But, unlike the informants of other languages in Fraser's study, there was disagreement between the native informants of English and Arabic concerning the acceptability of *but*/*lakin* in the following sequence.

15. You have to get up early. **But*/*lakin* after all, how much sleep do you need?

Like many of the informants in Fraser's study, Arabic native informants judged this sentence as acceptable with the CDM *lakin*, whereas native informants of English judged the English *but* in this sequence as unacceptable.

VII. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

The main purpose of this study was to identify the primary CDM in SA which is equivalent to the English primary CDM *but*, and whether these two primary CDMs have the same patterns of occurrence in certain constructions. The

analysis of the results has clearly shown, as expected, that SA has a primary CDM equivalent to the English *but*, namely *lakin*. All the Arabic-English speaking informants selected *lakin* to be the primary CDM in SA equivalent to the English *but*. This choice was further supported by the analysis of the sequences in which both *lakin* and but may co-occur together. Despite that *but* is translated to other DMs in SA in certain contexts (e.g., *bal, bainama*), only *lakin* can fit in many of the sequences which the English *but* fits where these DMs cannot fit. As a result of this, the study's first hypothesis was supported in that SA has *lakin* as the primary CDM equivalent to the English primary CDM *but*.

With regard to the study's second hypothesis, it was supported partially. While both *but* and *lakin* can co-occur in many of the sequences, there were other contexts where *but* does occur, but not *lakin*. These sequences where *lakin* cannot occur are non DM sequences. In such sequences, the English *but* occurs because it has the semantic meanings of, for example, *except that*, *merely*, *only*, etc. In SA, *lakin* does not have these semantic meanings and therefore it does not fit in such sequences.

Overall, the findings of this study should be taken with caution. As stated clearly somewhere in this paper, there were some deficiencies in the construction of the judgment test items which may have affected the informants' responses. Foremost among them was the fact that contrastive contexts in SA may be different from the English ones. Second, the given sequences may not have covered all the possible areas in both languages where *but* and *lakin* could be used. Third, in some sequences the informants in both languages showed variation in their responses to these sequences. This is might be due to the dialect variations which the informants speak.

Finally, the study has some important implications for research and language teaching. To complete our understanding of DMs in Arabic and contribute to the universality of the theory of DMs, the following topics await further research.

1. There is a need to investigate the possible systematic and unsystematic uses of *lakin* in SA. The construction of sequences in which *lakin* is acceptable is necessary to understand its pattern of occurrence. The use of English sequences to examine the pattern of occurrence of *lakin*, as in the case of this study, may not show us other critical structures in which *lakin* may be used in SA.

2. Fraser (2008, 2005) calls for research to examine other primary DMs such as *so* and *and* across languages to find out how they behave linguistically. Researching these DMs in SA would contribute to our understanding of the theory of DMs.

3. Some researchers (e.g., Fraser, 1993, 1997, 1999, 2005, 2008) classified DMs in English to different categories, with each category having certain functions such as contrastive DMs (e.g., *but, however, nevertheless, in contrast*, etc), inferential DMs (e.g., *therefore, hence, accordingly*, etc), elaborative DMs (e.g., *above all, in addition, that is*, etc), and parallel DMs (e.g., *and, otherwise, or, too*, etc.). There is a need to investigate these categories in SA and decide whether these DMs function in SA in a way similar to other languages such as English.

4. There is a strong need to examine the coherence role of DMs in general and the CDM *lakin* in particular in different genres of Arabic texts (i.e., narrative, scientific, journalistic, etc.).

5. The acquisition of DMs by Arab learners of English as a foreign language is still an area of research that awaits the invasion of researchers. DMs are usually taught as part of the English grammar in classrooms, with the focus being more on their grammatical occurrence on the sentence level. The majority of students who complete their English programs lack an accurate understanding of the polysemy of these DMs and how they are used in English (Alhuqbani, 2010). Research is needed to investigate the students' understanding of these DMs, and how to teach them effectively.

Regarding language teaching, language instructors need to be aware of the current research findings in DMs and apply the findings to their teaching of DMs. It's obvious that teachers focus on a single semantic meaning of a DM in the classroom. For example, when teaching *but*, teachers tend to give the meaning in Arabic (*lakin*) without exploring the other meanings of *but* in English, and hence depriving their students of understanding the other meanings of *but*. Teachers may be excused for this because many of English textbooks overlook DMs as significant elements in the understanding of English texts. It's highly recommended that students majoring in English teaching or linguistics be given a course on DMs. This course should help those would-be-teachers and translators understand the theoretical approaches to the study of DMs and how to apply the findings in their teaching and/or translation career.

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Profiling Formative Assessment Culture in EFL Teacher Education Programs in the Middle East

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Abstract—**Although there is general agreement that there is a difference between assessment *of* learning (summative assessment), and assessment *for* learning (formative assessment), and that both forms of assessment have valuable roles to play, comparatively little attention is given to the latter in foreign language teacher education programs (FLTEPs) in the Middle East. The inclusion of formative assessment in foreign language teacher education curricula is meant to improve student teachers' learning and that is why it generally counts towards the final grades. However, little formative classroom assessment, as compared to summative, is currently provided and as a result, student teachers are unable to benefit from the positive effect this would have on their learning. There is in practice a gulf between the decision-takers' requirements that formative classroom assessment should be used and instructors' distrust in this form of assessment. This research paper assumes that this view is unconsciously inherent in FLTEPs, which is the major channel for training and recruiting teachers of foreign languages at pre-university levels in many Arab states. Therefore, the aim of this study is to provide a snapshot of the implicit/explicit formative classroom assessment culture in FLTEPs in the Middle East.**

Index Terms—**formative assessment, summative assessment, assessment culture**

I. INTRODUCTION

"What is the benefits of doing X or Y?" is the simplest of questions often asked by those involved in a task, be it as big as Barak Obama desperately planning to imitate George Bush in invading some countries or as small as Joe Bloggs having to deliver a pizza hot to someone who ordered it for dinner. Though discrepant in depth, in/formality and level of complexity, of course, almost very similar assessment processes are undertaken by Mr Obama and Mr Bloggs because both need ongoing assurance that the moves they are making are the right ones otherwise new decisions need to be taken. In order to achieve their desired target(s), each should be willing and committed to carry out procedural formative assessments that would positively, or negatively, influence their final status. Formative classroom assessment (FCA hereafter) is no different. It has always been involved one way or another in the educational landscape although its roles and purposes have been viewed differently according to how the pendulum of interest has swung throughout educational history.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW: SHIFTING SANDS IN ASSESSMENT

Until recently, formative assessment has been overshadowed by summative assessment practices in more ways than one. In fact, summative assessment research dominated and comparatively very little attention was given to formative assessment per se to the extent that formative assessment practices appeared unreliable and lacking connection to school assessment approaches (Knight and Yorke, 2003; Torrance and Pryor, 1998; Crooks, 1988). Indeed formative assessment has been overlooked by summative assessment advocates over the last four decades (Jones, 2005; Crooks, 1988) and a sort of conflation between these two assessment strategies is often found in the literature, which has obviously been a prime cause of *definitional fuzziness* (Yorke, 2003) in the constant attempts to describe formative assessment. In this respect, the term '*formative evaluation*' was originally used by Scriven in 1967 in *the Methodology of Evaluation*, but it was Benjamin Bloom who first used it in his *Handbook on the Formative and Summative Evaluation of Student Learning* in 1971 with its current meaning (Black and Wiliam, 2003; Wiliam and Black, 1996). Yet, there is still some uncertainty and lack of clarity in relation to the terminology used with formative assessment. Some of the terminology used by researchers includes *classroom evaluation* (Crooks, 1988; Bloom et al., 1971; Scriven, 1967), *teacher assessment* (Teasdale and Leung, 2000), *classroom assessment* (Stiggins, 2002a; McMillan, 2001) *classroom-based-assessment* (Gipps, 1999), *teacher-made assessment* (Wildemuth, 1984), *in-course assessment* (Greer, 2001), *learning-oriented assessment* (Keppell et al., 2006; Carless et al., 2006), *teacher-developed assessment* (Stiggins and Bridgeford, 1985), *assessment to assist learning* (Ash and Levitt, 2003), *low-stakes assessment* (Wise and DeMars, 2005) or just *feedback* (Dietel et al., 1991). However, the most recently-coined term is *assessment for learning* (James and Pedder, 2006; Wiliam et al., 2004).

It was in the last decade or so that FCA has come to the fore. It has even been claimed that this sort of assessment has developed into a prominent research area in its own right. The change in assessment vision has been ascertained by many research experts in different forums (e.g. Black and Wiliam, 1998a; 1998b; Gipps 1999 and others). In fact,

considerable arguments have been concerned with finding answers to questions such as "Is there a distinctive area where a line can be drawn between assessment and learning?" and "Do they overlap in a rather blurred area where assessment can be dealt with as a learning experience that would engage students into a sort of reasoning?". The advance in our understanding of the learning process and how it takes place has been a major impetus to re-examine and reform education systems and this entailed a shift in the way(s) assessment is perceived. This reconceptualization, as labelled by Anderson (1998) and McMillan (2001), has added to our insights of assessment in general and FCA in particular. The change in assessment purposes has led to the realization of the limitedness of a single assessment technique to serve all purposes. Reliance on objective testing and standardization procedures can be helpful in certification and accountability, but the beneficial element every single student might gain can be maximized through using other forms of assessment, i.e. formative classroom assessment. Although the issue of formative assessment has been reviewed by Natriello (1987) and Crooks (1988), Black and Wiliam's (1998a; 1998b) review is more widely recognized in assessment forums where it has been considered, especially in the UK, the spark for the current inevitable interest in assessment in relation to learning, i.e. *assessment for learning* (Sadler, 1998).

In their description of the Black Box, Black and Wiliam (1998b) revealed how the pressures on the teaching/learning process is externally managed by some educational bodies with the prime aim of raising standards with the least attention given to what goes on inside the black box. They state "But what is happening inside? How can anyone be sure that a particular set of new inputs will produce better outputs if we don't at least study what happens inside?". In fact, Black and Wiliam (1998a; 1998b) urged the move towards a re-conceptualisation of the trichotomous interrelationship among *assessment, teaching and learning*. Here, these two authors state:

'one of the outstanding features of studies of assessment in recent years has been the shift in the focus of attention, towards greater interest in the interactions between assessment and classroom learning and away from concentration on the properties of restricted forms of test which are only weakly linked to the learning experiences of students' (p.7)

The move has been widely acknowledged by many researchers (e.g.Irons, 2008; Black et al., 2003; Briggs et al., 2003; Fautley and Savage, 2002; Stiggins, 2002; Shepard, 2000; Boud, 1995). Likewise, many educational bodies have adapted this interrelationship as a cornerstone of their work. Some of these are *Qualification and Curriculum Authority* (QCA), *Department for Children, Schools and Families* (DCSF), *Department for Education and Skills* (DfES), *Assessment is for learning* (AifL), *Centre for Excellence in Teaching & Learning in Assessment for Learning* (CETL AfL) and others. Therefore, Black and Wiliam (1998a) describe formative assessment as '*encompassing all those activities undertaken by teachers, and/or by their students, which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged'* (pp.7-8). Similar accounts are also given by Sadler (1998), Dietel et al. (1991), James and Pedder (2006) and Irons (2008).

However, the conflict between the social role of assessment (i.e. the assessment culture) and the educational one often imposes an impediment that might prevent the beneficial impact of formative assessment. Yet, the very nature of this conflict varies from one educational system to another and from one context to the other. This study therefore examines the explicit/implicit formative classroom assessment culture in foreign language teacher education programs in some Middle Eastern countries, i.e. Egypt, Saudi Arabia and Libya.

III. The Study Background and Methodology

Foreign language teacher education programs in the Middle East are generally undertaken by Faculties of Education, Arts and sometimes Teacher Education Higher Institutes in certain countries in which student teachers generally enrol on four-year pre-service programs after obtaining their secondary school certificate. The mission of these institutions is mainly to provide pre-service teacher training that would qualify foreign language teachers at a Bachelor level to work as language teachers at the pre-university stages. However, schooling in most Middle Eastern countries can be characterised as an examination oriented system (Hargreaves, 1997) and so are FLTEPs in these countries. Consequently, almost all sorts of classroom practice align with the summative assessment plethora inherited in the education context. In contrast, the challenge of providing realistic formative assessment that would have beneficial impact on student teachers' learning is often questionable in such contexts. The challenge, this researcher suggests, is presumably based on an assessment culture created by a number of forces (e.g. large student numbers) and hence imposed on instructors and student teachers in these contexts. According to this working assessment culture, the sole purpose of FCA is to provide assessment tasks that would simulate the summative ones, i.e. summative use of formative assessment. As a result, a feel of distrust in formative assessment that would imply any sort of dissimilarities with summative ones is generally often the case. This study therefore aimed to provide a snapshot of the implicit/explicit formative classroom assessment culture in foreign language teacher education programs in Egypt, Saudi Arabia and Libya as typical Middle Eastern countries. Other Arab countries in the Gulf area (e.g. Qatar, Bahrain, UAE) were not considered here for a number of reasons the most important of which is that such countries depend on native speakers in EFL teaching in both state schools as well as international accredited schools.

The present study focused on FCA practice in writing classes in which the importance of this sort of assessment has continuously been emphasized in the literature (e.g. Hattie and Timperley, 2007). The study questions, as so will the results, address three major themes. These are a) instructors' views about the purpose/role of FCA for themselves, as well as for students, b) instructors' attitudes towards FCA as well as their perception of the attitudes of other parties that

might be interested (including students) and c) evaluation with current FCA practice and whether or not there is a need for change. The study questions were therefore tied closely to such themes. These questions were:

1. How far do instructors in the target context have common/different perception of formative assessment purposes?
2. What are instructors' attitudes, as opposed to their perception of their students' attitudes, towards FCA?
3. How do instructors evaluate current practices and how far do they share common views about the need for change?

A. The Study Sample

TABLE 1.
THE STUDY SAMPLE

Country	Questionnaire Participants	Interviewees
Egypt	21	3
Saudi	19	3
Libya	14	3
Total	*54*	9

The sample comprised a total of 63 instructors from different universities within the three countries involved (see table 1). Fifty-four participants responded to a questionnaire. The rest of the participants were interviewed through a semi-structured interview. The sample comprised lecturers, assistant lecturers and demonstrators. These represented 19 universities in all three countries. Egyptian participants came from 9 universities, Saudi came from 6 universities and Libyans came from 4 universities.

B. The Study Instruments and Data

The study was mainly based on two instruments: a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. The questionnaire was administered online and was live for 2 months. The questionnaire aimed to elicit data about the three themes mentioned earlier in this study. Participants were reached through networking sampling in which "participants who possess certain characteristics are selected and asked to refer others with similar characteristic" (Lodico et al. 2006). Having established communication with some participants through their contact details as published on the universities web pages, these provided contact details of other participants. A total of 137 invitations were sent off and a total of 63 responses were completed while 56 dropped out after starting and 18 did not respond at all. However, the completion rate was somewhat similar in all three countries (see table 2). Although the overall completion rates of the questionnaire were not very high as compared to the number of the online invitations sent off (see table 2), the respondents came from various universities in all three countries and this would urge the researcher to suggest that the study sample was representative.

TABLE 2.
INSTRUCTORS QUESTIONNAIRE COMPLETION RATE

	Viewers	Responses	Drop Outs	Completion Rate	
Egyptians	53	21	20		51.22%
Saudis	49	19	15		55.88%
Libyans	35	14	21		50%

On the other hand, semi-structured interviews were also used with a total of 9 participants distributed evenly with regard to the countries involved. The interviews were conducted online via Skype. The aims of the interviews were to explore the implicit issues brought about in the questionnaire and to find out the extent to which participants might share common perceptions of the need for change. It is noteworthy to mentions that the data obtained from the questionnaire was validated during the interviews.

IV. THE STUDY MAIN FINDINGS

The findings obtained in this study addressed the three main themes described earlier. These themes were the basis on which the assessment culture in the study context was profiled. These were a) instructors' views about the purpose/role of FCA for themselves as well as for students, b) instructors' attitudes towards FCA as well as their perception of the attitudes of other parties that might be interested (including students) and c) evaluation of current FCA practice and whether or not there is a need for change. In the remaining part of this section, findings on such themes are introduced correspondingly.

A. Instructors' Views about FCA

Investigating instructors' views targeted participants' understanding of the purposes and roles of FCA for instructors themselves, as well as for students. As for instructors' views of the purposes of FCA, a three-point scale was used to elicit their dis/agreement on the following purposes:

- *identifying what knowledge and skills have been learnt,*
- *providing evidence for student current writing performance,*
- *providing evidence of student long term progress,*

- *providing information about what students can do rather what they can not do, and*
- *monitoring teaching performance.*

TABLE 3.
PARTICIPANTS' VIEWS ABOUT THE ROLES OF FCA FOR INSTRUCTORS

Item	Country	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Identify what knowledge and skills have been learnt	Egypt	94%	0 %	6%
	Saudi	95%	0%	5%
	Libya	92%	8%	0%
Provide evidence for student current writing performance	Egypt	97%	0%	3%
	Saudi	80%	**15%**	5%
	Libya	89%	11%	0%
Provide evidence of student long term progress	Egypt	81%	6%	13%
	Saudi	85%	5%	10%
	Libya	78%	7%	14%
Provide information about what students can do rather what they can not do	Egypt	68%	16%	16%
	Saudi	55%	30%	15%
	Libya	67%	22%	11%
Monitor Teaching Performance	Egypt	4%	26%	70%
	Saudi	5%	40%	55%
	Libya	11%	11%	87%

TABLE 4.
PARTICIPANTS' VIEWS ABOUT THE ROLES OF FCA FOR STUDENTS

Item	Country	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Give students feedback	Egypt	94%	3%	3%
	Saudi	89%	6%	5%
	Libya	100%	0%	0%
Motivate students	Egypt	90%	6%	3%
	Saudi	65%	25%	10%
	Libya	78%	22%	0%
Help students produce better writing QUALITY	Egypt	97%	0%	3%
	Saudi	75%	15%	10%
	Libya	89%	11%	0%
Help students produce better writing QUANTITY	Egypt	55%	19%	3%
	Saudi	20%	15%	30%
	Libya	67%	11%	22%
Provide evidence of long-term performance	Egypt	53%	21%	2%
	Saudi	65%	23%	12%
	Libya	67%	25%	8%

   Participants showed their strong agreement to three main issues in terms of FCA roles for instructors: *identifying what knowledge and skills have been learnt, providing evidence for student current writing performance and providing evidence of student long term progress.* Less agreement was revealed with regard to *providing information about what students can do rather what they cannot do* (see table 3). However, a considerable number of participants revealed that formative assessment is not viewed as a valid tool to *monitor teaching performance*. Further elaboration with regard to these issues was brought to the interviews. An overall look at the participants' responses during the interviews, the researcher perceived a feel of summative use of formative assessment among interviewees. The strong agreement participant reflected with regard to *identifying what has been learnt, providing evidence for performance and long-term progress and even what students can do rather what they cannot do* was mainly because such aspects, according to interviewees, are signs of good achievement in future summative assessments. On the other hand, participants viewpoints indicating that formative assessment is not a valid tool to monitor teaching performance is simply because their contexts are highly summative examination led and the consequences of this type of assessment are often more influential on students' careers. Hence, policies are orientated more towards summative assessment in which instructors and students exert efforts to achieve better marks. According to one participant, '*students would never engage with a formative assessment task in the same way they would with a summative assessment*'. Moreover, many viewpoints assumed that students are even distrustful in any type of assessment that might have marginal influence, or even no influence at all, on their marks. Consequently, instructors' lack of enthusiasm enhances distrust in this sort of assessment. Therefore, the majority of instructors see no point in using FCA for monitoring teaching performance.

   On the other hand, this paper examined instructors' perception of the role of FCA for students. Almost all participants in the three countries agreed that FCA should provide feedback to students. Although 90% of Egyptian participants believed that FCA should be a source of motivation, a considerable number of Saudi and Libyan participants (25% and 22% correspondingly) were neutral about this issue. Furthermore, the majority of participants

agreed that FCA should improve students' writing quality rather than writing quantity. This was reflected in their responses to the items in table 4. The interviews revealed that such neutrality was because in reality FCA practice is not as frequent as it should be in these contexts, and therefore the impact on students' motivation is minimum. Furth

A considerable number of participants in Egypt, Saudi and Libya expressed their agreement that FCA should provide evidence of student long-term progress (81%, 85% & 78% correspondingly). In this respect, minor responses expressed neutrality and even disagreement. Reasons for such responses were sought in the interviews with instructors. While some views disagreed to attempts of any performance-profiling role of FCA, an examination oriented context, to these participants, would urge students to adhere to certain learning strategies in which they tend to exert efforts in the weeks preceding the final exams memorizing a subject matter.

B. Attitudes

Other important findings were explored on the dimension of attitudes. In this respect, this paper examined instructors' attitudes towards FCA as opposed to instructors' perception of their students' attitudes towards the same sort of practice. In the same way, the current paper examined instructors' perception of the attitudes of other stakeholders: school administrations and the community in the target contexts at large.

While instructors marked their own positive attitudes towards FCA in Egypt (62%), Saudi (60%) and Libya (89%), 26% of Egyptian participants, 25% of Saudis and 11% of Libyans still revealed neutral attitudes (see figure 1). In comparison, instructors were asked to rate their perception of their students' attitudes towards this sort of practice. In this respect, considerable perception of negative students' attitudes was expressed by instructors (48% in Egypt, 45% in Saudi and 2% in Libya) as opposed to a balanced perception of positive and neutral students' attitudes in all three countries (see figure 2). In terms of instructors' perception of the attitudes of other parties of interest, general neutral attitudes however, were noticed with regard to school administrations in all three contexts (61% in Egypt, 60% in Saudi and 41% in Libya). Although lower ratings were given to the positive attitudes of school administrations, there was a clear perception of low negative attitudes (see figure 3). Instructors' perception of the attitudes of the community at large was not much different to their perception of school administration in terms of neutrality. A general neutral attitudes towards formative assessment by the community was perceived by instructors as opposed to lower negative attitudes and lowest positive ones (see figure 4)
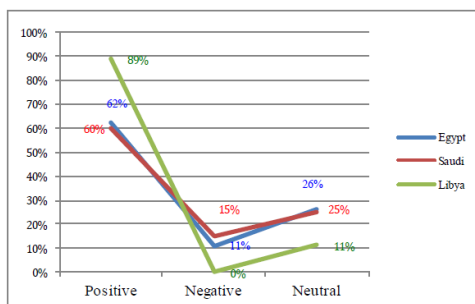

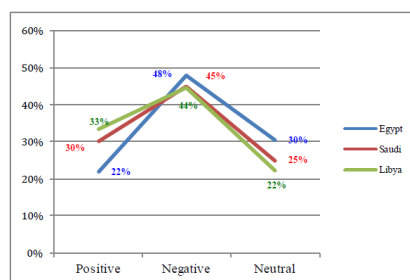Fig 1. Instructors' attitudes towards FCA

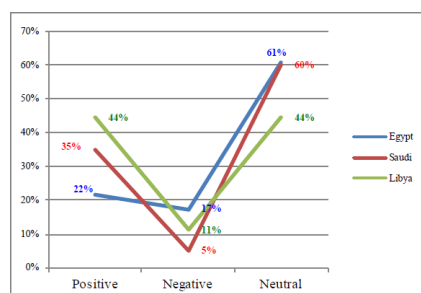Fig. 2. Instructors' perception of students' attitudes towards FCA

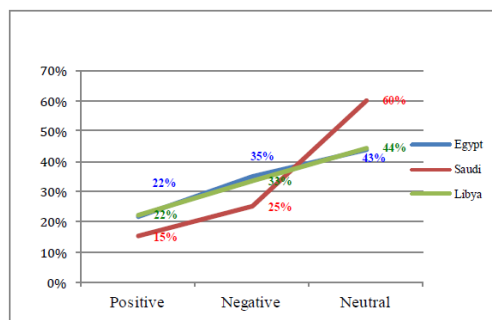Fig. 3. Instructors' perception of school admin towards FCA

Fig. 4. Instructors' perception of attitudes of the community towards FCA

However, in the interview an important concern voiced by instructors was their constant reference to the well-perceived negative student teachers' attitudes towards FCA practices. Many of them identified the explicit negative attitudes of his/her students towards FCA and the reasons behind that were not very clear to the researcher though mention of the educational system as a summative examination led context was often made. In addition, although many of the instructors expressed their awareness of the potentialities that such an assessment method might bring to students' learning, they revealed their dissatisfaction with the general unvoiced distrust in formative assessment. Moreover, participants indicated the urgent need to device strategies that would improve the perceived negative attitudes.

C. Evaluation of FCA Practice

The attempt to evaluate FCA practice in the target contexts focused on participants' own accounts of these practices. This was carried out in a way that would compare to their understanding of FCA purposes for both instructors and students. Table 5 below illustrates such comparisons.

Although participants showed their strong agreement that one purpose of FCA is to be informative for instructors and for student teachers in relation to a number of aspects (see tables 3 & 4 above), one emergent result from the instructors' questionnaire was that current FCA is uninformative for instructors. On a five-point scale all participants in three countries rated FCA as *below average* in terms of reporting what has been learned. Similarly, reflecting students' learning was rated *below average* in Egypt and Saudi and *average* in Libya. On the other hand, analysis also revealed that respondents deemed FCA as being either *below average* or *extremely poor* in terms of informing student teachers about their own learning, providing feedback and reporting long term progress on such learning (see table 5). Such assessment sort was even rated as *below average* in Egypt and *average* in Saud and Libya in motivating to student teachers.

Furthermore, the data revealed that instructors' responses with regard to the extent to which FCA is fulfilling to student teachers' learning objectives align with their responses that indicated their awareness of FCA being fulfilling to course teaching objectives. In this respect, 34% of Egyptian instructors, 40% of Saudi and 55% of Libyan, rated FCA as *below average* in terms of helping to fulfil the objectives of a course. On the other side, 56% of Egyptians, 60% of Saudi and 88% of Libyan classified current FAC practices roles in helping students fulfil their learning objectives as either *below average* or *extremely poor*.

However, further discussion of these issues was a major impetus for exploration during the interviews. It was revealed that instructors' awareness of student teachers' distrust in FCA practices acted as an impediment. To these instructors, FCA practices are not taken seriously by student teachers. In other words, the assessment culture encourages student teachers to believe in summative assessment as the sole type of assessment that would impact their careers. So, it would seem impractical for an instructor in these contexts to use FCA for purposes other than training students to collect more grades in the final exam, i.e. teach to the test. This reveals the extent to which the power of summative assessment tends to control instructors' practice even if they believe otherwise. Furthermore, some contextual constraints were reported in the interview to be highly influential on current practices. For instance, the issue of regularity of FCA practice was investigated and it was shown that practice of formative assessments in the classroom tended to be *average* in Saudi Arabia and Libya and *below average* in Egypt (see table 5 below). The main reason behind this irregularity was large student teachers numbers. In this respect, one participant stated, "*our section has too many students and not many teacher with much time. Marking assessment tasks every now and then is just not practical*". The interviews also revealed the issue of the impact of formative assessment. To these participants, student teachers show explicit distrust in FCA due to the inherent belief that they either have a marginal impact or even no impact at all on their final status in terms of success. Hence, instructors' efforts in this respect might be taken somewhat seriously by student teachers only when university regulations indicate that FCA counts towards the final grades. On the other hand, instructors feel more restrictions imposed by the contextual constraints of student teachers numbers and the summative examination plethora inherent in the assessment culture. This seems to justify instructors' views with regard to the extent to which FCA practices fulfil the teaching objectives. In this respect, responses even support the views that practices are not fulfilling to objectives of the courses as assigned by instructors.

TABLE 5.
OVERALL MATRIX OF INSTRUCTORS' EVALUATION OF FCA

	Aspect		Excellent	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Extremely Poor
1.	Reporting what knowledge and skills of writing have been learnt	Egypt					
		Saudi					
		Libya					
2.	Accurately reflecting student learning	Egypt					
		Saudi					
		Libya					
3.	Providing students with information about their writing performance	Egypt					
		Saudi					
		Libya					
4.	Reporting long term progress in writing	Egypt					
		Saudi					
		Libya					
5.	Providing students with feedback about their writing	Egypt					
		Saudi					
		Libya					
6.	Motivating students to write	Egypt					
		Saudi					
		Libya					
7.	Fulfilling to course objectives	Egypt					
		Saudi					
		Libya					
8.	Fulfilling to students' learning objectives	Egypt					
		Saudi					
		Libya					

Compared to their views of what FCA should be like, instructors' evaluations of FCA practices revealed huge discrepancies between theory and practice. This was made obvious through the interviews where the majority of participants indicated the need for change. A high percentage expressed a lack of institutional support in this respect. In other words, regulations within the universities involved in this study often prescribe issues that the contextual constraints would make them impractical and unrealistic. For them, the institutional role, especially in higher education, is much more important than the prescription of regulations and course specifications. It was also noticed that the sever lack of communication among colleagues about FCA and the way it has been de-emphasized not only by the Education system but by the assessment culture as well.

V. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

This study attempted to provide a snapshot of the assessment culture in foreign language teacher education programs in Egypt, Saudi Arabia and Libya. The main feature of the study findings is the paradox between theory and practice. Participants referred to a well-perceived distrust in formative assessment among student teachers. The study drew attention to irregularity of formative assessment practices on the part of instructors who therefore deemed this form of assessment as invalid tool for monitoring teaching performance or students' learning. The study suggested that there is an inherent de-emphasis on the part of the education system and that leads students, instructors and the community to believe more in summative assessments as the only acknowledged assessment tool that would influence students' careers. According to the participants of the study, this of course reflects itself in the negative attitudes held towards

formative assessment practices by many stakeholders. An implicit message in the interview, however, expressed a lack of institutional support in this respect. In other words, universities regulations often prescribe issues that the contextual constraints would make them idealistic.

It was also revealed that instructors implicitly criticized their institutions with regard to preaching unrealistic values. The institutions impose regulations that conform to theoretical advance in the field, but do not correspond to reality. Findings therefore suggest that although the potentialities of this type of assessment have been well established as it is believed to have a beneficial impact on levering students' learning to the extent that more and more educational bodies consider it worth exploring and exploiting, the assessment culture in Egypt, Saudi Arabia and Libya seemed to have established a paradox between theory and practice. To sum, FCA in the contexts involved is seen as a main concern for policy makers, school administrators, and instructors, but actual practice is different.

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Getting Experience through Experiments and Practice: Learning to Translate Ancient Chinese Poetry

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Abstract—The translation of ancient Chinese poetry (TACP) is one important aspect of literature translation, and perhaps even more difficult than the translation of English poetry into Chinese. The difficulty is partly attributed to the gap between the learning of E-C translation and its counterpart, the former still facilitating language acquisition while the latter moving away from it, and partly to the lacking of workable learning activities of TACP in the classroom. This study sheds light on TACP in the classroom in the L2context. It examines various procedures leading to the realization of learners' way to TACP, and suggests that average language teachers with a mind to the genre are capable of devising similar activities as discussed in the thesis. The purpose of this study is to promote TACP from the classroom setting, with average college learners as the subject, and to promote literature translation on a grassroot basis. The study draws on the argument that language learning and motivating materials are mutually promoting and on common-sense view that practice makes perfect. The design of the procedures and activities are based on the previous teaching experience gained from a literature translation course. Given that both the students and the teachers involved in TACP are learners, the success of the classroom interaction to tackle the ancient poetry lies in the specific steps of work, the low-level challenge of the activities and the interest and enthusiasm put in by the students and the teacher.

Index Terms—learning, translation, ancient poetry

I. INTRODUCTION

In China literature study is either an elective or a compulsive course for most English-major students of tertiary education. For English-major and science students alike literature-related material is used in reading course books or translation text-books. Extracts of short stories or novels usually appeal to L2 learners, as well as to language teachers, who are able to make use of its rich contents to design motivating activities. Kurn (2009) sees the educational value of literature in that reading literature develops skills that involve the abilities for discrimination, judgment, and decision. In this electronic age people feel a need to absorb information from conventional and digital sources and channels, as well a need to disseminate information, knowledge about a culture, history, literature, etc. Online pop literature is all around us, most of the authors being grassroots non-professionals. Anyone with secondary education may be a media audience or even a micro-media unit, absorbing or/and reporting life stories in semi-literature and semi-journalistic forms. In fact there is no clear division between literary and non-literary language, and that literature has no obvious and clear language of its own (Hall: 2005). In the context of globalization, literature translation in general, and poetry translation in particular, are gaining momentum in bridging different cultures and gaps of understanding.

Translation of classical Chinese poetry used to be job of the few highbrows, the specialists in both languages and in both poetry, and the studies of such topics are largely centered on aesthetic aspects of the genre, reviewing and appreciating the masters' translations (Tian 2013). In recent years, especially with the popularity of the Internet amateurs begin to take a keen interest in the classical poetry translation. *translators.com.cn* introduces creative work and translated products of both professionals and lovers of poetry translation. *blog.163.com* publishes amateurs' translation of the ancient poetry, together with their own writing and translation work. But altogether C-E translation is not as flourishing as E-C translation, and the translation of the Western poetry fares much better than its counterpart – that of the Chinese poetry, particularly of ancient Chinese poetry. The difficulty involved in the latter is of two facets, comprehending the original poem and putting it into a piece with similar poetic sound and stylistic pattern. This is never easy for translating the ancient Chinese poems, most of which are written hundreds of years ago, containing old-style phrases new to the modern readers. To most of the language learners, translation probably starts with Chinese itself: turning the archaic expressions into the modern popular ones. The tasks that follow entail lots of hard work done in comparative linguistics, in rewriting and paraphrasing (Lefevere, 2011). This practice may benefit advanced learners, when productive skill becomes their focus, and they are required to write their own research thesis and want to express their literary taste.

To involve more learners in observing models and accomplishing tasks, and to ensure a rewarding learning experience, it is obvious and necessary to treat the matter systematic, to consider it as a curriculum, on one-semester

basis, to furnish workable and variable activities, check progress and pool feedback. The word "learning" on the title is used rather than "teaching" because both the teacher and his/her students are learners, besides the masters of translation. The components of such an ancient poetry translation course would include the initial comprehension in the two languages, teacher-guided translation activities, and contextualized reading of poetic features or translation theory/techniques. Such a curriculum aims at a balance between the product and process of translation.
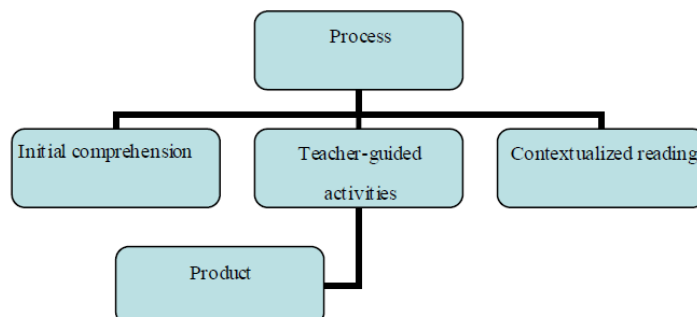
This diagram shows that the process is as important as the product, which is the outcome of systematic learning, and this is especially true of the ancient Chinese poetry translation. The classroom training of translators is like the training of novelists, poets, giving the trainees enough experience for observing the masterpieces and getting done workable activities.

II.   THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A.   Making It Amateurs' World As Well

Literature translation is going to be undertaken by amateurs and non-professionals as well as by the professional practitioners as a result of information boom on the internet. As afro-mentioned, literature lovers not just write their own stories and poetry, but have blogs to share their translations with other net users. Littlewood (2006) believes that the world created by literature is a foreign one, and thus is a way of assimilating knowledge of this foreign world. And why do we do literary translation? There are other purposes of translation, of science, finance, advertising for instance, but only literary translation enables the translator to share with the author the process of creation (Landers 2008).

B.   Process and Product

Translation is a process, involving the coordination between the text producer and receiver (Hatim & Mason, 2005). The English translation of ancient poetry used to be product-oriented, so that only the real craftsmen know the skill, which is hard to be imparted to general learners. In the recent decades translation theorists have begun to view it as a linguistic process, able to be developed from structural, syntactic and semantic units. Huang (2006) attempts to analyze the procedures from empirical, interpersonal and logical perspectives. He discusses specific matters such as the persons and pronouns in analyzing the original poem. It is generally believed that translation means interpretation and that the translator is the mediator of the two texts, not the finder of equivalence, and that a translator produces communicative translation rather than a semantic one. Quah (2008) uses a three-word term: product, function and process, arguing that technology is most possible to be applied to product and process. In the case of the average learners attempting to do TACP, process is as important as product, which is a productive skill to emerge with enough target language experience.

C.   Previous Findings on the TACP

In the recent decades, translation practitioners and theorists have come up with practical ideas and concepts that back up these ideas. Zhang (2002) argues that in TACP translators need to take care of both the meaning and form of the original poems and reflect them in the translation. He suggests that the integrity means faithfulness to the source poems in every aspect. Some translation practitioners offer practical ideas and techniques in their practice. The guide provides reference for theoretical studies and workable practice, is a valuable book for learners and teachers of a given translation course. Zhuo (2011) wrote a book called *A Theoretical Outline of Chinese Verse Translation*, which deals such matters as the quality of classic literature translation, criteria of English translation of Chinese poetry, comparative studies of Chinese poetry in English translation. These topics will prove useful in a TCCP curriculum. Also significant the established and budding C-E translators of classic works, in which beautiful translations are produced, poets' backgrounds provided, and sometimes the translation process discussed. Xu (2010) in one of his many masterpieces produced first-class translations as well as notes to the poets, and comparable English poetry. His translations and descriptions will provide excellent learning materials.

III.   RATIONALE AND RESEARCH QUESTION

The focus of this empirical study is tertiary learners through teacher guidance and models to eventually acquire some

basic skills of TACP. The study assumes that a curriculum of that status embraces procedures in teaching as well as learning, in development and consolidation of productive and receptive skills. This particular competence depends on the overall language proficiency, but the general awareness acquired in the classroom will serve to add to their enthusiasm about this genre, and to promote their amateur or professional pursuit. Unlike E-C poetry translation, where the final product is in the home language, which is relatively strong, C-E poetry translation requires a strong basis of target language, which is nonetheless lacking for most Chinese student translators. On the other hand, anyone who attempts the project is in a position to learn a language in a comparative way, to learn diligently and make breakthroughs. That's precisely the point for a curriculum in the making, to give learners tasks which suit their level, and which are easy to handle and use, and eventually make it possible to learn poetry translation in the classroom. Furthermore, the trend of globalization has set the cultural exchange in motion, and translation become a window for ordinary people to understand a culture, and the ancient poetry translation practice benefits the learner translators, but also those who are keen on Chinese and its culture, particular its culture in a literary fashion. In this investigative research, the following research question will be addressed:

How would a well-developed curriculum facilitate classroom practice and encourage learn translator of the ancient poetry?

Predictably the answer should be a positive one, based on my teaching experience. The course, if anything, is usually meant for learners of science and technology, as well as for English-major learners. The classroom interaction is not just concerned with translation theories or aesthetic appreciation, not with the skill development itself. The curriculum on which this paper elaborates is practice-oriented, concerned with actual development of the translation skills and technique.

IV. METHOD

This empirical study is based on the author's teaching experience with one class of 30 university students, taking a literature translation course, part of which is the classic poetry translation. They are inexperienced in this area of learning, but the topic is not entirely new to them; all of them have had some experience of reading old-style of Chinese and the ancient poetry. They are not skillful; nevertheless, they are enthusiastic about the class activities. The method, then, refer to follow-up summary and the experiment to design a trio-aspect activities suit learning to TACP.

A. Description of the Literature Translation Course

This is a one-semester elective course for tertiary college L2 learners, containing literature appreciation and the development of C-E translation skill. The course consists of literary reading in Chinese and English and TACP activities. The purpose of the course is to raise awareness of reading Chinese literature in a comparative context and develop competence in C-E translation, which is a particular weak area of the skills. In learning English in China there has been a delay of this skill, which attributes to two reasons, one being the fear that the mother tongue will interfere with the language acquisition, the other de-contextualization, meaning C-E translation is less effective than E-C translation, for lacking target language reference.

With the combined enthusiasm and efforts TACP appears to have achieved a moderate success. The learners are motivated by the genre and enthusiastic about the activities. Feedback is conducted through a question-sheet, with general and specific questions to elicit the learners' opinions, comments and suggestions. In addition, the end-term test questions are designed in such ways as to show much of the learners' awareness about such matters as sentence rhyming, structure balance, brevity and terseness, as their actual capability of translating lines or phrases.

TABLE 1
SAMPLE OF QUESTION SHEET.

	How do you like the course?	Please comment on it in a few words	Please leave your suggestions
Your name (optional)	A. I like it much. B. It's just OK. C. I don't like it very much. D. I have no opinion.		

TABLE 2
SUMMARY OF TEST QUESTIONS

General knowledge	
What rhetorical feature is found in the following lines of translation from a poem written by Li Bai? a) alliteration b) assonance	床前明月光，疑是地上霜。 Before my bed shine bright the silver *beams*, It *seems* the autumn frost on the ground so *gleams*.
What are the structures of the following two lines from a poem written by Zhang Ji? a) line 1: two clauses forming a compound sentence line 2: adverbial and clause b) line 1: two adverbials line 2: subject and predicate	月落乌啼 霜满天，江枫渔火 对愁眠。 　1　　　2　　　1　　　2
Translation practice	
Match the word at the end of each line with one of the same vowel sound in the translation.	月落乌啼 霜满天，江枫渔火 对愁眠。 Moon's down, crows _____, and frosts fill all the *sky*. By maples and boat _____, I sleepless *lie*.
Choose one of the translations, from lines of a poem written by Li Bai, and explain your reason for the choice.	故人西辞黄鹤楼，烟花三月下扬州。 *1st version of translation:* You have left me behind, old friend, at the Yellow Crane Terrace, On your way to visit Yangzhou in the misty month of flowers *2nd version of translation:* From West Crane Tower my friend is on his way, Down to Yangzhou in misty, flowery May. *Xu Yuanchong's translation:* My friend has left the west where they Yellow Crane towers For river Town veiled in green willows and red flowers.

Summary of the replies and comments based on question-sheet and the test questions.

Most learners have given positive feedback and expressed their enthusiasm about the learning literature and literature translation. Some feel poetry translation is entirely new to them, and a very demanding job, of which they are not quite capable of. Some enjoy working with partners and on the activities which are not very challenging. Some, however, feel frustrated for not being able to do as well as the established translators. Most of them agree that they need to work more systematically on such matters as rhyming, couplets, antithesis, alliteration, assonance, etc. Furthermore they need to compare language structures of the two languages. More importantly, they need techniques and guidelines to turn the phrases into similar ones with matching image, sound and sense. Some feel they have lost touch with the target language and are doing work which does them no avail in developing the foreign language.

B.   Adapted Components of a TACP Course

This adaptation is based on the assumption that the content of the course is entirely TACP lasting one semester. In addition to the original two components, i.e. activities of translation on fragments of a poem, structural features of poetry, readings on translation theories, approaches, techniques and the western poetry are an added component, meant to balance up the lacking in contextualized language reference.

V.   GUIDING TO LEARN

This chapter shows detailed class procedures in which the lecturer experiments using workable and not very challenging activities to guide them into TACP world. They are also trained to be conscientious learners with some awareness of theories, trends and approaches.

A.   Description of the Components

As was mentioned in the previous chapter, the course is both product and process oriented, getting the learners to develop an awareness of the basic requirements of TACP, of the basic features of Chinese and English poetry, and theoretical and practical knowledge relevant to the skill development.

1. Class activities

Class activities consist of three procedures/phases: explanations on a poem, modeling and practice. The teacher's explanation is the beginning of the learners' comprehension of the poem, with notes given in both languages. Models that follow give ideas for interpreting the poem lines, alternative expressions or phrasing. Fragment translation invites the learners to work on one line or two, possibly based on specific techniques.

TABLE 3
PHASE OF COMPREHENSION

procedures	presentation		
1.	The original poem	e.g. reading out a poem by Wang Changling, and giving the gist	秦时明月汉时关，万里长征人未还。但使龙城飞将在，不叫胡马度阴山。
2.	notes	e.g. allusion	龙城飞将：龙城, probably a pass in Xifengkou, in Lulong County of Hebei Province. 飞将, Li Guang, an army general of Han dynasty. The whole phrase means the heroic general successfully guarding the national territory
3.	Discussion questions	e.g. the meaning or implication of certain word combinations	Does "万里长征" refer to the distance between Changan and the frontier?

Summary

Table 3 shows the first phase of class activities, i.e. the initial comprehension of a particular poem, which is done in two ways: in Chinese and English. As well as the notes containing terminology in Chinese and explanation in English, the teacher also explains the poem either in English or in Chinese, orally or in written notes, depending on the smoothness of comprehension. Notes are probably essential when archaic expressions have to be dealt with. Writings very remote in time require preliminary comprehension in Chinese (translation into modern Chinese before into a foreign language, if necessary). At this point discussions are conducted to help learners with interpretation.

TABLE 4
PHASE OF MODELING (BASED ON THE SAME POEM DISCUSSED ABOVE)

Modeling items			
1.	How to echo the original phrase?	by maintaining the original structure and syntax or adapting it? Make a choice.	a) maintaining: Qin's bright moon and Han's pass, neither much change. b) adaptation: The moon shines as in Qin and the pass stands as in Han
2.	Reproducing the original image	by maintaining or adaptation?	a) maintaining: army men marching thousands of miles to guard b) adaptation: guardsmen of the Great Wall
3.	Considering rhyming schemes	e.g. following abab or aabb?	a) abab: not much *change*/are no *more*/guard the land and *mount-range*/approach our nation's *door* b) aabb: stands as in *Han*/is our *man*/still *there*/not *dare*
4.	Matching the original couplets	By using parallelism or expressions in contrast? Make a choice.	a) The more frontiersmen heroically guard, the fewer Nomads dare to pass (contrast) b) We miss heroic General Li who gave our land peace, the Nomadic horse hoofs to annoy us cease (parallelism)
5.	Considering the meter	e.g. revising translated lines by providing the same number of stressed syllables	The `moon `shines as'n `Qin and the `pass `stands as'n `Han (6 stressed syllables) The original: Our `guardsmen to `frontiers `far `went, `never `returned `protecting this `land (8 stressed syllables) Revision: `Long `marched our `guardsmen, who `died `protecting this `land (6 stressed syllables)
6.	Observing other rhyming techniques in the masters' translation	e.g. alliteration, assonance	alliteration: moon/mountain; still/shine assonance: **guar**dsman/**pa**sses/command

Summary

Table 4 gives a glimpse of aspects of TACP within the reach of the learners. There could be more of such exercises as long as they serve to build their interest and improve their translation skills. Admittedly the exercises are meant to impart the teacher's limited knowledge and masters' techniques to the learners, in what appears acceptable ways. There are two models in each exercise, for both comparison and choice, on the basis of which practice is to happen. The two-facet models also indicate there are two comparable translations instead of the only one, although none of them read as smooth and poetic as the masters'. They make the exercise approachable and possible, as human as imperfect, so to speak.

TABLE 5
PHASE OF PRACTICE (BASED ON THE SAME POEM)

exercises		
1.	Choosing and matching	Line 1: a) Qin's bright moon and Han's great pass, not change much b) The moon shines as in Qin and pass stands as in Han Line 2: a) long marched our guardsmen who died protecting this land b) Our guardsmen's heroic deeds deeply our heart touch
2.	Which one is acceptable to you?	a) Over the old route, shines the same bright crest b) Moon's as gentle, pass as solemn, as years past
3.	Follow aabb or abab, using one word	The ever-new moon shines on the aged _____, Where are our great guardsmen, myself I ask. Recalling heroic General Li who surely _____, Against Nomads who dare not to invade this land.
4.	Choose one word to complete each balanced Structure	Is it the same moon and the _____pass as we saw? (similar/old/well-known) How we miss army-men, but can't _____ them any more. (hear/see/talk to)
5.	Iambus: ⌒/ or Trochee: / ⌒. Analyze the following lines.	The moon is bright, the pass is strong, as yore, The army-men fought, none back to home any more. We miss commander Li, who guard and fight, The Nomads dare not come any more in sight
6.	Decide on the words forming alliteration or assonance	My *fr*i*e*nds has l*e*ft the w*e*st where the Y*e*llow crane towers (line from poem by Li Bai) The *s*etting sun *s*eems *s*o *s*ublime (line from poem by Li Shangyin) Perhaps the lovely Zhao *F*eiyan in her *f*resh make-up and new *f*ashion dress (line from poem by Li Bai) (translators: Xu Yuanchong, Tang Zidong, Shen Zhanchun)

Summary

Table 5 shows the content of exercise and process of practice, which are aimed to give general ideas of TACP, with both the process and product as the focus. It is justified by more than one version of translation which facilitates their interpretation and performance, and language learning as a whole. The characteristics of each item of practice are explained in the follow-up reading, to consolidate the concept form in the practice phase.

2. Follow-up reading

Follow-up reading provides some background information about the exercises already done and rationale of the practice. It describes and compares features of poetry, introduces techniques, trends, concepts and principles. The short-text reading is intended to reinforce class activities and allow a period of quiet reading and self reflection. The reading takes into account de-contextualization of the training and provides language reference to compensate the lacking of TACP. The training of a translator resembles that of a language user. Cong (2007) sees a competent translator as a person possessing overall knowledge, specialized techniques, genre awareness, and theories related to the genre translation. Wu (1998) holds that the training of a C-E translator requires the categorization of the target knowledge stored for use and a lot of comparative studies. Given that productive skill is like that of translation and emerges through cultivation, classroom training should in every way facilitate that cultivation.

The reading is made up of reviews, translation techniques and theories, as well as translations by different people.

TABLE 6
VIEWS/INTRODUCTION/DEFINITION

format of classic Chinese poetry	Overall, classical Chinese poems are strict in format, with same-character lines. There are five-character-line and seven-character-line poetry. The rhyme schemes are more or less regular. Rhyme and symmetrical expressions are important elements to produce harmonious and musical effects. Another distinctive feature is …
alliteration	The repetition of the same sound at the beginning of consecutive words has a long history in European languages. It is used both in verse and prose, as in …
foot	在汉语中，诗歌的节奏以此为单位，通过平仄变化表现音韵和谐。英诗也是如此，不过它的单位不是字，而是"音步"(foot)，即一定数目的强弱音以一定方式的组合。……

Summary

Table 6 shows fragments of extract reading, directly corresponding to practice activities. Each one is similar to the teacher's oral presentation prior to a particular round of practice. An extract like these rationalizes the learners' activity and mends their understanding gap. With this directory a learner can improve her/his performance at home, gaining confidence. Reading extract can also be a starting-point of a mini research, a result of further reading and thinking, with a few lead-in questions like "What are the syntactic patterns of a five-character or seven-character line of classic Chinese poetry?" "Is there such phenomenon as alliteration in Chinese poetry?" "What are the rhythmic patterns of classic Chinese poetry?"

Proper nouns	1）　原诗的专有名词被英译为对等的专有名词，例如：姑苏城外 寒山寺: outside the Suzhou wall, from *Hanshan Temple*'s bell (poem by Zhang Ji; translator: Cai Tinggan) …… 原诗的专有名词被英译为普通名词，例如：……
The illocutionary level	When translators have made up their mind where to place the source text in the culture of the target language and literature, they set about solving the problems, by proceeding to identify …
Grammar and presentation	所谓文言超脱语法、文法的自由，究竟可以到什么程度，我们看一个例子，苏东坡的一句诗：潮随暗浪雪山倾，我们也可以以另一种方式读这句诗：倾山雪浪暗随潮，语法没什么不自然的地方，而英语这样做完全不可能。……

Summary

This kind of reading widens the learners vision to literature translation in comparative studies, and in a sense is the extension of class activities, based on a written presentation. In terms of TACP the teacher has only limited ideas and resources. By borrowing other people's idea the teacher can enrich the class practice and invent tasks that incite reflection and solution, e.g. by inviting learners to see how proper nouns are translated in other cases, or whether nouns/verbs/adjectives are made into the same part of speech. For target language reading the major points of the passage may be given, in order that the learners get the major theoretical points after reading. In the case of grammar discussion may be held about grammatical characteristics of the English and Chinese poetry, and about how it affects translation.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Literature translation in general and poetry translation in particular, cultivate an awareness of comparative linguistics in the learners. TACP allows structural analyses and syntactic study in many aspects, and these analyses and study need not just specialists' involvement, but also participation of ordinary L2 learners, and need to become approachable through language learning activities. This will imply that translation theories get a bit away from the bookish discussions and concretize themselves into classroom activities which are not very awesome or challenging, and which incorporate with L2 acquisition for daily pursuit and reflection. That being said, it has to be admitted that learning translation is different from regular skill development, where learners immerse themselves, and become as efficient as they forget their mother tongue for a while. In doing translation, particularly C-E translation, learners no longer have the context to immerse themselves; they become "dry" and are learning without much language reference and contextual clues to follow. Receptive skills such as reading and listening represent a typical "bottom-up" trend of learning, in which students have plenty of room to develop themselves until their competence is acquired. They climb a pyramid all the time. Productive skills such as speaking and translation present a picture of a reverse pyramid, a process which requires a certain degree of competence to take up a project. Such a factor also makes the teaching of one such skill very challenging, a factor that prevent many language teachers from venturing on a teaching program of TACP.

Although it is particularly hard for a teacher to come up with effective methods to make the learners competent translators, any seemingly small, insignificant techniques may do them good and any piece of reading that bears the teacher's/researcher's learning experience may prove valuable in class, as long as these techniques and readings are approachable and workable, and able to elicit their participating enthusiasm and interest. In teaching productive skills, the environment to make language acquisition to happen and the teacher's will to make it happen earlier are both essential. This is also true with the learning of TACP.

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Preliminary Study on Application of Formative Assessment in College English Writing Class

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Abstract—**Educational assessment mainly consists of two manifestations: formative assessment and summative assessment. Formative assessment is ongoing assessment on learning process of students. It provides feedbacks for teacher and student through the course of teaching so as to help the teacher to improve methodology to satisfy the need of students and to promote the development of English teaching. Summative assessment is commonly considered as a major form of assessment, and it is an assessment focusing on result. Test achievement of student is its major criterion to evaluate the ability of student and the quality of teaching; therefore, it is a periodical assessment. The present paper reviews the origin of formative assessment, and discusses its application in college English writing class. The compositions of the experimental class students have more novel ideas and their teamwork and cooperation consciousness have been strengthened. The conclusion is that the application of formative assessment is beneficial in advancing students' writing ability and cultivating their team spirit. Some suggestions on effective application of formative assessment in writing class are put forward at last.**

Index Terms—**formative assessment, summative assessment, college English writing class, questionnaire**

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, assessment is playing an important role in college English instruction. In the process, assessment becomes an integral part of instruction and a guarantee of realizing instructional goals. Appropriate assessment methods are very essential because they can not only help students know about the focal points of courses and learning progress, enhance their confidence and improve their enthusiasm, activity and creativity in learning, but also assist teachers in understanding their teaching effects, reviewing and improving their teaching. Western education ideology has always been dominant in the world. It has laid a foundation for the development of the theory of education assessment. The most prominent achievement is the "Eight Year Study" initiated by American psychologist Tayler (1931) and other psychologists in the 1930s. The research makes education measurement shift to education assessment. The "Eight Year Study" contains topics such as the analysis and reflection of education objectives, objective system and feedback system. Tayler also definitely and explicitly distinguished between education assessment and education measurement. Since the 1960s, Bloom, an educational psychologist, and Scriven, an educationist, have pioneered a new era of education assessment. They set education objective as the research object of education assessment. The publication of Scriven's *Methodology of Assessment* (1967) indicated the turn of American education assessment. In the 1970s, people began to focus on the process of assessment and to emphasize the individual difference in assessment. Bloom's *Taxonomy of Education Objective* (1981) analyzed the identity of assessment objective and education objective from cognitive domain, affective domain and psychomotor domain. *Handbook of Formative and Summative Assessment on the Study of Students* (1971) and *Education Assessment* (1986), anther two books by Bloom, paid much attention to the promotion of assessment on the individual development. Students are to cultivate their skills, rather than to be confined to books, to study things in order to apply them and pay more attention to practice, to explore and to create. Accordingly, their ideology of assessment is to set the development of students as their main objective. In the 1970s, the traditional assessment notion was changed by the modern assessment criteria, which attached importance to collaborative assessment, self-assessment and other plural assessment methods.

In China, formative assessment measures have already been introduced into the English teaching of middle school, primary school, as well as for English majors, which is helpful to teaching and learning. However, as far as the college English teaching is concerned, formative assessment has not been able to be integrated into the current assessment system. It seems as if it has not been listed on the agenda. And little work on using formative assessment strategies has been done. Besides, little attention has been paid to effect of assessment on college learners.

On the other hand, summative assessment plays a leading role in educational field. Excessive attention has been paid to the scores of students. Students' marks in test are the only means of judging their learning level and ability. This kind of traditional assessment neglects the different interests, ability and learning methods of students. It is no good to help the students make good performance, enhance their confidence, build up their creativity in learning and to help teachers improve their teaching and understand their teaching effect. Thus, in order to make up the deficiency of summative assessment, it is necessary to apply formative assessment to instruction.

On this account, the paper is planned to analyze the relevant theories of formative assessment and discuss its practical

significance in college English writing teaching. It contains five parts. Part one makes a brief introduction of formative assessment. Part two includes the definition of formative assessment and the comparison between formative assessment and summative assessment. Part three presents an experiment of formative assessment that is intended to cultivate the students' autonomous learning abilities, cooperative learning awareness and creative learning potentials, and to change the results of their behaviors by means of various assessment methods during the process of learning. Part four focuses on the results and the discussion of the experiment. The paper comes to a conclusion in part five, which discusses the findings and the issues that call for further research.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. The Concept of Formative Assessment

The term "formative assessment" was first introduced by Scriven (1967). After him many researchers have conducted substantial studies on different aspects of formative assessment both at home and abroad. Formative assessment is also called classroom evaluation, classroom-based evaluation, or classroom assessment. "Assessment for learning" is also used to distinguish it from "Assessment of learning". As Black and William (1998) say although different terms are used, they mean the similar thing.

Formative assessment evaluates the efficacy of the teaching activity itself during the process of teaching in order to adjust the process of activity and to ensure that the goals of the instruction are being achieved. It may be carried out in the way of class observation, weekly notes, interview, questionnaires, portfolios of student score, homework, tests and student assessment and so on. Formative assessment includes the self-assessment of students, the peer –assessment of students, teacher-assessment on students, and the collaborative assessment between students and teachers. The key point of formative assessment is the actual tasks and activities performed by students who are the subject of formative assessment. It is used to cultivate the practical skills and communicating skills of student in college foreign language teaching. Firm evidence shows that formative assessment is an essential component of class work and that its development can raise standards of achievement in classroom. (Black and William, 1998a (5):1-74., and 1998b, 80(2): 139-148; Luo, 2003, 23-26; Yu, 2004, 32-35).

Different definitions of it given by different scholars are listed as follows:

Formative assessment is the process used by teachers or students to recognize and respond to students learning in order to enhance that learning, during the learning. (Cowie and Bell, 1996)

Formative assessment is encompassing all those activities undertaken by teachers, and by their students, which provide information to be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged. (Black and William, 1998)

Gipps (1999) put forward another definition that Formative assessment has been defined as the process of appraising, judging or evaluating students' work   or performance and using this to shape and improve students' competence.

All these definitions have one mutual understanding that formative assessment is a process, one in which information about learning is evoked and then used to modify the learning and teaching activities in which teachers and students are engaged. Formative assessment includes the involvement of both teachers and students; and that formative assessment includes the notion of feedback. The goals of formative assessment are to find potentials of every student, to stimulate students' learning, to provide qualitative feedback for teachers so as to help them modify their teaching methods and content. Therefore, the instructional efficiency can be raised.

B. The Characteristics of Formative Assessment

In educational assessment, formative assessment intends to enhance the quality of teaching activity by means of researching on the need of society, the need of educational participants, feasibility and problems existing in instructional process. The characteristics of formative assessment are summarized as follows:

(1) Formative assessment directly relates to the ongoing educational activity, focusing on improving this activity, therefore, it is the assessment in process, however, not the whole process of educational activity. In brief, formative assessment is analytical, emphasizing the feedbacks of teachers and students and complicatedly intervening in teaching process. Formative assessment can help to find out the problems in instruction so as to carry out new or remediable measures in time.

(2) Formative assessment relies on nonverbal as well as verbal information, for example, teachers can observe students, in terms of their facial expressions, body language, listening, talking and writing. The sources of formative assessment for teachers include the teacher's work in their books, notes, and homework; and teacher's listening to students' speech, questions. Teachers can set up different learning situations to provide the opportunities for this information to be elicited.

(3) The most important characteristic of formative assessment is the purpose for which it was done. The two main purposes of formative assessment are to inform the students' learning and to inform their teaching. (Bell and Cowie, 2001) The purposes to support the students' learning include monitoring the progress and learning or understanding the students during the teaching and learning. The purposes to support teaching include planning in the current lesson and unit; planning for future teaching; knowing when to input new ideas and when to move on to the next topic; knowing when to introduce an activity to maintain interest and motivation; evaluating the actions taken in previous formative

assessment and teaching activities; finding out if the students have understood or not; providing information to report to students, caregivers and the school; and providing assessment information additional to the quantitative marks on achievement in reporting.

C.   Summative Assessment vs. Formative Assessment

Summative assessment has dominated research and development because of status and the high stakes involved. It is the assessment focusing on the final results when certain teaching activity comes to an end. Scriven (1967) coined the term 'summative assessment' to describe outcomes assessment that yields an external, terminal judgment, as distinct from what he calls 'formative evaluation', which provides internal, continual feedback to the performer-in-action. Different from formative assessment, summative assessment, or formal assessment, takes place after instruction. Its primary purpose is to assess students' learning results. Final tests for a grading period, assessment at the end of a unit, and the end of the year are all typical sources of summative data. Teacher's primary role is to transmit course content, and learners are passive accumulators of information and knowledge. We are all quite familiar with this type of assessment in the form of term paper, term examination and research project. It is cost-efficient in terms of the time allocated to implementing assessment, and the test often assesses a range of content, including both major concepts and details. Besides advantages, its disadvantages, as mentioned above, are that it ignores students' foreign language learning process, misleads students' learning goals, reverses the relation of teaching and assessment, causes serious testing anxiety and provides little opportunity for teaching again. Occurring during learning process, formative assessment provides ongoing feedback to teachers and students. Its methods include classroom observation, portfolios, questionnaires and interviews. Formative assessment is integrated with teaching on a daily basis. It is flexible and idiosyncratic.

The following table illustrates the differences between formative assessment and summative assessment.

	Formative assessment	Summative assessment
Purpose	To monitor and improve instruction and student learning	To document student performance on a learning unit
Time of assessment	During instruction	After instruction
Assessment strategies	Informal observation, listening to student's questions and their responses to teacher's questions, portfolios, journals	Chapter test, final exams, reports, term papers, projects
Content	Specially related to what has been taught, i.e. content is in harmony with what has been taught	Not necessarily related immediately to what has been taught
Use of information	To improve a process while it is still going on; to be focused on the individual learner's specific strengths and weaknesses, needs, etc.	To judge success of student's learning and instruction and to identify systematically student's errors; To feed the judgment about a learner's performance into record-keeping and be used for administrative purposes, e.g. to check standards and targets
Structure	Flexible, informal	Fixed, formal, standardized for all students
Assessment design	Students and parents assist the design of assessment	Teachers and managers determine the content and criteria of assessment.
Hypothesis	The more opportunities students have for self-development, the better they will study.	The higher marks student get in tests, the harder they will study
Testing result	To judge whether students have learned something important in the learning process	To judge students according to the established criteria in advance
Reliability and validity	Reliability may reach acceptable levels with training; validity is high.	Reliability is high; validity is not so high.

Through comparison, we know formative assessment can make up for some deficiencies of summative assessment. It can help teachers understand students' foreign language learning process, adjust teaching to satisfy students' various needs and improve teaching quality. It benefits both teaching and learning. In a word, formative assessment and summative assessment are complementary to each other. Teachers should combine them in a planned way. Only in this way can both teachers and students achieve the best effects.

III.   APPLICATION OF FORMATIVE ASSESSMENT IN WRITING CLASS: AN EXPERIMENT

A.   Research Questions

In the study, I put forward the following two research questions:
(1) Can formative assessment facilitate the writing ability of college students?
(2) Can formative assessment be considered as an alternative to summative assessment?

B.   Participants

1. The Teacher and the Students

The subjects of this experiment study consist of 100 sophomores majoring in sociology in a college. The teacher (Shu) had had a three-year experience of teaching English writing at the time of the research. I, the writer of the paper, the

co-researcher, and the designer of the experiment, assisted her in finishing this case study. The experimental class has 50 students, and the control class has 50 students, too. They each have one English writing class on Monday every two weeks. The students of the two classes hardly had any difference at English writing level before the experiment. They used the same textbook. Formative assessment was applied in the experimental class and summative assessment was continually practiced in the control class.

2. Co-researcher

As the co-researcher, the author, female, I attended every class through the whole process. I designed researching methods and collected data with teacher Shu. I represented myself as both teacher and student, so I had devoted myself into the research of applying formative assessment in college English writing teaching. Influenced by the traditional teaching and evaluating system, the students had already been accustomed to the conventional acceptance learning style and the evaluation method of written examinations. In view of this, there would be some difficulties in the research. On the other hand, it showed and proved the urgency and significance to adopt a new evaluation method. I am contented with the effect that most of them behaved active in English writing classes and had confidence and ability to express their ideas about how to write an excellent composition.

C.   Tools

1. Observation

Informal observation is an integral part of everyday teaching: I continuously observed our students' language use during formal instruction or while the students were individually at their desks; I observed how students responded to and used instructional materials and how they interacted during group work; I observed how effectively they themselves were presenting particular lessons, units and so on. In order to take less time and get a general sense of students' learning, I divided each class into five groups. I observed students in two classes respectively during classroom activities such as whole class discussion and small group work. Besides observation, I organized writing conference on each Saturday morning every two weeks, which gives me a good opportunity to observe them carefully a wide range of writing-related skills. In the observation process, I used checklist to record the change of students through the whole experiment. Checklist is like a multiple-choice question with two response alternatives: yes or no. The following table is a checklist designed by myself to evaluate students' English writing skills.

	Yes	No
1.Write words correctly		
2. Use punctuation correctly		
3. Use grammar well		
4. Use sentence pattern correctly		
5. Use tense markers correctly		
6. Use prepositions properly		
7. Read fluently		

During the whole semester, I did ten times of checklist experiment. I only select three of them (first, fifth, ninth) to assist the experiment. Below is the percentage of selecting "yes" of the two classes.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Class one							
Class two							

On the basis of my observation, I assessed what students had or had not learned; I inferred the writing strategies students might be using that were facilitating or impeding learning; I analyzed which instructional activities and materials the students enjoyed. Information derived from such observation is fundamental to the day-to-day functioning of the classroom because it provides a basis for understanding what is happening and for making decisions about what should follow.

2. Questionnaire I and Pre-test

In their first English writing class, students in the experimental class were given a questionnaire (appendix I), written in Chinese and easy to understand. The experimental class participates in the questionnaire before their course, which includes the information about the students' attitudes towards English writing (quetions1, 3, 4, 5 & 6), their writing habits (questions 2 & 7) and their writing skills (questions 8-12). So I designed different teaching programs and instruction process based on the data collected from questionnaire I. All the figures have been calculated and the results will be presented in the following part.

The two classes took English writing test at the beginning of the academic year as one part of the pre-test. Both classes took the pre-test of writing a composition in about 40 minutes (see the pre-test in appendix III). The pre-test paper was written based on the writing task of CET-4, which was designed to be at the same difficulty level and the same genre-argumentative writing as the post-test. The mean score of the two classes are used to answer whether there is significant difference between the two classes in English writing achievement before the experiment.

The data elicited from the questionnaire I and pre-test were used to help me know the writing ability of both classes and learn about the strength and weaknesses of the experimental class.

3. Portfolio

Portfolio, a typical tool of formative assessment, is a purposeful collection of students' work that demonstrates to students and others their efforts, process and achievement in given area (Fred Genesee and Johna A. Upshur, 2001: 210-254). Portfolios are purposeful and require advanced planning. We aimed to document student's work and process so as to monitor and improve every individual's writing ability. Besides, students' self-assessments are very helpful for the teacher to learn about and document students' process. Because students were not familiar with the concept of portfolio, so we introduced its definition and purposes to them. At the same time, we designed some tables of must-included items in a portfolio and some checklist for self-assessment and peer-assessment. Finally, we assigned them three major writings, which would be evaluated and handed in. The cover page of the writing portfolio was designed as follows:

Writing portfolio
Student's name:_____
School year:_____
Grade:_____
Teacher's name:_____

We told students that their class performance, their after-class library researches would weigh 75 percent of the final grade at the beginning of the course (the rest 25 percent would be decided by the final exam score).

3.1 Self-assessment

Self-assessment plays an important role in English writing class and fully displays the principal-awareness of students. It is not only good to cultivate the earnest attitudes, but to stimulate to think correctly. In order to make a correct self-assessment, firstly we helped students make appropriate criteria of assessment, found out the factors of a good composition and provided an example. We let my student know what a good composition was like and make a proper assessment of their own composition. Factors of excellent composition include:

What a good writer can do?
I can plan before I write.
I can write about real things.
I can write stories with a beginning, a middle and an end.
I can ask others to read my work.
I can write complete sentences.
I can leave spaces between words.
I can put periods at the end of sentences.
I can make my handwriting easy to read.

After carrying out a series of criteria, students began to assess themselves, make clear of their advantages and finish the self-assessment table (see below) carefully.

Name	Date
Topic	
Choosing:	_____Seriously choosing a novel topic
Excellent,	_____Reasonable structure
Good,	_____Comprehensive content
Very good,	_____Coherent and clear clues
Adequate,	_____Consistent tense and person
Need improvement	_____Right punctuation and spelling
The place you need to improve:	

3.2 Peer-assessment

The significance of peer-assessment is to teach students the idea of being trusty, honest and fair to others. We divided four or five persons into a group with one monitor. After self-assessment and correction of first manuscript, groups should cooperate with and communicate with each other, discussing writings of group members. In this process, monitor should finish peer-assessment carefully. The peer-assessment table (see below) we designed is like this:

Topic		
Name	Monitor	Group members
_____Whether the main idea is clear		
_____Whether the content is complete		
_____Whether the hierarchy is clear		
The advantage of composition		
Mistakes in composition		
Methods to improve the composition		

Peer-assessment we made is with the help of the following questions:

> Peer comment written by_____for_____
> Read your partner's paper. Answer these questions:
> 1. What is the author's main idea? Restate it.
> 2. Does the author support the idea with evidence? What is that evidence?
> 3. What evidence is missing, or incomplete?
> 4. What questions do you have about this writing?
> 5. Is the conclusion effective? How would you improve it?

According to the feedback of students, some should improve their writings, and then a third correction. The final step was to hand in assessment to me. During the process, I designed the tables of self-assessment and peer-assessment, monitored my students, and organized their activities. We commented on their assessment-table and draft at the last step.

3.3 Teacher-assessment

We took part in every activity of the two classes, so our subjective estimate of the learners' overall performance or achievement can be quite accurate and fair. We got information by observing students in class, by questioning, by testing and by looking at their work.

Here is an observing record we applied in teacher-assessment:

> Student's performance in class:
> Student name:_____Date:_____Rank: E: excellent G: good N: need improvement
>
> | Attendance of class: | E | G | N |
> | Dictation: | E | G | N |
> | Oral presentation: | E | G | N |
> | Answering questions: | E | G | N |
>
> Description on performance:

4. Questionnaire II and Post-test

Questionnaire II (see appendix II) was completed by the experimental class after the course, which includes the information about students' attitudes towards English writing, their writing skills and their reflection about the writing course. Questionnaire II is the same as questionnaire I except for the last additional subjective question. I used the two data collected from the two questionnaires to compare students' attitudes towards English writing and their writing skills before and after the experiment. The two classes took the post-test (final exam) at the same time.

D.   Data Collection

Data collection in this paper was conducted through the two questionnaires, the scores of the two tests and the observation. The experimental class students were given 10 minutes to finish questionnaire I before the course and 15 minutes to finish questionnaire II after the course. In case some students may not fully understand some of the statements, all the questions were written in Chinese.

Both the experimental and the control class students were given 40 minutes to finish pre-test (see appendix III) at the beginning of the course. They were given 60 minutes to finish the post-test (see appendix IV) at the end of the course.

Portfolios were handed to me at the end of the course, which included all the work students had done, including three major works, self-and-peer assessment.

IV.   RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A.   Results

1. The Results of Questionnaires and Observation

The comparison of the two questionnaires done by the experimental class is reflected in the following table.

Question number Student number Choice	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
A2	12	12	12	16	20	10	12	4	2	2	4	2
A1	10	8	6	16	16	8	12	4	0	2	4	0
B2	14	16	16	10	12	16	18	20	26	26	24	30
B1	14	14	12	4	8	16	10	16	26	20	22	30
C2	18	18	16	14	12	18	14	14	16	16	18	10
C1	18	20	22	18	16	14	22	24	14	16	18	10
D2	6	4	6	10	6	6	6	12	6	6	4	8
D1	8	8	10	12	10	12	6	6	10	12	6	10

Note: A1, B1, C1 and D1 represent the data of questionnaire I, while A2, B2, C2 and D2 represent the data of questionnaire II.

We used the two questionnaires to determine whether students in the experimental class have made significant progress in their attitudes towards writing, their writing habits, and writing achievement by ways of formative assessment. Questions 1 and 3 are about students' attitudes towards English writing. There is no significant difference between both questionnaires. The reason may be that formative assessment is adopted in a short period and it is hard to

change students' deep-rooted mentality towards English writing. While questions 4, 5 and 6 are about the assessment: teacher's comment, self-assessment, peer-assessment, respectively. The number of choosing answers C and D decreased, while that of choosing A and B increased. Therefore, we concluded that after the application of formative assessment in the experimental class, students get to understand the concept of portfolio and hold a positive attitude towards it. Question 2 is about how actively students accomplished their writing task. We found out that students accomplished their task more actively after the course according to the increased number of choosing A and B, and the decreased number of choosing C and D. According to question 7, students' revising frequency rose, which is really a positive phenomenon. Questions 8 to 12 are mainly about how excellent students performed in English writing from the aspect of opinion, organization, grammar, expression, sentence structure and creativity. The above table shows that students have improved their aspects with the help of formative assessment. There is a large degree of increasing from adequate to very good. Question 13 is meant to summarize what they have learned through the whole semester according to their own opinions. About 80 percent of the students stated that they benefited a lot from the course. It is an open question. From the different results of this question, we concluded that they all held positive attitudes towards English writing and they had more confidence in writing. Their writing ability had been improved in general.

From my observation of the whole semester, we found that students in the experimental class became more active in writing class than the days without formative assessment. During teamwork discussion, they expressed their own ideas in a high mood and some with novel ideas. The attitudes towards English writing were changing from adequate to positive. The ability to use proper words and expressions was also improved. Team spirit and writing ability were increased to a large extent. On the contrary, there was no obvious change of the students in the control class. They showed indifference in teamwork discussion sometimes. The performance in the control class was less cheering, unlike the excitement in the experimental class.

2. The results of Tests

The comparative results of the pre-test and the post-test of the two classes are shown in the following table.

	Mean scores (Full scores 15 points)	Percentage of excellent	Percentage of pass
Experimental class	11.7→13	32%→48%	80%→92%
Control class	11.9→12.5	36%→44%	84%→88%

I presented the results of the pre-test and the post-test in the above table. The pre-test paper was designed to be at the same difficulty level with the post-test and both of the two tests are argumentative writing. The figures before the arrow are the results of the pre-test. So the figures after the arrow are obtained from the post-test. At the beginning of the course, students of both classes were nearly at the same level, and mean scores of experiment class are 0.2 marks' lower than the control class. Two means in the post-test are higher than those in the pre-test, with the means in the experimental class increasing by 1.3 and the control class increasing by 0.6. At the end of the course, the final achievement of the experimental class is 0.5 marks higher than that of the control class. Even the percentage of excellent and pass rate of the control group is higher than that of the experimental class before the experiment. However after adopting formative assessment in the experimental class, we noticed a significant difference in this aspect between these two classes. It is clear that the experimental class made greater improvement. Also, the percentage of excellent and pass rate of the experimental class rises in a larger degree than the control class despite the primary opposite proportion. Formative assessment played a key role in the change. All in all, the increase of mean scores or percentage of pass in the experimental class is higher than that in the control class. It follows that even if both of the two classes have improved significantly in their writing ability, formative assessment has enabled quicker improvement, with larger space.

B. Discussion

1. Formative Assessment Facilitating English Writing Ability

The results of the observation, questionnaires, self-assessment and peer-assessment in the formative assessment experiment all show that the application of formative assessment in the English writing class facilitates students' ability to develop thesis, organize paragraphs, choose appropriate vocabulary and manipulate sentences. Self-assessment is essential to students' improvement of writing ability. Students were asked to give their comments and assessment on their own writing after they finished each draft. By means of self-assessment, students continuously reflected on their problems, solutions and progress, and they developed their competence in critical thinking as well. On the other hand, through this activity, the teacher got more information about students' writing purpose, process, doubt, strength and weakness, which helped the teacher to offer an informed and quality feedback to student's writing. Through peer-assessment, students learned to evaluate other students' performance, made reflection on their own writings and revised their own writing wisely. The activity of evaluating others' works helps to strengthen students to voice their views and improve their feelings of being the center of learning. Therefore, students are highly motivated and willing to give or accept suggestions. Students' interests are improved as a result of experience of success and teacher's encouragement and praise. They are motivated to do the library research and verbal report, communicate with others and to revise their writing in order to accomplish their writings.

2. Formative Assessment Serving as an Alternative to Summative Assessment

Educators have realized much negative influence brought by using summative assessment now. From the perspective of students, as a result of overemphasis on the grading of assessment, a small percentage of students who get high marks can be motivated to learn. From the aspect of teacher, the traditional summative assessment is not telling teachers all they need to know about student's progress in writing; these observations or interviews provide teachers with direct evidence of how students engage in English writing process. Since language learning is an ongoing process, there are many decisions to be made during this process. Formative assessment is an ongoing process of gathering information on the extent of learning, on strength and weakness, which the teachers can get feedback into their course planning and the actual feedback they can give to their learners. It occurs during a writing process rather than at the end to provide ongoing feedback to the students so they can improve their work timely. The purpose of formative assessment in writing class is to provide corrective actions, as instruction occurs to enhance student writing ability. It provides significant information to learners about how they are progressing in terms of both their communicative and process skills, helping them to take charge of their own writing methods. Formative assessment also gives teachers valuable information about the process of individual learner's communicative proficiency, personal development, writing skills and social skills. Compared with summative assessment which is unilateral, formative assessment has gained more welcome.

3. Suggestions on Effective Application of Formative Assessment in College English Writing Class

Based on the analytic results of the study, some suggestions on how to apply formative assessment effectively in college English writing class are put forward as follows:

(1) Teachers should display their dominant function in formative assessment and show their studying and assessing methods in English writing class. Teachers should organize and guide students to collect and edit assessment, at the same time help them learn self-assessment and peer-assessment. As a result, good writing habit can be formed.

(2) With the existence of consciousness and dependence, activeness and positiveness, the supervision of teachers is necessary. Teachers should check up the portfolio periodically or occasionally to stimulate them to record the portfolio in a logical way. Self-assessment and active learning ability can be formed while cultivating self-constraining ability. Therefore, they can form a good habit in writing.

(3) In the course of formative assessment in writing class, teachers should build their own portfolio in writing teaching. Simultaneously, they should reflect, summarize and record instantly from the aspects of attitude, instructional steps plus instruments and personal achievement. In the instructional process, teachers should emphasize their own assessment, and gain more information through the communication or idea-exchange with other teachers. Consequently, they can improve their English writing teaching methods and enhance their own writing ability.

V. CONCLUSION

The experiment conducted shows that formative assessment does have important influence on students' English writing achievement. Formative assessment is an integral part of classroom teaching and learning. It is particularly important to recognize that formative assessment is concerned with keeping track of the learners' progress as it happens and identifies ways of helping it along. Its focus is on the process of learning. It is process assessment that exercises a powerful effect on affective language learning outcomes by enhancing the learners' competence and confidence as an individual. Formative assessment is particularly beneficial to teachers and students. Observation, portfolios, questionnaires and tests are effective methods to prove that formative assessment is helpful to improve students' English writing, to cultivate their team spirit, to stimulate their learning interest and to assist their daily use of English. With summative assessment, on the other hand, the focus of attention is on the result of learning, it is more concerned with identifying overall levels of achievement and measuring what learners do against them. In advocating that formative assessment which serves as an alternative to conventional assessment in English writing class, the author of the present paper does not deny the proper use of language summative assessment. What is important is that in the process of language teaching and learning, both two types of assessment should be adopted appropriately, with an emphasis on the use of formative assessment, and much work has to be done for the further study of formative assessment. Although I tried my best to do the experiment, it was only done in a small field. It is a small part under the big task. To enable students to fully benefit from it, I hope there will be more and more researchers who are ready to devote to this ongoing research topic of language teaching and learning.

APPENDIX I.   QUESTIONNAIRE I

请你根据平时英语写作中的表现回答以下问题。在以下各个问题后面，附有种不同的选择。由于个人情况不同，任何选择都是可能的，不存在答案正确或者错误的问题。

1.英语写作 _ _ .

A 很有趣 B 有趣 C 一般 D 没意思

2.平时你 _ _ 地完成写作任务

A 很积极 B 积极 C 一般 D 拖沓

3. 你对英语写作 _ _ .

A 很自信 B 自信 C 一般 D 害怕
4. 你认为老师的评语 ＿ ＿.
A 很重要 B 重要 C 一般 D 不重要
5. 你认为反思对写作能力的提高 ＿ ＿.
A 很重要 B 重要 C 一般 D 不重要
6. 你认为和同伴讨论你们的论文 ＿ ＿ .
A 很有必要 B 有必要 C 有时有必要   D 没必要
7.写作时我 ＿ ＿ 打草稿并再三思考修改.
A 总是 B 经常 C 有时 D 很少
8.你的作文在观点明确、有情感、有意义方面表现 ＿ ＿.
A 优秀 B 良好 C 合格 D 需再努力
9.你的作文在表达清楚、逻辑性强方面表现 ＿ ＿.
A 优秀 B 良好 C 合格 D 需再努力
10.你的作文在用词准确性及多样性方面表现 ＿ ＿.
A 优秀 B 良好 C 合格 D 需再努力
11.你的作文在主谓搭配、时态运用、主谓一致、句式变化等方面表现 ＿ ＿.
A 优秀 B 良好 C 合格 D 需再努力
12.你的作文拼写与标点 ＿ ＿.
A 完全正确 B 基本正确 C 偶尔有创造力 D 缺乏创造力

APPENDIX II. QUESTIONNAIRE Ⅰ FOR ENGLISH WRITING

请你根据平时英语写作中的表现回答以下问题。在以下各个问题后面，附有种不同的选择。由于个人情况不同，任何选择都是可能的，不存在答案正确或者错误的问题。

Questions 1-12 are the same as those in questionnaire I
13.谈谈你这一学期以来对英语写作的体会。

APPENDIX III. PRE-TEST PAPER FOR WRITING PROFICIENCY

Class＿＿＿Name＿＿＿Student Number＿＿＿Grade＿＿＿

It reported that some sophomore in a university decided to try their hands at business in order to get prepared for future. They opened five shops near the university. Their teachers and students had different opinions about this phenomenon. Some thought that their business experience would help them adapt better to the society after graduation, while other held a negative view, saying that running shops would occupy much time of students' time and energy which should be devoted to their academic study. What do you think? Write a composition of 200-250 words on the following topic:

Should University Students Go in for Business?

In the first part of your writing you should state clearly of your main argument, and in the second part you should support your argument with appropriate details. In the last part you should bring what you have written to a natural conclusion or a summary.

Marks will be awarded for content, organization, grammar and appropriateness. Failure to follow the above instructions may result in a loss of marks.

APPENDIX IV. POST-TEST FOR WRITING PROFICIENCY

Class＿＿＿Name＿＿＿Student Number＿＿＿Grade＿＿＿

In our culture, many regard "You are very smart" the most pleasant compliment. Parents like to hear that their children are clever; students like to hear that they are quick-minded; seniors are pleased with the comment that they are wise persons. These phenomena raise a question -- Is intelligence really that important? Yet, some successful people do not agree. They believe "diligence" is more important than intelligence.

Topic: Intelligence or Diligence

What's your view on this issue? Write an essay of about 300 words with evidence.

Your argument will be evaluated according to the criteria listed above.

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A Critical Discourse Analysis of the Reports Issued by the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) Director General on Iran's Nuclear Program during the Last Decade

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Abstract—**Regarding the importance of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) in discovering the way ideology is diffused through the prevalence of various discourses, the present paper is an attempt to illustrate how the ideological and political considerations are realized through textual features of Negation and Repetition as well as intertextual features of Argumentation and Persuasion. Reports about Iran's nuclear program provided by IAEA's Director General are examples of mediating role which such genres play to dictate the underlying contemplations of their producers. Using Fairclough three-dimensional framework for studying discourse at three levels of micro, meso and macro, it is shown how the language used in these 38 reports is not merely a vehicle of explicit transmission of knowledge but a means of implicit construction of ambiguity. An attempt has been made to demonstrate how an organization such as IAEA with a technical body through politicized linguistic elements directs the readers' impression of the IAEA reports and consequently revises and constructs their ideologies.**

Index Terms—**CDA, IAEA, ideology, negation, repetition, reports, politicized**

I. INTRODUCTION

Critical discourse analysis emerging from 'critical linguistics' expanded at the University of East Anglia in the 1970s, and the terms are now used often interchangeably. The ideas of Norman Fairclough, Ruth Wodak and Teun Van Dijk have always been contributing to this area. CDA as a whole network of scholars, according to Wodak (2011), initiated in the early 1990s after that a small symposium was formed in January 1991. According to Fairclough (1989) several disciplines as humanities, social sciences and particularly critical linguistics are submitting their findings to this approach. As an interdisciplinary approach to the study of discourse, CDA views language as a form of social practice and concentrates on the ways ideological and political considerations are reproduced in spoken and written texts. Demystifying ideologies and elucidating the sources of power are the common interests characterized through the systematic investigation of semiotic data whether they are written, spoken or visual (Wodak, 2011).

According to Fairclough (1994) Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) as one of its prevailing goals aims at revealing the ideological and political investments behind the supposed abstract linguistic representations. More recently critical genre analysis can also examine how lexical or grammatical choices may display the ideological commitments of different genre producers or may normalize the power of particular groups over other (Wodak, 2011). Since work in this area is relatively new, approaches from CDA have been a valuable contribution to this area of genre analysis. Such analyses should be based on lexical and structural devices and not the biased inclination of the analysts, as this is supposed to 'beg questions about representativeness, selectivity, partiality, prejudice, and voice" (Blommaert, 2005, PP. 31-32). Although maintaining total objectivity in analysis is difficult with CDA, the researchers have made their attempts to exclude any predispositions and propensity in this study.

All texts, whether spoken or written, make their meaning against the background of other texts and things that have been said on other occasions (Lemke, 1992). Text may more or less implicitly or explicitly cite other texts, they may refer to other texts, or they may allude to the past, or future, texts. We, thus, make sense of every word, every utterance, or act against the background of (some) other words, utterance, acts of similar kind (Lemke, 1995). All text are, therefore, in an intertextual relationship (Paultridge, 2006).

According to Wodak and Meyer (2009) a broad range of linguistic categories are not necessarily included in any single analysis; a researcher might come to this conclusion that just a few linguistic devices are essential to CDA studies. For example Behnam and Khodadost (2010) demonstrated how the lexical features of repetition and synonyms as well as the structural and thematic features of passivization, nominalization and predicted theme were utilized by the

discourse producers to mediate between their own underlying ideology and the target readers understanding of the events of September 11. 2001. Moreover, Using the 5 sets of categories of inclusion/exclusion, activation/passivization, association/dissociation, individualization/ assimilation, and personalization/impersonalization, Rashidi and Rasti (2012) explored the morpho-syntactic modes through which social actors implicated in Iran's nuclear activities discourse are represented in news reports of 4 Western quality papers all dealing, one way or another, with the issue of imposing or tightening sanctions on Iran.

In another study, Behnam and Moshtaghi Zenous (2008) did a contrastive critical analysis of Iranian and British newspaper reports on the Iran Nuclear Power program. In their study they investigated how the Iranian and British press represents this program to their readers following different socio-political patterns. It was made explicit that transitivity-based foregrounding and biased transitivity use have a particularly powerful effect on one's perception of the authors' purposes and relevant contexts.

Iran's nuclear program has been a controversial issue for more than a decade since 2003 when the International Atomic Energy Agency (IAEA) first reported that Iran had not declared sensitive enrichment and reprocessing activities. After that, the IAEA's Director General publicly reported about allegations related to Iran's previously undeclared nuclear activities. Launching an investigation, the IAEA's General Director deduced in November 2003 that Iran has neglected to meet its obligation according to NPT safeguards agreement in a systematic way and reported those activities to the IAEA with no evidence of its connections to a nuclear weapons program. Since 6 June 2003 the Director General of IAEA has distributed 38 reports regarding Iran's nuclear program with a lot of commonalities and differences.

Iran has regularly refused to stop its enrichment program, claiming that the program is unavoidable for its energy security. While Most of the IAEA members confirm the peaceful entity of Iran's nuclear program other countries as western side accuse Iran of unpeacefull atomic activities. Due to these opposite viewpoints hot discussions between the two sides have been made in different meetings. None of these meetings has come to an appropriate conclusion yet.

After an IAEA report in November 2011, the IAEA Board of Governors regretted that before 2003 Iran had likely endeavored to undertake research and experiments aiming at developing nuclear weapons capabilities. This cast doubts on the *possible military dimension* of Iran's nuclear program which paved the way for creating an atmosphere of threat and insecurity in the Middle East so that western countries could sell more military weapons and could implement more nuclear projects in the region. Moreover, such an allegation permitted Security Council to impose severe sanctions against Iran creating a lot of scientific, economical and social problems

Perhaps the structure and strategies of argumentation in political texts are the most pervasive, where a political dispute may evolve due to both explicit and implicit assumptions, the different steps of argumentation as well as the conclusions drawn. Through a textual and an intertextual analysis of 38 reports released by IAEA Director General regarding Iran nuclear program, the researchers are trying to uncover the political and ideological considerations tacitly realized by means of textual features of repetition and negation as well as intertextual discursive strategies of persuasion and argumentation. This kind of analysis seeks to answer the following questions;

1. How are textual features of Repetition and Negation used to convey the political ideologies latent in the IAEA reports?

2. How are the report producers trying to implement the intended, political contemplation by means of intertextual strategies of persuasion and argumentation?

II. METHODOLOGY

Fairclough (1989 cited in Wikipedia) developed a three-dimensional guideline for studying discourse. His aim was to map three distinct forms of analysis onto one another: analysis of (spoken or written) language texts, analysis of discourse practice (processes of text production, distribution and consumption) and analysis of discursive events as examples of sociocultural practice. Specifically, he combined micro, meso and macro-level interpretations. At the micro-level, the analyst is concerned with the text's syntax, metaphoric structure and certain rhetorical devices. The meso-level comprised studying the text's production and consumption, concentrating on how power relations are enacted. At the macro-level, the analyst considers intertextual relationships, trying to understand the broad, societal currents that are influencing the text being studied. As such the method used here involves disclosing the political and ideological considerations through examining how the linguistic means and specific context dependent linguistic realizations are manifested at micro, meso and macro levels.

1. Micro level

Fairclough (1995a) claims texts can use lexical choices to indicate level of authority and co-membership with the audience. Authors will often seek to influence us through claims to having power over us. They will use specific, official sounding terms that help to convey authority. With regard to this level, the 38 reports of IAEA director General are analyzed to account for the procedures through which the lexical features of Negation and Repetition were used to carry the intentions embedded in linguistic representations. Hence the number of negative as well as repeated words and sentences by means of required software is counted. Also the reports producers' metaphorical structure of the texts is analyzed to account for the intended illusions and delusions used to dictate authority.

2. Meso level

According to Fairclough (1992) CDA is an attempt to make up for the lack of development of the nature of the link between language, power and ideology and accounts for the process of revealing those political and ideological investments. Also Van Dijk (1993) thinks that CDA is an attempt to reveal the social relations of power which exist in texts both explicitly and implicitly. A critical approach to discourse is trying to discover the links between the text (micro level) and the masked power structures in society (macro sociocultural practice level) by means of discursive practices based on which the text was produced (meso level) (Thompson, 2002). In other words, a text, an account of something that is taking place in a larger social context abundant with a complex set of power relations, is interpreted and induced by readers or listeners depending on the rules, norms, and mental models of the society they live in. By comparing and analyzing the language used in these 38 reports an attempt is made to unveil such discursive strategies of argumentation and persuasion some of which are explicitly articulated and others implicitly.

3. Macro level

Research in CDA has been mainly concerned with the persuasive influence of power, a conception of power associated with Gramsci (1971), whose concept of hegemony describes the ways through which dominant groups in society succeed in persuading subordinate groups to accept the former's own moral, political and cultural values and institutions. Through ethnographic information and analyzing intertextual relationship of the reports it is discussed how the concept of hegemony is practiced throughout these reports.

III. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The data for the present study comprises 38 reports by IAEA Director General from 2003 to 2012 downloaded from IAEA Official Internet Site. These reports were varied from 5 pages to 30 pages depending on Iran's nuclear program. All the reports were analyzed carefully in terms of cohesive and coherent devices which at micro, meso and macro level influenced the readers' conceptions of the texts.

A. Data Analysis and Discussion at Micro Level

At micro level the reports were analyzed in terms of negation and repetition. Nearly all the negated words, suffixes and prefixes as **not, no, nor, un, never, any, none, rarely, n't** etc, were searched in the texts carefully so that the most frequent ones be found. From among the many negated words used the four **'not', 'no', 'nor'**, and prefix **'un'** were the most frequent which were repeated as follow; 'not' 505 times, 'no' 91 times, 'no' 37 times and 'un' 184 times. As figure 1 shows a comparison has been made between the use of negation concerning specifically Iran's nuclear program and the negative words used in the whole reports.1576 occurrences of negation with regard to the four negated words and the aforementioned prefix were found from among which 833 (%52.8) were devoted to Iran's nuclear program.

Some of the phrases in which the negation or the negated words are frequently used are as follows: **not previously declared, not been declared to the agency, not available to the agency, were not consistent with, not technically plausible, no specific information, etc.**

Also there are some negative sentences as follows based on which the reports' producers have tried to convey their ideologies;

► **The information provided by Iran has not been adequate.**
► **Iran has not provided specific information regarding its nuclear program.**
► **Iranian authorities indicated that they were not yet ready to discuss … .**
►**Contrary to the relevant resolutions of the board of Governors and the Security Council, Iran is not implementing its additional protocol.**

Through the deliberate use of 833 negation or negated words in the reports, the reports producers want to put emphasis on this claim that Iran is inattentive to IAEA rules and regulations. So this paves the way for putting severe sanctions against Iran, the point they have successfully achieved recently.
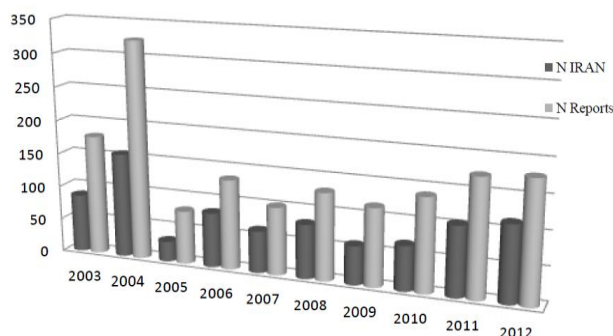

Figure 1. Negation used concerning Iran's nuclear program compared with the whole reports

Repetition is a lexical cohesive device which refers to words that are repeated in a text. The deliberate repetition of some items in a text may be due to this fact that the writer wants to put special emphasis on something so as to create a special effect in readers' mind.

In the IAEA reports, the producers have intently tried to absorb the readers' attention to the point that Iran's nuclear program is mysterious and that Iran does not provide precise information regarding its nuclear program. In other words by repeating some special items as '**undeclared, uncertainties, inconsistencies, unresolved, concerned, possible military dimension**, **contamination**' they have made an attempt to depict a picture which shows that the nature of Iran's nuclear program is not peaceful.

1. The words **undeclared** was repeated 105 times, **uncertainties** 20 times, **inconsistencies** 9 times and **unresolved** 10 times to indicate the world that Iran's nuclear program in essence is ambiguous and obscure.

2. The word **concerned** was used 22 times in the reports to create an atmosphere of anxiety and solicitude in the region.

3. The word **military** 186 times and the phrase **possible military dimension** 98 times were repeated in the IAEA reports to indicate that Iran's nuclear program is not peaceful. The exaggeration in the foregrounding of this phrase implies that the reports producers are trying to draw the readers' attention away from the peaceful nature of Iran's nuclear program and toward its possible military side.

4. The word **contamination** was repeated 195 times to illude the readers that Iran nuclear program is not peaceful.

B. Data Analysis and Discussion at Meso Level

Knowing that political forms of texts have political functions and implications, an attempt has been made to explore how through discursive devices of argumentation and persuasion the IAEA reports producers are trying to change the readers' ideology and beliefs regarding Iran's nuclear program. The sentences used throughout the 38 reports reveal how the writers put special terminologies in sentences to depict a picture that Iran's nuclear program is insecure and uncertain.

► **We were not sure ...**
► **Agency does not have any concrete information....,**
► **Iran has not provided specific information...,**
► **Iranian Authorities do not provide sufficient insurance...,**
► **Iran did not inform the agency...,**
► **Iran provided information not provided earlier...,**
► **The agency cannot verify the accuracy of estimate...,**
► **The agency is not in a position to verify...,**
► **No specific information was provided...,**
► **None of these activities involving nuclear material had been reported to the agency.**
► **The information provided by Iran has not been adequate.**
► **Contrary to the board resolutions ... and despite the intensified dialogues between the Agency and Iran ..., it has not been possible to agree on the structured approach.**
► **Iran has failed to report the receipt and use of uranium metal.**

The above sentences used in the reports creates an atmosphere of doubt and mistrust for the world public and the members of the Treaty on the non-Proliferation of Nuclear weapons (NPT) that Iran is disloyal to the international rules and regulations.

Moreover the report producers have tried to persuade the readers to follow the possible military dimension of Iran's nuclear program. The following sentences have been repeated throughout the reports to convey such an idea.

► **The agency ... is waiting for Iran to address the other topic which *could* have a military nuclear dimension,**
► **Iranian authorities indicated that they were not yet ready to discuss... .**

The use of the word '**could**' shows that the report producers without having any concrete information are trying to occupy the readers mind with this idea that Iran's nuclear program has a military dimension and that they should wait for future new information regarding this issue.

Moreover, the report producers constantly (more than 700 times) refers the readers back to the issues presented in one of reports in 2003 about **"a large number of conversion, fabrication and irradiation activities involving nuclear material, including the separation of a small amount of plutonium"** although in that report the agency confessed that **"to date there is no evidence that the previously undeclared nuclear material and activities referred to above were related to a nuclear weapons program".**

Going through the reports reveals that from one hand the IAEA deserves an authoritative role for itself using words such as '**must**', '**should**', '**is required**' and from the other hand the Director General makes use of '**is not able**' or '**unable**' to show that the Agency is not in a position to judge about Iran's nuclear program. These contradictory roles cast doubt about the right and fair position that the Agency could play in solving the so-called problem of Iran's nuclear program.

► **The Director General is unable to report any progress on the clarification of outstanding issues.**
► **The Agency will not be able to resolve concerns about issues regarding the Iranian nuclear program.**

In the reports provided by IAEA from 2010 to 2012 only one paragraph in each report with the title of '**Facilities Declared under Iran's Safeguards Agreement**' has been used to show the peaceful and secure nature of Iran's nuclear programme, while 23 paragraphs in 2008, 16 paragraphs in 2009, 11 paragraphs in 2010, 17 paragraphs in 2011,

and 22 paragraphs in 2012 have been used under the title of '**Possible Military Dimensions'** to depict a picture in the readers' mind that Iran's nuclear program is unsafe and insecure.

C. Data Analysis at Macro Level

According to Van Dijk (1997) predicates of the macrostructure of political discourse tend to be future-oriented. Given the role of discourse in the political process, we may typically expect references to or threats about future developments, announcements or promises about future actions and so on. Quiet typical for much political discourse is the fact that references to the past are ambiguous, those to the present negative and those to the future positive (Van Dijk, 1997, p. 17). This is what which is actually seen in the 38 reports provided by IAEA. In these reports ambiguous, long and repeated references has been made to the past, a lot of negation and negative words has been produced regarding the current state of Iran's nuclear program and trivial positive hopes has been made with regard to future actions Iran's may undertake.

The research in CDA has been mainly concerned with the persuasive influence of power, a conception of power associated with Gramsci (1971), whose concept of hegemony describes the ways through which dominant groups in society succeed in persuading subordinate groups to accept the formers' own moral, political and cultural values and institutions (Machin & Mayer, 2012). In democratic societies one of which is the place where these reports were released, power needs to be seen as legitimate by people in order to be accepted, and this process of legitimation is generally accepted through language and other communicative systems. The IAEA, on the other hand (unlike the UN), is not supposed to be a politicized body. It was established to be a purely technical body, tasked with independently verifying state compliance with agreements related to fissile materials accounting. A close analysis of the 38 reports reveals that how a technical organization such as IAEA enacts the notions of power and hegemony by means of politicized texts.

The reports' analysis at meso level revealed instances of how the writers persuaded the readers in accepting the possible unsecure nature of Iran's nuclear program. At macro level an attempt is made to show how the report producers in the many reports practice the hegemony by means of persuading Iran to stop its nuclear program or at least to accept the obligations made by the IAEA.

According to Fairclough (1995) often texts can use lexical choices to indicate level of authority and co-membership with the audience. Authors will often seek to influence us through claims to having power over us. They will use specific, official sounding terms that help to convey authority. A close analysis of the IAEA's reports reveals 69 occurrences of the word "urge", 89 occurrences of the word 'essential', 23 times occurrences of the word 'urgent', all of which are related to persuading Iran to apply the IAEA's obligations and regulations. Some of the instances are the followings.

► **The Director General continues to** *urge* **Iran to take steps towards the full implementation of its safeguards.**
► **It is** *essential* **that Iran also provide** *without further delay* **substantive answers to the Agency's detailed questions.**
► **The board of governor has adopted two resolutions addressing the** *urgent* **need to resolve outstanding issues regarding the Iranian nuclear program.**

These and all other instances are examples of authoritative role the IAEA plays in persuading Iran to accept the obligations and requirements assigned by IAEA.

IV. CONCLUSION

The IAEA purposeful tracking record in dedicating so much judgmental concern to Iran over the past 10 years, and not to other non-nuclear-weapon countries who have continuously participated in exactly the same production of knowledge and capabilities, by means of precisely similar processes, has been convincing for both Iran and the other members of the Non-Aligned Movement (including the vast majority of countries in the world) that the IAEA has thereby injured its independence and objectivity as an agency, which is pursuing technical monitoring and verification of other countries atomic capabilities. Instead, it is believable that it has become a highly politicized means of the foreign policy goals of the United States and other Western countries. Furthermore, the largest portion of the 38 reports is historical which refers to the years leading up to 2003. Its interpretation is considerably dependent on whether you are a glass half-full or half-empty sort of person. While the IAEA is claiming as trying to develop atomic energy investments among its members, it has confirmed beyond credible doubt through publicized and politicized reports that there is a centralized, tremendously established nuclear program in Iran, which is deliberately for military purposes. These points, altogether, establish an insecure and unsafe atmosphere in the world which is intended by the IAEA report producers and world powers.

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Corpus-based Research on Topical Theme Choices in Chinese and Swedish English Learner Writings*

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Abstract—This study investigates topical Theme choices in Chinese and Swedish English learners' English writing and aims to find out how topical Theme choices in Chinese English learners' English writings are different from those in Swedish English learners' English writings with native speakers as the research baseline. The corpus consists of comparable written data of Chinese English learners, Swedish English learners and native speakers of English. The results of the study reveal that the two groups of English learners exhibit more similarities in topical Theme choices than differences. They display closer performance to each other not only in all three types of topical Themes, but also in two of the five elements in informational Themes, two of the three elements in interactional Themes and all three elements in discoursal Themes. The results of the study also accords with past research findings in that both Chinese English learners and Swedish English learners deviate from native speakers in topical Theme choices. These findings reminds us again of the importance to increase English learners' understanding of how Themes contribute to the method of development in texts, and could be further investigated in finding out the reasons for similar performance in topical Theme choices in English writings by learners of different mother language backgrounds.

Index Terms—topical theme choices, Chinese English learners, Swedish English learners, learner English writing, similar performances

I. INTRODUCTION

Theme is defined by Halliday (1994, p.38) as the element in a particular structural configuration Theme and Rheme which organizes the clause as a message. It is the starting point for the message and the ground from which the clause is taking off. Theme helps us know what the clause will be about and what the author is going to tell us. Two examples are given to show how Theme influences the meaning of the clause.

1. A halfpenny is the smallest English coin.

2. The smallest English coin is a halfpenny.

In the first sentence, the Theme is "a halfpenny", which means the writer wants to tell us about "a halfpenny" but in the second sentence, the Theme is "the smallest English coin", and this means the writer wants to tell us about "the smallest English coin".

Themes are identified as the items placed in initial position (Halliday, 1994). The boundary between Theme and Rheme comes after the first experiential constituent, i.e., the constituent which represents a participant, circumstance or process, which he labels as the topical Theme. The topical theme may be preceded by items which have textual meaning, and/or interpersonal meanings which provide an attitudinal orientation to the message. However, it is the topical Theme that serves as the thematic grounding of the message (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.85), as textual Themes and interpersonal Themes do not exhaust the full thematic potential of the clause (Herriman, 2011). In other words, the topical Theme contributes most to the method of development of a text.

The effect of Theme choices on the meaning of the text and discourse has been taken into account in language education and there have been quite a number of studies on how Theme choices in learner target language output deviate from native speakers/writers, and possible causes that lead to the deviation.

The present study focuses on topical Theme choices in learner English writing and aims to find out how topical Theme choices in the English writings by Chinese learners of English are different from and similar to those in the English writings by Swedish learners of English with native speakers as the research baseline.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

With respect to Theme choices in learner English, one line of research has focused on the deviation of Theme choices from native English speakers/writers in learner English (Chen, 2010; Cheng, 2002; Herriman, 2011; Hu, 2008; Lores, 2004; Wang, 2010; Zhang, 2004; Ebrahimi & Ebrahimi, 2012; Ebrahimi & Khedri, 2011; Jalilifar, 2010 a; Jalilifar, 2010 b). For example, Chen (2010) investigated features of thematic choice of Chinese advanced learners in spontaneous

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speech as referenced against that of native speakers. The findings support the hypothesis that Chinese learners have a tendency to use marked Theme structures. Temporal adjuncts are the most frequently thematized component of a clause and serve as an important device of text structuring in learner speech. The study also provides evidence for the hypothesis that Chinese advanced learners use Themes for functions that are different from native speakers: fronted temporal adverbials are segmentation markers in native speaker speech while they are used as an unmarked device of discourse development by Chinese learners. Jalilifar (2010 a) made a frequency and functional analysis of thematization of 90 college students' English compositions, based on Halliday (1985) and McCabe (1999, as cited in Jalilifar, 2010) models of thematicity, with an educated native speaker as a criterion measure. The results suggested thematically different compositions in terms of interpersonal, unmarked, simple and multiple themes. Herriman (2011) investigated how the Themes in a sample of Swedish advanced learners' writing contribute to the method of development in their texts. With a comparison to a sample of similar writing by British university students, she found that advanced learners' sample contains more interactional Themes, which create a dialogic method of development similar to that found in conversational language. Themes such as discourse label Themes which are typical of expository writing, on the other hand, are used less frequently.

Another line of research in this area has attempted to investigate the causes that lead to the deviation in Theme choices of English learners from native speakers. Wang & Chen (2008) explained the deviation as the result of native language interference and partial acquisition of target language grammar rules when they found that while Chinese learners use less cleft sentences as compared to native speakers and overuse pseudo cleft sentences and underuse it-cleft sentences. Callie (2009) thought that the fact that even advanced learners encounter problems with the structuring of given and new information, often resulting in thematic redundancy may simply be considered a stylistic deficiency. And the underlying reason for this is an avoidance strategy, which is a more fundamental interlanguage phenomenon. He assumes that many students simply avoid using tough movement constructions, possibly because they believe that the infinitive construction after a raising adjective is incomplete and lacks an object. Herriman (2011) attributed the deviation in topical Theme choices in learner written English found in her study to the differences in essay topics. She found that Swedish learner sample tends to be more often centered on humans in a temporal or spatial context in contrast to the native speaker sample which is predominantly centered on inanimate concepts because the Swedish learner essays are concerned with how a change is to be brought about in people's attitudes, and a change implies a temporal perspective while the native speaker essays deal with concrete problems concerning infrastructure. That the Swedish advanced learners tend to use more interactional and fewer informational Themes than the native writers may also be partly due to the wording of the essay topics. In the native speaker sample, the essay topic clearly elicits a problem and solution text, whereas in the Swedish learner sample, it is formulated as a question and therefore invites a dialogic perspective with interactional Themes. Ebrahimi & Khedri (2013) thinks that language proficiency and previous academic experience may be one of the factors which influence the use of multiple Themes. In the frequency and functional analysis of multiple theme and its subthemes used in students' composition writings from sophomore, junior and senior students, they found significant differences between the three groups regarding their use of multiple theme. The number of applied multiple theme by senior group was a lot more than the other two groups and the disposition of junior students to use multiple theme was greater than sophomore students as well. Chen (2010) explained the deviation in terms of input and mother language transfer. She examined the textbooks used in China and concluded that the attempt to highlight some aspects of the language may run the risk of distorting the authentic pattern, resulting in misleading presentation of other aspects of the language. She provided examples to show that in most cases, formal rules and semantic relationships are emphasized at the expense of discourse principles. She further explains that the information structure and word order of Chinese may contribute to the Chinese learners' tendency to use marked Themes in spontaneous speech with an example taken from Chinese learner sample. In that example, a marked-Theme construction in English can be translated into colloquial Chinese, which means the original English clause resembles the word order of Chinese in several ways.

However, to studies that highlighted how mother language transfer may lead to deviation of Theme choices in learner English, others find clues that this is not usually the case. Lu (2013) compared learner English produced by learners of different mother language backgrounds. He compares aspects of Singaporean and PRC students' writing at the university level while enrolled in the freshman composition courses, including the instances of nominalization, theme, and use of modals (or their inappropriate usage) at various parts of the essays submitted by these students. It is found that the writing of Singaporean and Chinese students do produce various similarities in lexical density, nominalization and the employment of topical, textual and interpersonal Theme. And the author explained these similarities in terms of similar sociolinguistic and educational backgrounds.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Data

The core research corpus consists of comparable spoken data of Chinese English learners, Swedish English learners and native speakers of English. The data of Chinese learners of English are selected from *Spoken and Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners* (Wen et al, 2010), comprising of 20 English compositions produced in a timed writing task by 20 Chinese college students majored in English; the topic for the writing task is "Some people think that education is

a lifelong process, while others don't agree. Write an essay to state your own opinion". The total word length for this set of data is 7,800.The data of Swedish English learners are selected from the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) (Granger 2002, as cited in Herriman, 2011), comprising of 16 English compositions produced in a timed writing task by 16 Swedish college students majored in English; the topic for the writing task is "Man and Nature: How do we develop a borrower's rather than consumer's mindset?" The total word length for this set of data is 8,000. And the data of native speakers of English are selected from Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (as cited in Herriman, 2011), comprising of 16 English compositions produced by 16 British college students whose native language is English in a timed writing task; the topic for the writing task is "Road and Rail: Transport Problems in the UK". The total word length for this set of data is 8,000.

B.   Analytical Model

Since we are going to compare the statistics for topical Theme choices in English writings by Chinese learners with the statistics for topical Theme choices in English writings by Swedish learners and native speakers in Herriman (2011), we adopt Herriman's analytical model which is based on Halliday (1994). In this model, the topical Themes are the first experiential constituent, i.e., the constituent which represents a participant, circumstance or process (Halliday, 1994). Topical Themes are further categorized into three types. Those which develop the propositional informational content level are labeled informational Themes. Informational Themes represent animate or inanimate participants, as in (1)[†] and (2) respectively, or circumstances such as temporal or spatial location, as in (3) and (4), or contingency relations (concession, reason, condition, purpose etc), as in (5) and (6).

(1)   One +has to receive education in order to achieve his career success. (W1 02-01-a)
(2)   In conclusion, education, +as I see, must be a lifelong process. (W3 02-03-a)
(3)   At that time, +many companies offered her a position. (W5 02-03-a)
(4)   On and out of the planet +we are living on, there is a largest amount of knowledge to learn, math, physics, biology, chemistry, as well as language, history, geography, and culture. (W8 02-08-a)
(5)   But as I have mentioned above +education has various forms. (W11 02-15-a)
(6)   However, with the much faster paces of modern society, +an entirely new definition of education has arisen. (W14 02-19-a)

Topical Themes as fusions of experiential meaning with interpersonal or textual meanings are divided into two categories, which are labeled interactional and discoursal Themes. The label interactional Theme is from Berry (1995, p.64, as cited in Herriman, 2011), who makes a distinction between informational Themes which foreground aspects of the topic and interactional Themes which foreground the interactiveness of the discourse by referring to the writer or reader.

Interactional Themes occur thus when the writers use first and second person pronouns, as in (7) and when the writer addresses the reader directly in rhetorical wh-questions, as in (8), or in imperatives, as in (9).

(7)   Actually, you +are getting it just from the moment you were born. (W21 02-22-a)
(8)   Why +education needs a life long time to practice? (W11 02-15-a)
(9)   Take +your actions now and make it lifelong. (W17 02-24-a)

The label discoursal Theme is from Gibson (1993, p.324, as cited in Herriman, 2011), who proposed this category for Themes which combine textual meaning with experiential meaning. Discoursal Themes are concerned with the current discourse as a text. They include pronouns, as in (10), existential *there*, as in (11), and *it* in it-cleft clauses, as in (12).

(10)   This +is the main purpose of higher education. (W2 02-02-a)
(11)   There +will always exist new things that you never touch upon or come across. (W10 02-14-a)
(12)   …and it +was her words that made this lesson so remarkable to me… (W14 02-19-a)

C.   Unit of Analysis

In this research, T-unit is used as the basic unit of analysis. T-unit is a clause complex which contains one main independent clause together with all the hypotactic clauses which are dependent on it (Fries, 1995, p.318). We use T-unit because:

analyzing Theme at the level of T-unit rather than the individual clause makes it easier to focus on patterns of thematic development in large amounts of text, and can also be justified on the grounds that the thematic structure of a dependent clause is often constrained by the independent clause (Fries & Francis, 1992, p.6, as cited in Ebrahimi & Ebrahimi, 2012).

D.   Procedure

For the English writings of Chinese learners, we first divide each writing into T-units and indicate division of Theme and Rheme in each T-unit with the sign "+". We then label the subtype of the topical Theme and element in that subtype in every T-unit, as shown in example 2(4).

[†] The division between Theme and Rheme is indicated with the sign "+".

EXAMPLE 2(4)	
	topical Themes
If anyone ever asks me which is my most impressive lesson, + I will undoubtedly depict out my former head teacher with a simple caricature in my mind.	Information-contingency relations
It +was not a formal lesson to be exact.	Information -participant
The head teacher + just happened to see the caricature in which a man was fast asleep on his piles of diplomas.	Information - participant
She + wanted us to share	Information - participant
and it +was her words that made this lesson so remarkable to me:	Discoursal-it-cleft
"Once you turn your back towards knowledge, +knowledge will also turn its back to you."	Information-contingency relations
People +used to view education as simply going to school or as a mere means of securing a decent job.	Information - participant
…	

(W14 02-19-a)

We use the statistics provided in Herriman (2011) for Swedish English learners and native speakers, including the frequency and proportion of the informational Themes, interactional Themes, and discoursal Themes.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

As previously noted, the present study investigates topical Theme choices in learner English writings and aims to find out how topical Theme choices in Chinese learners of English are different from those in Swedish learners of English with native speakers as the research baseline. And the findings reveal that the two groups of learners share more similarities than differences in topical Theme choices as compared to native speakers.

A. Topical Themes

Table 1 compares the proportions of informational, interactional and discoursal Themes in the three samples.

TABLE 1
INFORMATIONAL, INTERACTIONAL AND DISCOURSAL THEMES IN THE THREE SAMPLES

	CLE		SLE		NS	
Informational	324	78%	358	73%	366	81%
Interactional	71	17%	96	20%	31	7%
Discoursal	20	5%	38	8%	54	12%
T-units	415	100%	492	100%	451	100%

It can be seen from Table 1 that both groups of English learners deviate from native speakers in all three types of topical Themes. When shown in frequency polygon, it is clear that the two groups of English learners display closer approximation to each other in the use of all three types of topical Themes. Both groups of learners use fewer informational Themes and discoursal Themes, and more interactional Themes. Use of more interactional Themes reflects the tendency of English learners to use a subjective style of writing because interactional Themes create a dialogic method of development in a way similar to the collaborative development across turns found in interactional conversational speech (Matthiessen 1995, p.575).
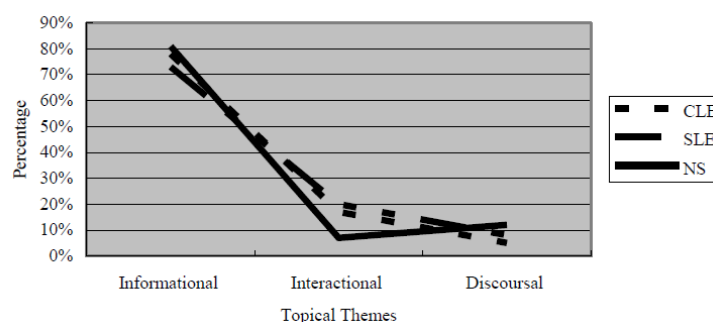
Figure 1   Writer types and topical Themes

B. Informational Themes

Table 2 compares the proportion of the five elements in informational Themes in the three samples.

TABLE 2.
INFORMATIONAL THEMES IN THE THREE SAMPLES

	CLE		SLE		NS	
Animate	53	16%	107	30%	41	11%
Other inanimate	147	46%	139	39%	245	67%
Temporal location	37	11%	44	12%	17	5%
Spatial location	5	2%	17	5%	7	2%
Contingency	82	25%	51	14%	56	15%
Total	324	100%	358	100%	366	100%

It can be seen from Table 2 that both groups of English learners are very different from native speakers in the use of the five elements of informational Themes. When displayed in frequency polygon, it is obvious that the two groups of learners are closer to each other in two of the five elements: other inanimate and temporal location. The method of development on the informational level of the two learner samples tends thus to be more often centered on humans in a temporal context in contrast to the native speaker sample which is predominantly centered on inanimate concepts.
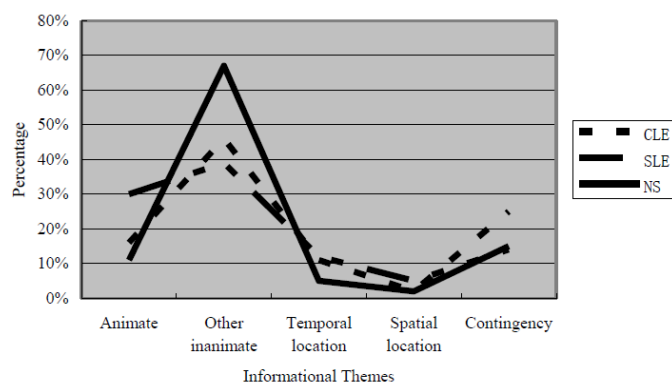
Figure 2   Writer types and informational Themes

C. *Interactional Themes*

Table 3 compares the proportion of the three elements in interactional Themes in the three samples.

TABLE 3
INTERACTIONAL THEMES IN THE THREE SAMPLES

	CLE		SLE		NS	
1st & 2nd person pronouns	49	70%	63	66%	16	52%
Imperatives	11	15%	10	10%	9	29%
Wh-interrogatives	11	15%	23	24%	6	19%
Total	71	100%	96	100%	31	100%

It can be seen from Table 3 that both groups of English learners are very different form native speakers in the use of the three elements of interactional Themes. When displayed in frequency polygon, it is clear that the two groups of learners are closer to each other in two of the three elements: 1st and 2nd person pronouns and imperatives. The frequent usage of inclusive "we" as a personal generic is characteristic both of the high degree of involvement found in learners' writing in general (Petch-Tyson 1998, p.117) and of their tendency to use features of spoken language. It also reflects a tendency for learners to write on a somewhat vague and general level, often making sweeping statements (Herriman, 2011).
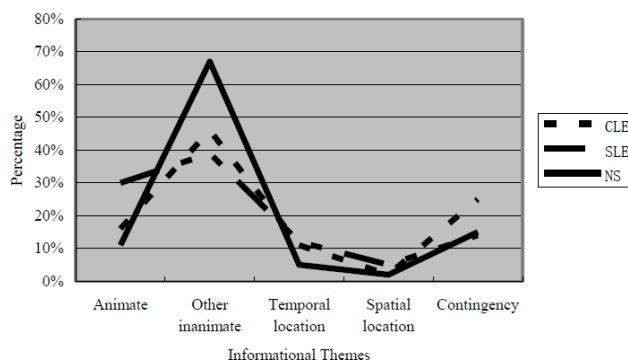
Figure 3   Writer types and interactional Themes

D. Discoursal Themes

Table 4 compares the proportion of the three elements in the three samples.

TABLE 4
DISCOURSAL THEMES IN THE THREE SAMPLES

	CLE		SLE		NS	
Discourse labels	8	40%	17	45%	35	65%
Existential *There*	9	45%	18	47%	19	35%
It in it-clefts	3	15%	3	8%	0	0%
Total	20	100%	38	100%	54	100%

It can be seen from Table 4 that both groups of English learners deviate from native speakers in use of all three elements of discoursal Themes and they don't seem to be closer to native speakers in any of the three elements than from each other. When displayed in frequency polygon, it is very clear that the two groups of learners show similar performance to each other in all three elements: discourse labels, existential *There* and *it* in it-clefts.
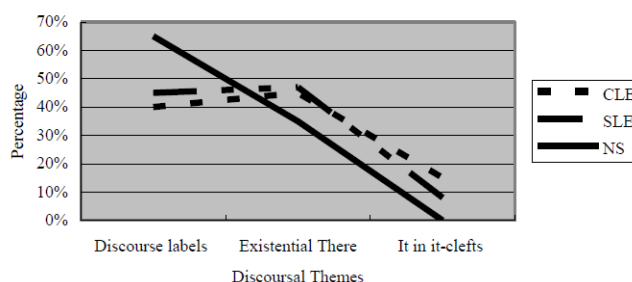
Figure 4   Writer types and discoursal Themes

E. Summary

It can be seen from the findings that the two groups of learners share more similarities in topical Theme choices. The two groups of English learners tend to use more interactional and fewer informational Themes and discoursal Themes than native writers. Use of more interactional Themes reflects the tendency of English learners to use a subjective style of writing and their frequent usage of inclusive "we" as a personal generic is characteristic both of the high degree of involvement found in learners' writing in general and of their tendency to use features of spoken language. In addition, the method of development on the informational level of the two learner samples tends to be more often centered on humans in a temporal context in contrast to the native speaker sample which is predominantly centered on inanimate concepts.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study investigated topical Theme choices in Chinese and Swedish English learners' English writing and aims to find out how topical Theme choices in Chinese English learners are different from those in Swedish English learners with native speakers as the research baseline. The results of the study reveal that the two groups of English learners exhibit more similarities in topical Theme choices than differences. They display closer performance to each other not only in all three types of topical Themes, but also in two of the five elements in informational Themes, two of the three elements in interactional Themes and all three elements in discoursal Themes. The results of the study also accords with past research findings in that both Chinese English learners and Swedish English learners are found to deviate from native speakers in topical Theme choices.

The findings of this research reminds us again of the importance to increase English learners' understanding of how Themes contribute to the method of development in texts so that they could benefit from an increased awareness of how Themes may be used to manage the build-up of information as it accumulates in their texts. What could be further investigated are the reasons for similar performance in Theme choices in English writings by learners of different mother language backgrounds.

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A Sociolinguistic Study of American Slang

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Abstract—**Slang is widely used by people from all walks of life. American slang is formed and developed with American history. It has its unique characteristics and functions. American slang reflects American culture. A sociolinguistic study of American slang helps people know more about American culture and society. This paper discusses American slang from the following perspectives, features of American slang, individual factors influencing American slang, social factors influencing American slang as well as the social functions of American slang.**

Index Terms—**American slang, sociolinguistics, American culture**

I. INTRODUCTION

An informal style of speech often sees the frequent occurrence of slang, which may be a single word, a group of words or a sentence. Slang is highly informal and is often used in colloquial speech. It is a part of a language that is usually outside of conventional or standard usage and that may consist of both newly coined words and phrases and of new or extended meanings attached to established terms (Chen Linhua, 2006, p.260). Slang is kind of speech variety. Speech variety, or language variety, refers to any distinguishable form of speech used by a speaker or a group of speakers. Linguistic features of a speech variety can be found at the lexical, the phonological, the morphological, or the syntactical level of the language (Dai & He, 2010, p.111). Variety is considered a more neutral term than terms such as standard or non-standard language and dialects. American slang as one part of Americanism will become even more international as the development of USA and American English. Although many intelligent people consider slang is of lower acceptability in society, the trend is more obvious that the use of slang expressions in movies, television, newspapers, and magazines is noticeably increasing. From the trend, we can see American slang is becoming more and more widely used and plays an increasingly influential role in everyday discourse of American English.

As for American slang, it comes in various ways. One of them is from the different subculture groups of society. As time passing by, the developing society enlarges the resources of slang and enriches its contexts. The slang terms from subculture groups are adopted by common people, and become common people's vocabulary. Also young people are quite active in creating slang. They employ slang terms in their conversation to show their attitude against the society or their own way of thinking.   Therefore we can see American slang is a product of society, it is produced and created by society and people who live in it. It is one of linguistic varieties, which we cannot separate it from its social background and social surroundings.

II. FEATURES OF AMERICAN SLANG

What is it exactly that differentiates slang from the standard vocabulary? Because most slang terms are simply old words given additional new meanings, slang cannot usually be distinguished on the basis of its formal or grammatical features.

A. Humor

American slang is considered as "comedy" by Americans because of its humorous effect. The humor of American slang first represented in terms of its phonetic humor. A great amount of American slangs take advantage of the euphony to achieve the aim of being easily to be understood and remembered and to get the purposes of being readable and vivid. Rhyme is a common phonetic method in American slang to get its humorous effect. There are many examples: the bee's knees (outstanding people or thing); fender-bender (a trifle); razzle-dazzle (carnival) and so on. The usage of rhyme in American slang can make people feel a sense of rhythm in sounds.

The characteristic in humor can also be shown through lexicon. NATO is an acronym, which is short for the famous North Atlantic Treaty Organization but now American people develop NATO into a slang which has a quite different meaning with the original one, that is, the new meaning of NATO is used to describe somebody or something that only says something but not puts their plans to practice.

B. Conciseness

Conciseness may not be the soul of American slang, but it is perhaps the chief feature. This is attained either by

apocope, as in vamp for vampire, molt for muttonhead, fan for fanatic (apparently), etc., or by the substitution of an expressive monosyllable or compound of monosyllables for a longer word or description. Simp (stupid person), veep (vice president), classy (fashionable), etc. are brief and easy to speak out. When they defined a Communist as either a crank or a crook, the subject is really exhausted. It is difficult now to imagine how we got on so long without the word stunt, how they expressed the characteristics so conveniently summed up in dope-fiend or high-brow, or any other possible way of describing that mixture of the cheap pathetic and the ludicrous which is now universally labeled sob stuff.

C.   Originality

Slang is the diction that results from the favorite game among the young and lively of playing with words and renaming things and actions; some invent new words, or mutilate or misapply the old, for the pleasure of novelty, and others catch up such words for the pleasure of being in the fashion. For example, live wire, smoker eater and flying coffin refer to "living man", "fireman", "plane" respectively. These similes are so novel and vivid that they can't be made without good imagination, while think-machine (brain), sparkler (diamond), pickers (hands), canned music (musical disk) are more vivid and expressive. Sometimes slang words are invented by a few people for the pleasure of novelty and imitated by others who like to be in fashion. Many of the slang words coined during the Second World War have passed out of use along with the events that called them into life.

D.   Instability

Whereas the words which form the backbone of the language still show no signs of failing variety, it is unusual for slang words to remain in use for more than a few years, though some slang terms serve a useful purpose and so pass into the standard language. The vocabulary of slang changes rapidly: what is new and exiting for one generation is old-fashioned for the next. Old slang often either drifts into obsolescence or becomes accepted into the standard language, losing its eccentric color. Flapper, for instance, started life in the late 19th century as a slang term for a young unconventional or lively woman, but subsequently moved into the general language as a specific term for such a vogue woman of the 1920s. Similarly, the use of gay in the sense "homosexual" has its roots firmly in slang of the 1930s, but is now widely accepted as standard terminology.

III.   INDIVIDUAL FACTORS INFLUENCING AMERICAN SLANG

Idiolect is a personal dialect of an individual speaker that combines elements regarding regional, social, gender, and age variations. In other words, an individual speaker's regional and social background, his/her gender and age jointly determine the way he/she talks (Dai & He, 2010, p.115). Slang is a kind of sociolect and idiolect has to do with separation brought about by different social and individual conditions. Then let's firstly go to some individual conditions influencing American slang.

A.   American Slang and Gender

Language, like other form of social activity, has to be appropriate to the speakers using it. This is why, in many communities, men and women's speech is different. In the use of American slang, men and women differ from each other.

Most American slang is created and used by males. De Klerk also found that the gender difference in use and tolerance of slang was leveling out in contemporary society and that the stereotype of males being the primary slang users was open to question. Many types of slang words including the taboo and strongly derogatory ones, those referring to sex, women, work, money, whiskey, politics, transportation, sports, and the like refer primarily to male endeavor and interest. The majority of entries in all slang dictionaries could be labeled "primarily masculine use". Moreover, men belong to more sub-groups than do women; men create and use occupational cant and jargon; in business, men have acquaintances that belong to many different sub-groups. Women, on the other hand, still tend to be restricted to family and neighborhood friends. Women have very little of their own slang, The new words applied to women's clothing, hair styles, homes, kitchen utensils and gadgets are usually created by men. Except when she accompanies her boy friend or husband to his recreation (baseball, hunting, etc.), a woman seldom mingles with other groups. When women do mingle outside of their own neighborhood and family circles, they do not often talk of the outside world of business, politics, or other fields of general interest where new feminine names for objects, concepts, and viewpoints could evolve. Women, who do work usually replace men at men's jobs, are less involved in business life than men and have a shorter business career (often only an interim between school and marriage). The major female sub-groups contributing to American slang are: airline stewardesses, beauty-operators, chorus girls, nurses, prostitutes, and waitresses. Nowadays, due to the influence of feminist movement, women are trying to enter into the male preserve, but the majority of Americans are less tolerant of women using slang.

B.   American Slang and Occupation

Generally speaking, there is an inverse relationship between the occupation variable and acceptance of slang, for the higher the training and education required for the position, the lower the tolerance for slang. Occupation is, therefore, the most discrimination variable. Furthermore, professional people are somewhat more accepting of slang than

non-professionals .

C.   American Slang and Age

Age factor also influences the use of American slang. American youths, especially the teenagers and college students, are the main consumers and makers of American slang. The American teenagers and college students are the fashion makers. They are radical in every aspect including their ways of using language. They are not afraid of making mistakes, but ready to explore the unknown things. They are full of curiosity, pursuit and are mad with new things. At the same time, they have a strong sense of independence; do not bend blindly to any authorities like parents and teachers. They are ready to challenge traditional conventions and customs. They tend to make good use of the slang terms created by the musicians, pop singers, or those engaged in the popular trades. For instance, the words crazy originally means mad, strange, silly, but the musicians of the pop used this word to mean a completely different meaning beautiful, excellent, or exciting.

Adults (including elderly Americans) comparatively use slang less, but sometimes they use it in some very informal environment, particularly chatting with family members or close friends. At that time, slang terms can be efficient shorthand ways to express their ideas and concepts. Not only does this make their communication more efficient, but also it reinforces their friendship.

IV.   SOCIAL FACTORS INFLUENCING AMERICAN SLANG

Sociolect refers to the linguistic variety characteristic of a particular social class. Two people who were born and brought up in the same geographical region and speak the same regional dialect may speak differently because of a number of social factors. (Dai & He, 2010, p.113) It has to do with separation brought about by different social conditions. In other words, it means some social settings which influences American slang.

A.   Drug Setting and American Slang

Drug problem is serious in America. The National Commission on Marijuana and Drug Abuse, in its extensive survey published in 1972, found that twenty-four million Americans had smoked marijuana; the incidence of use reached 40 percent in the eighteen-to-twenty-one age group, and 38 percent in the twenty-two-to-twenty-five age group. A UCLA professor was quoted in the days of hip as saying that "if a young man hasn't smoked pot by the time he' s twenty, he' s probably sick," that is, "seriously neurotic," because marijuana is "a way of life for American' s youth." Evidence from the hip era suggests that indeed huge numbers of the young were smoking it. A sample of 219 University of Kansas students in 1971 indicated that 69 percent had smoked marijuana and that 92 percent had friends who smoked it.

B.   Homosexuality and American Slang

Homosexuality like gay and lesbian is becoming acceptable now. In old times, however, it is despised by people especially in American society. Sex, in the slang world, was fun and free. At the same time, sex was understood as an expression of humanness, a means of human communication that operated at the deepest level of human being. It was the "human touch, without conquest or domination, and it obviates self-consciousness and embarrassed speech". One of the most important components of the hip-era sexual revolution was the rise of public gay consciousness, and the underground press gave considerable publicity and support to that phenomenon. Although one cannot exactly argue that the hippies spawned the gay liberation movement, it is fair to say that hip tolerance of sexual activity contributed to the atmosphere in which the gay revolution could emerge.

Homosexuals and their supporters wrote frequently in the underground press, making a broadly based case for an ethics of homosexuality; their arguments were like those of the heterosexual liberationists. Miller gave five main lines of arguments: (1) Homosexuality is natural and good. "To deny the rightful existence of homosexuality is a perversion of the laws of nature..." (2) A person has a right to free sexual choice. It was a choice as legitimate as any other. While the whole world is not gay, hippies stood for nothing if not freedom of choice. (3) One should not have to hide his or her sexual preference. Homosexuality wasn't wrong, and it shouldn't' have to be secret. Gays needed to stop mimicking straights; stop censoring ourselves. (4) All private acts between consenting adults should be legal. "Blow jobs are beautiful. They are natural, basic, simple, fun…Something so important as that...should be legalized." (5) Social discrimination against homosexuals should end. Homosexuals paid taxes, but "the only things we get for our taxation are undesirable discharges and bad employment records when we are discovered in government jobs."

A large number of sexually related words enter the dictionary, providing perhaps the most dramatic example of backstage behavior moving front stage. Many of these are older terms from the gay society or from what used to be called "vulgar slang." The following examples are taken from Gozzi' s. " I would like to illustrate this movement of backstage terms to front stage by discussing the 'f word,' formerly known as 'f-,' but now dragged into the full light of day as fuck". This old Anglo-Saxon word did not appear in the controversial 1961 Webster's Unabridged, nor the 7th Edition Collegiate Dictionary (1963). After the raucous 1960s, however, the word made its way into the Collegiate dictionaries, and even into the conservative American Heritage Dictionary Second College Edition. The Collegiate dictionaries labeled it as "usually considered obscene," and the American Heritage Dictionary as "obscene," just to let us know that even permissive linguists disapproved. But there it was alone and in glorious combinations. Other sexual

behavior came front-stage as well, especially gay culture, where many closet queens came out, and organized politically and publicly a gay liberation movement.

C.   Rock and American Slang

Rock influenced a generation both physically and emotionally. The hippies lived and breathed it as well as believed that it was the most important new musical form to come along in centuries. To the hippies, rock was not just sound, it was part and parcel of a way of life, and its ethical dimensions were therefore substantial.

Rock, however, was communal, and thus it provided a medium for cultural communication, that is, rock can also be used as a cultural. Slang words of rock and roll also leave their marks in the American vocabulary. In the 1950s radio, which had been the nation's major mass medium, lost most of its listeners to TV. It survived by a sort of narrow casting, specializing in rock and roll for the rebellious young, news and music for drive-time audiences, and an alliance with the alarm clock in the clock radio. The transistor radio became truly portable. This formula succeeded so well that by the 1970s and 1980s, the old lower class rock songs became Bolded-oldies, and the exuberance of American music was perhaps the high point of cultural creativity in this period.

V.   The Social Functions of American Slang

In surveying American slang, not only do we have to consider the social factors which influence slang, but we must recognize the part played by slang in its own character. However, the complexity of slang is immediately apparent when we examine its function. People find it not easy to give a comprehensive and satisfying answer when facing the natural question "Why is slang used at all?" or "What are the functions of slang?" Sociolinguistically speaking, the interpersonal function is the most basic function of language. Speaking of the social functions of slang, the most important point lies in that language is for communication between people. Hence the discussion of the interpersonal function of American slang is in the coming part.

A.   Pursuit of Self-identity

Since different social and professional groups have different slang, thus it is considered as the symbol for dividing the professional groups in society. If somebody uses the words and expressions within a certain social group or professional group, he will blend with the group members from mentality. That is to say, if a student says a sentence containing the special college slang, he must want to get the result of showing and strengthening the emotion that he is belonging to the inside of the teenager group . The American scholar P. Roberts once pointed out that the reason people constantly use slang is that they want to show they are one of the qualified members among a certain distinct groups.

B.   Emotive Feeling of the Slang Users

The emotive function reveals the speaker's attitude towards his subject. The emotive function is one of the most powerful uses of language because it is so crucial and important in changing the emotional status of an audience for or against someone or something, the emotive function help us get rid of our nervous energy when we are under stress. Psychologically, slang helps people to express their strong feeling, like group identification and so on. "Slang also has this usefulness, and I suspect that profanity is a subcategory of slang, the more elemental phenomenon". It is like dream that relieves us and takes away our psychological burden, also discharges our tension of the great burden. When people use it, they want to show them against the reality, and set them free psychologically. As Allen suggests "Slang is a class of language, among other social and psychological uses, to deny allegiance to genteel, elite, and proper society and to its standard linguistic forms". No wonder, why so many people use slang in their conversation, from common people to intellectual groups, such as doctors, lawyers, and politicians. In this aspect, slang for them not only for stressing identity or group membership, but also for the psychological need for expressing emotion, which it is the one of the basic functions of language as well.

C.   Achieving Politeness

To conduct this discussion, the notion of register needs to be mentioned. Register refers to "manner of speaking or writing specific to a certain function, that is, characteristic of a certain domain of communication" The choice of register is affected by three factors, occasions (formal or informal), addressee (age, gender, occupation, the degree of familiarity) and the content of the conversation. And the use of slang is restrained by the three factors as well. Either the use of slang in improper occasions or the use of slang not to the right addressee, or the improper content in one's speech may ruin the friendship and good relationship with your interlocutors. Therefore, the proper use of slang facilitates setting up a certain atmosphere or maintaining social contacts. Slang is often used in informal occasions and is of importance in playing the phatic function. The use of slang can maintain the friendship and intimacy between our friends.

When slang serves the phatic function, it contributes to maintain our positive face. Language forms like greeting, farewells, comments on the weather and on clothing, etc, all serve phatic function. As with politeness in general, greetings can be analyzed within the framework of theories of `face'. When making proper slangy greetings, friendly atmosphere may be achieved for proceeding conversation, slangy greetings such as, how's it going? What does it look like? What it is? What's going down? What's happening? What's jumping? What's shaking? What's the deal? What's up,

G? etc, or slangy farewell expressions like, catch you later, check you on the flip side, catch you on the flip flop, check you, smell you later, smell you, are frequently used among young people. Both the slangy greetings and farewells used signal that the speaker wishes to establish a good relations or a non-threatening atmosphere with his or her friends that he or she wishes to be accepted by their peers and his or her positive face will not be threatened. In daily talks, slang plays a big role and the communications between us would not go smoothly as they are expected.

VI. CONCLUSION

American slang is one of the language varieties in American English. It is the product of American culture and American society. It is a kind of sociolect. The paper discusses American slang from sociolinguistic point of view. It makes study of the features of slang: humor, conciseness, originality and stability. Those features make American slang different from other variety of language. The paper also analyzes the factors influencing American slang, including individual factors and social factors. Individual factors are as follows: gender, occupation, and age. Social factors include drug setting, homosexuality and rock. Then the paper focuses on the social functions of American slang. The first social function is the pursuit of self-identity which is the symbol for dividing the professional groups in society. The second one is to express emotive feeling of the slang users for the psychological need. And the third one is to achieve politeness which means slang serves the phatic function and it contributes to maintain our positive face in daily communication. The paper presents some examples which are from current American slang textbooks, some of them from the original American movies, novels and contemporary American slang dictionaries. The development of slang cannot be separated from the society. As the society highly develops, the use of slang also becomes more complicated as well. It is necessary for students to know more about American slang, in order to achieve a better understanding of American culture and American society.

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An Analytical Rubric for Assessing Creativity in Creative Writing

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Abstract—**Assessment is a crucial component of teaching creative writing. However, the discipline lags far behind its composition and literary counterparts to develop a plausible method for evaluating creativity. Therefore, after reviewing the past and current literature on the topic, this study describes the design and implementation of an analytical rubric which encompasses four major qualities of creative language (image, characterization, voice and story). The reliability and validity of the proposed rubric are also empirically evaluated. The result reveals that the rubric provides the sufficient reliability and validity value reported in the literature for rubrics. Besides, the article includes some sample analyses to explicate its application.**

Index Terms—**creative writing, assessment, analytical rubric**

I. INTRODUCTION

Assessment is the primary concern of all educational settings. Marks provide students with significant information about their performance and progress and further enable outsiders to make decisions based on students' qualifications (Harmer, 2007). However, it is not without limitations. Many assessment techniques lack sufficient validity and reliability (Baer & McKool, 2009) and low marks might lead to low self-esteem and subsequently discourage students (Kroll, 1997). Theses pros and cons would intensify in evaluating creative writing since "here students produce and are therefore in charge of the content to some degree; they are personally involved in what comes from their own imagination. Teachers also function as individual readers with their own tastes and prejudices" (Kroll, 1997, p. 1).

The question of whether creative writing can be assessed or not is hotly debated. The argument rests on the common misconception that subjective criteria (teachers' likes and dislikes) are the sole source of estimating creativity in a piece of writing (Kantor, 1972; Newman, 2007). The idea is so influential that Carey (2005), like many others, posits that "the evaluation of works of art is purely subjective and thus cannot be codified" (p. 52 as cited in Newman, 2007).

In contrast, May (2007) criticizes the assumption and argues that to objectify evaluation teachers should endeavor to set standard criteria for evaluating creative works. Rubrics or grading grids are the best ways to ensure objectivity in creativity assessment (Blomer, 2011). However, the discipline heavily suffers from such standards as Newman (2007) maintains "creative writing courses do not have as yet the explicit national standards or benchmarks for assessment that have been compiled for many other long-established subjects" (p. 26). Thus, the present study attempts to develop an assessment rubric which encompasses the major qualities of creative language.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Assessment is one of the most challenging parts of teaching creative writing (Kator, 1972; England, 2009). Literature reveals that methods of creativity assessment are either based on a specific theory of creativity (such as divergent thinking theory as in divergent thinking tests), attributes theoretically linked to creativity (such as originality, voice, etc. as in rubrics) or judgment of experts of the field (as in consensual assessment technique). In what follows we provide a brief explanation on each of these methods.

A. Assessment Techniques Based on Theories of Creativity

One of the most widely used theories of creativity is divergent thinking. In fact, it is an idea generation technique (such as brainstorming) which seeks possible ways to generate various ideas about something (Richards & Schmidt, 2002). The concept is so influential that Silvia (2008), like many others, posits that creative thinking necessitates divergent thinking. Accordingly, various tests have been developed to assess creativity based on this concept. However, most divergent thinking tests (Torrance Test of Creative Thinking, Verbal Creativity Test, etc.) are based on the question of how many uses one can imagine for various objects and therefore lack sufficient validity for evaluating creativity in domains such as *writing* (Baer & Mckool, 2009).

B. Consensual Assessment Technique

Primarily employed in research settings, consensual assessment technique is a new method for assessing creativity in which a group of experts rate the creativity of products such as a theory, research design, story, painting, etc. In fact, judges are not required to follow any specific set of standards that is, evaluation is primarily based on their expert knowledge of creativity in a specific domain. Despite the fact that this method benefits from high degrees of validity, it

has two major drawbacks: (a) It is highly resource intensive since it requires an average panel of 10 expert judges, and (b) it is based on subjective judgment of experts who rely on their sense of what is creative in a specific domain to rate creativity (Baer & Mckool, 2009).

C. Assessment Techniques Based on Attributes of Creativity

Rubrics are one of the major tools for assessing writing which incorporate a set of prominent characteristics relevant to a specific type of discourse (Weigle, 2002). Several rubrics have been developed to evaluate creativity in creative writing. However, they either contain criteria which are too general (e.g. voice is distinctive, work is original, scenes and events are memorable, etc.), irrelevant to creativity (e.g. spelling, grammar, punctuation and syntax are correct, organization is clear, etc.) or left some important aspects behind. We look at some of such criteria in the following.

Many of the criteria on which the current rubrics are based lack clarity and are therefore hard to measure. Peter (1990, np.), for instance, considers the capacity "to move the audience" as the most crucial criteria for assessing creative works. But, how far is it possible to examine the extent to which a piece of writing has moved the audience. Similarly, while Kroll (1997) refers to originality as another quality associates with creativity, he does not delineate what this originality might involve and how it can be traced in the text. Moreover, the criteria set by most institutions across UK suffer from the same problem as the following assessment guideline reveals:

The work will be striking and original; phrases, lines, characters, descriptions, moments, dramatic events or explorations of fictional settings may be eloquent and memorable. The subject-matter of the work will have been explored intelligently, with insight and breadth of viewpoint. An impressive knowledge and understanding of both form and subject-matter will be evident. Creative writing …will show a clear understanding of the reader's needs and those of genre. (May, 2007 p. 73)

On the other hand, some of the criteria are hardly related to creativity in language. It is certainly true that qualities such as organization and mechanics are crucial for every piece of writing. However, the criteria set for evaluating writing depend on the purpose one wants to achieve (May, 2007). Since the primary purpose of creative writing is to achieve creativity in language, its assessment should focus on such features. Nonetheless, in the guidelines that Saskatchewan (1998) and later NCTE (2004) set for creativity assessment more than half of the scores is devoted to non-creative features (mechanics, organization and structure). Moreover, Durham University's (2013) rubric marks creative writings for aspects such as tense and conjunctions. This problem has even penetrated assessment at M.A. level. Correctness of grammar, vocabulary, syntax and spelling are among the key criteria which Newman (2007) sets out for evaluation of creative writing.

Thus, it can be concluded that validity of creativity tests for evaluating creative writing heavily depends on the validity of the theory upon which it is based. However, most theories of creativity have proved to be invalid for assessing creativity in writing (Baer & McKool, 2009). Consensual assessment technique, on the other hand, suffers from the problem of subjectivity and resource intensiveness. Although rubrics (especially analytical types) are one of the most reliable methods of evaluating writing, the major problem arises from the criteria on which they are developed (Blomer, 2011). In other words, it often happens that rubrics contain attributes which are irrelevant to creativity or are too hard to measure. Thus this study explores the field to identify the major qualities of creative language and to develop a rubric accordingly.

III. Design of the Analytical Rubric

Rubrics are one of the most widely used tools of assessing writing. To put it simply, a rubric is "a set of criteria for grading assignments" (Rezaie & Lovorn, 2010). Generally, they are of two types: (a) holistic rubrics which evaluate the overall quality of writing, and (b) analytical rubrics which focus on different aspects of writing (Weigle, 2002). The contemporary research on assessment has proved the significance of analytical scales for a more reliable assessment of creativity (Jonsson & Savingby, 2007). The idea is so influential that Shraplin and Morris (2013), like many others, regard analytical marking as the most reliable and consistent method of assessing creative writing. They further argue that an optimal analytical marking should encompass qualities of creative writing and set categories of achievement to describe how far each quality has been achieved. As stated earlier, although the literature includes several grading grids, most of them suffer from lack of validity and reliability. Thus, this study attempts to develop an analytical rubric which encompasses major qualities theoretically linked to creativity. To this end, the literature on qualities of creative language was reviewed. It was found that creative writing includes 4 major qualities including *image*, *voice*, *characterization* and *story* (Burroway, 2011; Mills, 2006). All criteria together with their descriptors are presented in Table 1. In what follows there is a brief explanation on each of these attributes.

1. Image:

Image is so central to the discipline that Burroway (2011) refers to creative writing as imaginative writing. Mills (2006) even goes further and maintains that "no one can write anything of significance… unless imagination is allowed to play a part in the process" (p. 12). An image is "a word or series of words that evoke one or more of our senses" (Burroway, 2011, p. 15). According to Burroway, creative writing is a kind of vivid writing which refrains from three major elements of flat writing including: (a) abstractions: concepts which cannot be experienced through the senses (love), (b) generalizations: words which include too many of a specific group and thus cannot be visualized (everything),

and (c) judgments: tell the reader directly how to think about something instead of showing it (she was very lazy). Generally, there are two ways of creating images (Burroway, 2011, p. 17):

1). Concrete significant details: details which appeal to senses (concrete) and suggest ideas beyond the surface (significant). To fully comprehend how details can create images, look at the following examples:

- *John was very lazy.*

- *John was bored with the TV show, but the remote control was on the far corner of the room, so he just watched it anyway. "Sara be in soon, and she could fetch the remote control for me then", he thought.*

The first example is in fact the kind of writing which is characterized as flat since it contains judgment (we are told how to think about Peter). Instead, the second paragraph provides several details which allow us to draw our own conclusion about the character and in turn proves to be more convincing.

2). Literary tropes: literary figures such as metaphor, simile, personification, etc. are a powerful tool for writers to create images which appeals to the readers' senses. The following example would clarify how Morrison (1994, p. 26 as cited in Mills, 2006) uses literary figures to add color to the text.

- *Saturdays were lonesome days.*

- *Those Saturdays sat on my head like a coal scuttle, and if mama was fussing, as she was now, it was like somebody throwing stones at it.*

The first sentence imparts the information directly. However, the use of personification (sitting is a human characteristic which is used for Saturday) and simile (when mother was fussing it was like throwing stone at the head) in the second paragraph creates a clear picture in the mind of the reader signifying that Saturdays were very lonesome days and mother's fussing was something terribly uncomfortable.

Furthermore, Mills (2006) adds that the use of "speaking and thinking voices" in a text is another powerful means of creating images (p. 1). This effect can be easily seen in the following text:

Following her mother with her eyes, pressuring the lace of her bag, she started to talk:

"May... May I... May I stay at home tonight? I... I have to study..."

Pounding the cup of tea on the table, uncle John said:

"You have to study that philosophical book of Dr. Ross, am I right Sarah? Don't you want to stop it?"

When we read these lines it is as if one is experiencing the same situation and the speaking voices resonate in the mind of the audience.

2. Voice:

Voice is "external manifestation in language of the writer's sensibility: how she sees the world; her values and what she is attracted to in terms of subject matter." (Alden, 2010). Unlike speech which is replete with aural clues such as rhythm, tone, etc. that help the hearer to recognize the voices, writer's only asset is diction (the choice of vocabulary and syntax). In the case of creative writing, vocabulary and syntax are primarily employed to create images and it is the richness of these images that makes writer's voice original and appealing (Mills, 2006, Burroway, 2011).

3. Characterization:

All the genres in creative writing (short story, novel, poetry, playwriting, nonfiction and fiction) are replete with major and minor characters. Thus, for a writer the development of convincing characters is of considerable importance. There are two distinct ways of characterization: (a) Direct characterization in which the writer directly tells the reader what a character is like and is usually accomplished through description, and (b) indirect characterization in which the writer gives the reader some information and allows him/her to draw his/her own conclusion about the kind of person the character is. This is often accomplished through: (a) action: what a character does through the narrative, (b) thought: what a character thinks about, how a character thinks about his/her surrounding, (c) dialogue: what a character says and how it is said, (d) setting: where and when a character is situated in, and (e) symbol: objects and details which signify various information about a character such as names, entertaining choices, etc. (Saskatchewan, 1998). Burroway (2011), like many others, admits that indirect characterization which employs concrete significant details is the way through which creative writers develop their characters. The following example would better clarify this distinction.

- *Stanley was very angry.*

- *Stanley's eyes blazed as he surveyed the room. The corners of his mouth pointed in a decidedly southerly direction. Carol moved aside as he stalked past her.*

Given the above-mentioned illustrations, it is quite obvious that in the first sentence the character is developed directly while in the second it is the characters' action which imparts the same information about him.

4. Story:

Literally, *story* refers to a narrative which puts events in a sequence from A to Z. Story as a quality of creative language implies that instead of conveying a purpose (to inform, to enlighten, to entertain, etc.) through a formal statement, the writer provides the reader with some information which allows the reader to draw his/her own conclusion about the purpose of the text (Mills, 2006). For instance, the familiar fable *the hare and the tortoise* signifies that slow and steady always wins.

To estimate how far each criterion is achieved in each piece of writing, four levels of achievement are set. They include *excellent, good, fair* and *poor* which are defined as follows:

1). Excellent: Writing in this category demonstrates an excellent use of the criterion.

2). Good: For writings which fall in this level the criterion is partially achieved.

3). Fair: In this category, the criterion is minimally achieved.

4). Poor: Writing in this category does not meet the criterion in any respect.

For a detailed explanation of how these criteria might be applied to students' writing, refer to Appendices section which includes some sample analyses.

TABLE I.
CREATIVE WRITING RUBRIC

Criteria	4. Excellent	3. Good	2. Fair	1. Poor
Image	Maximal use of significant details (there is no or just 1 abstraction, generalization and judgment)	Several use of significant details (they are significantly more than abstractions, generalizations and judgments)	Minimal use of significant details (they are significantly less than abstractions, generalizations and judgments)	No use of significant details (sole use of abstractions, generalizations and judgments)
Characterization	Maximal use of characters' physical appearance, action, thought, symbol, etc. to reveal characters (complete indirect characterization)	Several use of characters' physical appearance, action, thought, symbol, etc. to reveal characters	Minimal use of characters' physical appearance, action, thought, symbol, etc. to reveal characters	No use of characters' physical appearance, action, thought, symbol, etc. to reveal characters (complete direct characterization)
Voice	Maximal use of images to make the voice appealing	Several use of images to make the voice appealing	Minimal use of images to make the voice appealing	No use of images to make the voice appealing
Story	The use of narrative to convey purpose.	-	-	No use of narrative to convey purpose (purpose is conveyed through formal statement)

IV. EVALUATING RELIABILITY OF THE RUBRIC

Reliability is one of the major criteria on which the effectiveness of rubrics depends. In general, reliability refers to consistency of measurement. This might mean how far a test or rubric measures consistently over subsequent ratings (intra-rater reliability) or among various raters (inter-rater reliability) (Mackey & Gass, 2005). To explore the reliability of the proposed rubric, 32 samples of creative writing from two distinct classes were collected and analyzed using the rubric. In fact, Iranian English curriculum does not include any creative writing courses. However, due to the requirements of an M.A. thesis conducted in Guilan University, two literature classes were employed to teach creative writing. Thus, the writings of these two classes were used for investigating the reliability of the rubric. To this end, two individual raters evaluated the whole sample using the analytical rubric. Approximately two weeks later, the same raters repeated the evaluation. Correlation coefficient for scores given by two different raters (inter-rater reliability) and for subsequent ratings (intra-rater reliability) was 0.79 and 0.89, respectively. Although these values are not extremely high, according to Brown, Glasswell and Harland (2004) a reliability index of 0.70 proves to be sufficient for structured rubrics.

V. EVALUATING VALIDITY OF THE RUBRIC

Validity is still another contributing factor to the quality of a rubric. It refers to how far a rubric measures what it purports to measure (Mackey & Gass, 2005). To estimate whether the proposed rubric truly measures creativity in writing, we explored how far the grades assigned using the rubric correlated with an experienced teacher's ranking of the same sample. To this end, firstly the average score was calculated across the two graders for all the 32 papers. Due to the absence of creative writing in Iranian English curriculum, there was no possibility to find an expert of creative writing in the country. However, a distinguished professor of literature helped us in this regard. Sixteen papers which represented a range of average scores were selected from the sample to be evaluated by the judge. He was asked to rank-order the papers based on his knowledge of what creativity in writing might involve. Finally, the Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient between the judge's rankings and the rankings based on the average score of the papers using the rubric was calculated. The correlation coefficient between the two sets of score was 0.70. Furthermore, the mean Spearman rank-order correlation coefficient between rankings of the two raters who assessed the writings with the rubric was 0.61. Thus, the correlation between rankings of those who used the rubric and the judge who applied his own criteria is comparable to the correlation between raters who used the rubric and the same explicitly stated criteria. This result signifies the validity of the rubric.

VI. CONCLUSION

Despite the widespread use of rubrics for evaluating creative writing, most of them suffer from lack of reliability and validity (especially construct validity). In other words, they contain criteria which are either too general too be easily measured, irrelevant to creativity in writing (mechanics, organization, etc.) or even left some crucial aspects of creativity behind. This study tried to bring together the most crucial features of creativity and to exclude the irrelevant ones. The proposed analytical rubric proved to be a useful tool for assessing creativity which benefits from sufficient values of validity and reliability. However, further empirical research is required to substantiate the results.

APPENDIX

Sample analysis:

The following examples are taken from Imaginative writing: The elements of craft (Burroway, 2011).

Example 1: (Flat writing)

Debbie was a very stubborn and completely independent person and was always doing things her way despite her parents' efforts to get her to conform. Her father was an executive in a dress manufacturing company and was able to afford his family all the luxuries and comforts of life. But Debbie was completely indifferent to her family's affluence.

Analysis:

- Image: poor, the work is replete with judgments and generalizations:

Judgment: *She was stubborn- She was independent- She was indifferent to her family's affluence.*

Generalization: *She was doing her way- Parents' effort- All the luxuries of life and comfort.*

- Characterization: poor, the character is developed directly through mere description.

- Voice: poor, there is no image to make the work appealing.

- Story: poor, the purpose is conveyed directly rather than through narrative (the reader is directly told that Debbie is stubborn and indifferent to her family).

Example 2: (Creative writing)

Debbie would wear a tank top to a tea party if she pleased, with fluorescent earrings and ankle-strap sandals.

"Oh, sweetheart,"Mrs. Chiddister would stand in the doorway wringing her hands. "It's not *nice*."

"Not who?" Debbie would say, and add a fringed belt. Mr. Chiddister was Artistic Director of the Boston branch of Cardin, and had a high respect for what he called "elegant textures," which ranged from handwoven tweed to gold filigree, and which he willingly offered his daughter. Debbie preferred her laminated bangles.

Analysis:

- Image: excellent, the work is free from abstractions, generalizations and judgments. Instead, it provides some details which imply the same concepts:

Debbie would wear a tank top to a tea party if she pleased, Debbie preferred her laminated bangles → she was stubborn.

"Not who?" Debbie would say, and add a fringed belt → she was indifferent.

Mr. Chiddister was Artistic Director of the Boston branch of Cardin, and had a high respect for what he called "elegant textures," which ranged from handwoven tweed to gold filigree, and which he willingly offered his daughter, but she preferred her laminated bangles → her parents' effort, her parents' affluence.

- Characterization: excellent, the personality of the character is revealed through her actions rather than directly.

- Voice: excellent, as the above-mentioned examples show the work is replete with images to make the voice appealing.

- Story: excellent, narrative is employed to convey the purpose (Debbi is stubborn and indifferent to her family).

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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Interpretation of Verbal Humor in the Sitcom *The Big Bang Theory* from the Perspective of Adaptation-relevance Theory

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Abstract—**Humor plays a very important role in every sphere of our daily life, especially verbal humor which is mainly carried by language use in a certain context to achieve humorous effect. As a special carrier of humor, sitcom, which is a type of comedy performance, has attracted millions of audiences with humorous utterances all over the world. The American sitcom *The Big Bang Theory* has been one of the most popular American sitcoms in China within these years which largely count on verbal humor to create general humorous effect. Based on the achievements made by previous researchers, the present study explores the verbal humor in the American sitcom *The Big Bang Theory* in the light of a new model—Adaptation-Relevance model so as to reveal its interpretive power of humor and its feasibility in analyzing verbal humor in the sitcom *The Big Bang Theory*. The paper mainly adopts the qualitative and descriptive methods to analyze the selected examples and finally comes to a conclusion that this Adaptation-Relevance model which is an integration of two powerful pragmatic theories holds the interpretive power for verbal humor and has feasibility in analyzing verbal humor by using the data in sitcom *The Big Bang Theory*. Also through the research it further investigates Adaptation-Relevance Theory and extends the application scope and interpretive power of this model.**

Index Terms—**verbal humor, adaptation-relevance theory, *The Big Bang Theory***

I. INTRODUCTION

A. The Research Background

Humor is a common phenomenon which has a vital importance in daily life especially during communication. It can be regarded as human wit as it can adjust the state of mind from fickleness to calmness and reconcile the mutual conflict into harmony. When facing problems and disputes, people with wisdom can make good use of humor to transfer adversity into happy ending. Since 400, B.C. Plato and Aristotle had paid attention to this phenomenon and conducted researches on it and many scholars have begun to bring humor research to their own theoretical fields from different backgrounds by applying the methodologies and techniques that they have learned in other fields of study such as psychology, physiology, philosophy, anthropology, sociology. Scholar Koestler (Koestler, 1993, p. 684-685) generally divides humor into "verbal humor" and "situational humor". Compared to situational humor, verbal humor takes an extremely large proportion, and most humor is presented by language in daily life. Then in recent decades, scholars of different countries have begun to study humor from different linguistic angles such as semantics, pragmatics, functional linguistics, sociolinguistics, and cognitive linguistics.

A new model—Adaptation-Relevance model, which combines two influential pragmatic theories Adaptation Theory and Relevance Theory, is raised within ten years. Researches on humor within these two theories separately have been done by some scholars, but each of these two theories has some defects when analyzing verbal humor. The new model-- Adaptation-Relevance model is not simply combining those two theories together but to combine merits of each theory and overcome the demerits of each theory. The application scope of this new model still needs to be verified. This paper is intended to analyze the production and interpretation of verbal humor in the American sitcom *The Big Bang Theory* from the perspective of Adaptation-Relevance Theory.

The American sitcom *The Big Bang Theory* has been one of the most popular American sitcoms in China within these years which largely count on verbal humor to create general humorous effect. And its original material and large amount of humorous and witty dialogues make it an ideal source of data of the humor research in this paper. The language material in the sitcom is fresh and it is close to our present life.

B. Purpose and Significance of the Research

This research aims to study whether the Adaptation-Relevance model holds interpretive power for verbal humor and its feasibility in analyzing verbal humor by using the data in sitcom *The Big Bang Theory* to help people have a better understanding of sitcom *The Big Bang Theory*, and facilitate the audience's comprehension and appreciation of the

sitcom. In the meantime, this study can further investigate the new model--Adaptation-Relevance Theory and extend the application scope and interpretive power of this model. And from the practical view, in the process of analyzing selected examples from the sitcom, people can have a new angle in interpreting humor during communication so that they can develop a better skill in communication in daily life.

II. REVIEW OF VERBAL HUMOR

A. Definition and Classification of Humor

People are able to laugh for something interesting no matter how different of their sex, age, country, culture and many other aspects. Humor is a universal phenomenon shared by all people. Many scholars and researchers have given definition of humor from different perspectives, but scholars still cannot give a commonly satisfactory definition of it.

From the etymological perspective, the English word "humor" came from the Latin word in ancient times which means "fluid" or "liquid" (Attardo, 1994, p. 6). McGhee(McGhee, 1979) emphasizes humor is not a characteristic of some events such as cartoons, jokes, and clowning behavior, nor is it a behavior such as laughing and smiling, he states that humor is something in our mind and not in the real world. Psychologically, "humor is essentially a masked aggression, which gives one the gratification one desperately craves (Freud. 1976, p. 299)". And Palmer thinks that "humor is everything that is actually or potentially funny and the processes by which this "funniness" occurs." (Palmer, 1994, p. 3)

Even though definitions of humor are various from different perspectives, we can find something in common: the basic and essential factors for humor to come out. That is, there must be human participants who are able to produce and interpret the funny and interesting phenomenon when "humor" occurs, and something happening must be a funny stimulus which can amuse people.

Humor is complex and there are different classifications based on different standards. And in 1993 Koestler (Koestler, 1993) gave a general classification of humor which are verbal humor and situational humor. Verbal humor is expressed through language and also created by language, while situational humor is not. Verbal humor usually conveys humor through rhetorical techniques such as sarcasm, ridicule, irony, bombast, pun, allusion and other rhetorical skills in certain context (Rong Na, 2010). It produces effect on sounds, words and ideas and refers to jokes, comic verse, anecdotes, satire, the bogus proverb and nonsense verse by means of allegory. In contrast, situational humor is concerned with such comic designs as imitation, impersonation and disguise (Zou Haixia, 2012). In this paper, we mainly focus on the study of verbal humor.

B. Previous Studies on Verbal Humor

Study of humor can be traced back over two thousand years from various fields including psychology, philosophy, physiology and so on. These flourishing humor researches in turn give rise to plenty of valuable findings and theories which can be generally included into three theories - superiority theory, relief theory and incongruity theory as traditional approaches to humor study. And in the late 20th century, humor researches have been brought into linguistic field. Freud's relief theory lays the foundation of modern linguistic research on humor, and scholars begin to focus on humor research from different linguistic angles since Raskin (Raskin, 1985) develops the Semantic Script Theory of Humor (also SSTH).

All through these years, more scholars start their humor researches from the pragmatic perspective and have made great achievements. Most of these researches are made by adopting various pragmatic theories as their theoretical frameworks including Grice's Cooperative Principle, Sperber Leech and Levinson's Politeness Principle, Austin and Searle's Speech Act Theory, Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson's Relevance Theory and Verschueren's Adaptation Theory. Among them, humor studies with Grice's Cooperative Principle and Sperber and Wilson's Relevance Theory are the most. Cooperative Principle is one of the most significant theories in pragmatics. Grice holds that there must be a mutually tacit understanding between the speaker and the hearer and a principle followed by both sides in order to achieve special aim in ail speech communications. (Grice, 1975) The principle is made up of the Maxim of Quality, the Maxim of Quantity, the Maxim of Relevance and the Maxim of manner. Sometimes during communication, speakers violate Cooperative Principle on purpose to create an implicature and they communicate from another angle to express meaning thus, verbal humor occurs. According to Relevance Theory, "people's communicative purpose is to seek for optimal relevance, that is, the hearer can get enough and the best contextual effect with minimal information process. When the combination of language and concrete context doesn't have relevancy and conflict occurs, humor is produced. (Zou Haixia, 2012, p. 13)" Even though each of those theories has its merits of interpreting verbal humor, they still have their demerits. It is needed to pay equally attention on both the production side and interpretation side of humor. Therefore, the paper is intended to interpret verbal humor with Adaptation-Relevance theory combining these two influential pragmatic theories which are Relevance Theory and Adaptation Theory.

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As is mentioned above, Relevance Theory and Adaptation Theory are two influential and newly arising pragmatic theories. This section focuses on introducing theoretical framework of the present study including introducing these two

theories, the new model—Adaptation-Relevance Theory and the necessity of combing the two theories.

A.   Relevance Theory

Since Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson formally proposed Relevance Theory in their book: *Relevance: Communication and Cognition* in 1986, this pragmatic theory has been considered as another influential pragmatic theory adopted in the study of humor. Superficially, Relevance Theory is just the detailed elaboration of relevance principle, one of the four categories of maxims in Grice's Cooperate Principle. However, it is different from Cooperate Principle focusing on analyzing the existing main defect of Grice's communication theory, which not only defines communication too vaguely, but explains communication too poorly (Sperber and Wilson, 2001). They argue that the human mind will instinctively react to an encoded message by considering information that it conceives to be relevant to the message and they put forward their own ostensive-inferential model. According to Relevance Theory, "inferential communication and ostension are one and the same process, but seen from two different points of view: that of the communicator who is involved in ostension and that of the audience who is involved in inference (Sperber and Wilson, 2001, p. 54)". The central claim of relevance theory is that the expectations of relevance raised by an utterance are precise enough, and predictable enough, to guide the hearer towards the speaker's meaning.

Generally, the main ideas of Relevance Theory can be summarized into four aspects:

First, there are two principles of relevance: "(1) Human cognition tends to be geared to the maximization of relevance. (2) Every act of ostensive communication communicates a presumption of its own optimal relevance" (Sperber and Wilson, 2001, p. 260). The first principle is from the cognitive perspective and the second one is from the perspective of communication. And the first principle is more general and fundamental than the second one.

Second, an ostensive stimulus is optimally relevant to an audience if "(a) the ostensive stimulus is relevant enough for it to be worth the addressee's effort to process it. (b) The ostensive stimulus is the most relevant one compatible with the communicator's abilities and preference. (Sperber and Wilson, 2001, p. 270)"

Third, according to Sperber and Wilson, there are three types of contextual effects for an input:

(a) Strengthening (providing further evidence for) existing assumptions;

(b) Contradicting (providing evidence against) existing assumptions;

(c) Combining with existing assumptions to yield new contextual effects resulting from a crucial interaction between new and old information. (Sperber and Wilson, 2001, p. 109)

Finally, the degree of relevance can be assessed by two factors: contextual effect and processing effort. Relevance varies inversely with cognitive efforts: (a) Other things being equal, the greater the contextual effects, the greater the relevance; (b) Other things being equal, the greater the processing effort, the lower the relevance (Sperber and Wilson, 2001, p. 124-5).

B.   Adaptation Theory

In the book Understanding Pragmatics, Verschueren defines pragmatics as "a general cognitive, social and cultural perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in forms of behavior" (Verschueren, 2000, p. 7). Different from relevance theory, adaptation theory claims that the use of language is a kind of social behavior which has a close relationship with cognition, society and culture in people's lives. According to Adaptation Theory, using language consists of the continuous making of linguistic choices, consciously or unconsciously, for language-internal and/or language-external reasons. So communicating consists in the making of linguistic choices. The making of choices involves the following seven aspects (Verschueren, 2000, p. 55-8): 1. Choices are made at every possible level of structure. 2. Speakers do not only choose forms, they also choose strategies. 3. The processes of choice making may show any degree of consciousness. 4. Choices are made both in producing and in interpreting an utterance. 5. Once language is used, the user is under an obligation to make choices. 6. As a rule, choices are not equivalent. 7. Choices evoke or carry along their alternatives. And according to Verschueren, language has three properties which are variability, negotiability and adaptability. According to the theory, the three properties are fundamentally inseparable. Adaptability is a cognitive process and a mechanism of language use, whereas variability and negotiability are the contents of adaptation. Then, the notion of adaptability concerning its description of the regularities for linguistic use can be analyzed in the following four angles, namely, contextual correlates of adaptability, structural objects of adaptability, dynamics of adaptability, and the Salience of the adaptation process (Verschueren, 2000).

C.   Adaptation-relevance Theory

From the introduction of these two theories above, we can get that Relevance Theory has strong explanatory power on the account of the cognitive process in communication; and Adaptation Theory can be regarded as a new theory for fully interpreting the phenomena in language use from cognitive, social, and cultural perspectives, which provides us systematic, scientific and general explanations of linguistic properties and the essence of language use. However, both of these two theories have their demerits. For Relevance Theory, it neglects the importance of social and cultural factors in the process of communication and it does not explain what the speaker's concrete relevance presumption refers to, and what the relationship between this relevance presumption and the specific context is. Besides, relevance theory places emphasis on the interpretation side and neglects the production side though both sides are equally important for successful communication. For Verschueren's Adaptation Theory, even though it has provided a satisfactory and

adequate descriptive framework for the regularities of language use and puts equal emphasis on the utterance production and interpretation and takes the social and cultural factors into account in the process of communication, which overcomes the defects of Relevance Theory, but it does not explain how to find the objects of adaptation from various representations and why the degrees of salience in making choices are different, that is, why some choices are made very consciously and some are made almost automatically while others fall in between in terms of consciousness.

Based on overcoming the demerits of these two theories and retaining their bright and reasonable parts, a Chinese scholar Yang Ping (Yang Ping, 2001) proposed Relevance-Adaptation Model from the perspective of utterance production in 2001. But this R-A model, like most previous pragmatic researches, just focuses on the side of utterance production. Later, based on the former attempt of Yang Ping, another Chinese scholar Ran Yongping (Ran Yongping, 2004) proposed Adaptation- Relevance Model (A-R Model) in 2004 which is more feasible and powerful than R-A model and it pays attention to both the speaker's utterance production side and the hearer's interpretation side and emphasizes that communication is an interaction between the speaker and the hearer.

According to Ran Yongping, during communication, for the speaker, communication is an ostensive behavior assuring the relevance; for the hearer, communication is an inferential process of discerning the speaker's intention in order to achieve the cognitive and pragmatic effects. Therefore, language production and interpretation is a process of contextual adaptation and relevance seeking. And the main points of his theory are as follows: 1. In Adaptation-Relevance Model communication is relevance-oriented; 2. the speaker's presumption of relevance determines his choice of a particular utterance; 3. the process of adaptation-relevance is a dynamic inter-adaptation between linguistic choices and contextual correlates; 4. the process of Adaptation-Relevance model is one of choosing strategies (Ran Yongping, 2004).

To sum up, Adaptation-Relevance Model is adequate in its descriptive and explanatory force in terms of the whole process of communication concerning both language production and interpretation. It not only puts emphasis on human's cognition, but also takes the physical, social and cultural contexts that affect the communicator's linguistic choices into account and provides a connection between relevance assumption and contextual correlates at the same time. It takes on a specific image of the relevance assumption and explains the choice of strategy involved in language use. In conclusion, the Adaptation-Relevance model affords much more powerful description and explanation force than either Relevance Theory or Adaptation Theory respectively.

IV. ANALYSIS OF VERBAL HUMOR IN THE SITCOM *THE BIG BANG THEORY* FROM THE PERSPECTIVE OF
ADAPTATION-RELEVANCE THEORY

The sitcom is short for situation comedy and is regarded as a genre of comedy performance in which some recurring characters showing audiences a series of humorous stories in a familiar environment such as a family home, workplace, stores and so forth. It is originated in radio program, but it is mostly found on television today. For American sitcoms, the story in each episode is written to run 22 minutes in length and there are usually about 20 episodes in one season. American sitcoms are very popular these decades and they are welcomed by both teenagers and older audiences, among which the American sitcom named *The Big Bang Theory* is very famous and outstanding these years with six seasons. It mainly tells a series of humorous stories that happened among some ladies with distinguished characteristics and four brilliant physicists working at Caltech in Pasadena, California who are colleagues and friends working on their own work projects and spending time together playing video games, watching science-fiction movies and reading comic books. And among these four physicists, one named Sheldon Cooper is extremely different from normal people in many ways such as habits, thoughts and so on, which creates many funny stories and humorous dialogues. Here a brief analysis will be made of several pieces of humorous dialogues of these classic roles from Season Six of the sitcom from the perspective of Adaptation-Relevance Theory.

A. Relevance-orientation

Example 1
Russian astronaut: Hey, fruit loops, you got a phone call.
Wolowitz: Who is it?
Russian astronaut: A woman who says she's your mother but sounds like your father.
Wolowitz: (pick up the phone call) Hey, ma? You know, we could see each other if you turn on the computer.
Wolowitz's mother: I'm not going to near that fakakta thing. I'll catch a computer virus!
Wolowitz: You can't catch a computer virus.
Wolowitz's mother: Oh, so now you're an astronaut and a doctor? (Sohu TV, 2012: episode 1)
The background of this group of dialogue is that Wolowitz is selected as an astronaut living in space for several days, and his mother is making a space phone call with him. People who have seen the sitcom all know that his mother's voice sounds very strange like an old man. So when Wolowitz asks "Who is it?" after that Russian astronaut tells him there is a phone call for him, that Russian astronaut answered that "A woman who says she's your mother but sounds like your father." Audiences refer to that related background information after hearing that utterance and get the humorous effect. Just as Adaptation-Relevance model says that communication is relevance-oriented. Then Wolowitz tells his mother that she can use the computer to do video chat, but his mother thinks that she will catch a computer

virus if she uses a computer which is contradictory to the fact that everybody else knows. So when audiences hear this utterance and relate to the physical fact, they find the contradiction and get the amusement.

Also, in Adaptation-Relevance Model, there are two principles of relevance: the maximal relevance and the optimal relevance. Human cognition tends to be maximally relevant and every act of ostensive communication conveys a presumption of its own optimal relevance. When there is a big difference between the maximal relevance and the optimal relevance during communication especially in comedy performances, audience will have to make a larger processing effort to understand the dialogues, but big humorous effect and amusement will be the compensation. Here's another example:

Example 2

Stuart: So, Howard's really in space, huh?

Leonard: Mm-hmm, International Space Station, 250 miles that way.

Rajesh: Right now, Howard's staring down at our planet like a tiny Jewish Greek god. Zeusowitz.

Sheldon: I must admit, I can't help but feel a twinge of envy. He can look out the window and see the majesty of the universe unfolding before his eyes -- his dim, uncomprehending eyes. It's like a cat in an airport carrying case. (Sohu TV, 2012: episode 1)

From the dialogues, we can see that these friends of Howard admire him in the space and speak highly of his experience. And when Sheldon says "I must admit, I can't help but feel a twinge of envy. He can look out the window and see the majesty of the universe unfolding before his eyes", audience will have maximal relevance that he will continue compliment Howard with beautiful words. But after a short pause, Sheldon says that "his dim, uncomprehending eyes. It's like a cat in an airport carrying case", which is a little scornful and sarcastic. Then audiences get the optimal relevance that even though Howard becomes an astronaut in space, he still looks down upon him and thinks that Howard is not qualified. The contradiction of maximal relevance and optimal relevance creates a great humor here.

B. *Presumption of Relevance*

According to Adaptation- Relevance Model, the speaker's presumption of relevance determines his choice of a particular utterance. Speakers and hearers both have to make choices of their own linguistic ways so as to achieve a successful communication and in the choice-making process the relevance presumption restrains their choices. For the speaker, he/ she has to choose proper linguistic forms and styles to express his / her intention clearly to the hearer; and for the interpretation side, the hearer has to make particular inference by adapting speaker's very contextual presumption to certain linguistic choices given by the speaker with enough relevance providing as the guide. Therefore, these linguistic choices play a very important role for both production side and interpretation side during communication. In sitcoms, performers rely on presumption of relevance making proper linguistic choices to pursue optimal relevance, while audiences will interpret the verbal humor produced by performers through the relevance presumption formed in their mind to understand performers' actual intention.

Example 3

Amy: Have I ever told you you're like a sexy praying mantis?

Sheldon: Every time you drink alcohol.

Amy: You know what's wonderful about the praying mantis? They devour their mate.

Sheldon: Your point being….?

Amy: (unlock the top button of her blouse) "Dessert" is served.

Sheldon: I just had cobbler.   (Sohu TV, 2012: episode 1)

This dialogue happens when Amy and Sheldon have dinner together in a restaurant to celebrate their second anniversary as boy friend and girl friend. Sheldon doesn't like intimacy physical contact with other people including his girl friend Amy, while Amy doesn't like that way. So after drinking some wine, Amy tries to seduce Sheldon with the metaphor and says that "Dessert is served", but she gets the answer that "I just had cobbler", which means a rejection to her. From the dialogue, we can get that she may have the following assumptions in mind:

a) Sheldon and she are girl friend and boy friend.

b) Sheldon looks so sexy in her eyes especially after drinking alcohol.

c) She wants to have an intimacy contact with Sheldon.

d) She comes up with a metaphor that Sheldon looks like a praying mantis which devours her mate.

e) She compares herself as a dessert and tries to imply that Sheldon can "devour" her.

So after interpreting Amy's assumptions we can understand why she chooses that metaphor as her expressing linguistic forms such as "Dessert is served".

Audiences can't help laughing after watching this dialogue probably because they have the following assumptions in mind:

a) Sheldon and Amy are partners.

b) It's normal for them to have intimacy physical contact.

c) Amy tries to seduce Sheldon with a metaphor expression

d) Sheldon as a man should give related response accepting Amy's request.

e) Sheldon refuses her by choosing a convention linguist form answering her question and ignores her intention

expressed by the metaphor.

Based on the above assumptions, audiences can get why they choose those linguistic forms during communication and interpret their intentions ending with a burst of laughter.

C.   Dynamic Process of Inter-adaptation

Based on Adaptation- Relevance Model, the process of adaptation-relevance is a dynamic inter-adaptation between linguistic choices and contextual correlates during communication. Here contextual correlates not only refer to physical world, but also refer to mental and social context. In sitcoms, often when audiences and performers have different contextual correlates and optimal relevance, humor effect will take place.

Example 4
Stuart: Should we go?
Sheldon: Yeah, but one more question. If you're going to replace Wolowitz, I need to know little more about you.
Stuart: All right.
Sheldon: Wolowitz went to MIT (Massachusetts Institute of Technology), what's your educational background?
Stuart: I went to art school.
Sheldon: Equally ridiculous. Let's go. (Sohu TV, 2012: episode 2)

This conversation happens when Howard goes to space and Rajesh needs a company, so Raj asks Stuart to join in this little friend group, but Sheldon refuses. Then Raj and Leonard persuade Sheldon that he can regard Stuart as Wolowitz. Then Sheldon asks some questions to test how similar Stuart and Wolowitz are to each other. When Sheldon says "Wolowitz went to MIT (Massachusetts Institute of Technology), what's your educational background", we all know that MIT is an outstanding university, if Stuart wants to be accepted by Sheldon, he needs to have similar good education background with Wolowitz. But he answers in truth that he just went to art school which is not very high education background. In most audiences' mental world, Sheldon won't accept him because of his low education background. But Sheldon then says "Equally ridiculous. Let's go." This utterance indicates that in Sheldon's mental world MIT is just as bad as an art school, which is totally different from common people's thought and makes him say that they are equally ridiculous. And this contradiction and different relevance to context or the mental world creates a big humor effect to audiences.

From the brief analysis of the above example, we can get that both the production and interpretation sides of verbal humor have to take the inter-adaptation between the contextual choices and linguistic choices into account, and context is very important in the verbal humor communication.

D.   Strategy-choosing Process

In light of Adaptation-Relevance Theory, speakers and hearers not only choose linguistic forms by adapting to the relevant contextual correlates in communication, but also choose strategies in the process of adaptation- relevance consciously or unconsciously. When they choose a certain strategy, they have to choose certain linguistic levels such as sound structure, lexicon, sentence proposition and so on to achieve a successful communication and express their true intention.

Example 5
Steven Hawking: Do you like brain teasers?
Sheldon: Oh, I love brain teasers.
Steven Hawking: What do Sheldon Cooper and a black hole have in common?
Sheldon: ……
Steven Hawking: They both suck! (Sohu TV, 2012: episode 6)

This conversation happens when Sheldon wants to make friends with the great physicist Steven Hawking by playing games through the internet. But Hawking often loses in the game, so he thinks of a way to satirize him and make him unhappy. We both know that the word "suck" has many meanings. It not only means an attraction force, but also means something or somebody is very bad or annoying. Therefore, Hawking makes good use of the meaning of lexicon and chooses this semantic ambiguity as the strategy expressing his true intention and feelings in this conversation. Also, this semantic ambiguity brings great humorous effect to audiences.

To sum up, during communication both utterance production side and interpretation side have to make linguistic choices and choose strategies to seek the optimal relevance according to their presumptions of relevance to achieve a successful communication. Conversation is filled with the process of adaptation- relevance. And based on the statement and brief analysis of the above examples, it is easy to get that to some extent sitcoms do rely on principles of Adaptation-Relevance Theory consciously or unconsciously. In turn, Adaptation-Relevance Theory does have great explanatory power and feasibility on the analysis of production and interpretation of verbal humor.

V.   CONCLUSION

From the above analysis, it can be concluded that Adaptation-Relevance Theory does have great explanatory power and feasibility on the analysis of production and interpretation of verbal humor in the sitcom *The Big Bang Theory*. The whole process of producing and interpreting verbal humor in humorous conversations of sitcoms is full of the process of

adaptation and relevance. Performers make the inter-adaptation between the linguistic choices and context choices and choose some certain strategies to seek the optimal relevance according to their presumptions of relevance to achieve a successful communication providing the amusement, relaxation and humorous effect for audiences. Also, based on the analysis of the verbal humor in the sitcom, it is obviously shown that the Adaptation-Relevance model affords much more powerful description and explanation force than either Relevance Theory or Adaptation Theory respectively.

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Analysis of Ba Marker in Chinese

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Abstract—**A large number of linguists have long been interested in ergativity, however ergative languages have long presented a vexing problem for them. The characteristics causing a language to be described as "ergative" is that the intransitive subject is marked in the same way as the transitive object morphologically, while the transitive subject receives a different case marking. Morphological case marking is the original criterion of ergativity. But, later, the term "syntactic ergativity" is used to characterize languages where syntactic phenomena treat the single argument of a verb like 'run' in the same way as the patient argument of a verb like 'hit', while the agent argument of this two-argument verb is treated differently. What about Chinese? Because scholars claim that in linguistics, Chinese is well known as an isolating or an analytic language which lacks case inflection or verb agreement, it is not morphologically ergative. In this paper, I'll first discuss Li and Yip's argument against the analysis of ba as an absolutive marker, then Fujii (1989)'s belief that the entire syntax is centred more or less round the absolutive in Chinese, and finally show that ba as an absolutive marker is unmotivated, rather than *ba* should be treated as an object marker, sometimes optionally, sometimes obligatorily.**

Index Terms—**ba marker, ergativity, object marker**

I. INTRODUCTION

A large number of linguists have long been interested in ergativity, however ergative languages have long presented a vexing problem for them. According to the overview articles written by Comrie(1978) and Dixon(1979)[1], the characteristics causing a language to be described as "ergative" are that the intransitive subject is marked in the same way as the transitive object morphologically, while the transitive subject receives a different case marking. Morphological case marking is the original criterion of ergativity. But, later, the term "syntactic ergativity" is used to characterize languages where syntactic phenomena treat the single argument of a verb like 'run' in the same way as the patient argument of a verb like 'hit', while the agent argument of this two-argument verb is treated differently. Languages that have been described as ergative include Eskimo languages, Basque, some of the Polynesian languages, many Australian languages and Caucasian languages (Silva, 1989). What about Chinese[2]? Because scholars claim that in linguistics, Chinese is well known as an isolating or an analytic language which lacks case inflection or verb agreement, it is not morphologically ergative. But "it is possible for a language to be (wholly or partly) syntactically ergative in that it manifests syntactic phenomena which treat intransitive subjects and transitive objects alike, and in contrast to transitive subjects" (Li & Yip, 1979, p.105). The function of *ba* in modern Chinese is a widely discussed topic among linguists. Ba is treated as a verb (Hashimoto 1971), a preposition (coverb) (Travis, 1984; Li & Thompson, 1981), or as a case marker (Huang, 1990). Henri Frei (1956), stimulated by Willem Grootaers (1953) who published an article on the analysis of *ba*, was the first scholar to recognize ergativity in Chinese, arguing that *ba* should be treated as a marker of the ***absolutive case***—the object of a transitive and the subject of an intransitive. We must admit that as far as the methodological accuracy and the depth of findings are concerned, Frei's investigation into *ba* construction is said to be one of the most far-reaching explorations (Fujii, 1989). In addition, Fujii (1989) argues that in spite of the shortcoming of Frei's ergativity hypothesis which is based on distinguishing between the concepts of "inertial" and "energetic" only in semantic sense, he still believes that the entire syntax is centered more or less round the absolutive in Chinese. However, I fully agree with Li and Yip (1979) that *ba* as a marker is not expected to be analyzed with respect to ergativity, because of two claims. One is that "it is shown that the very restricted number of cases where *ba* appears to mark an intransitive subject are all open to an alternative explanation", and second is "in any case, the very rarity of such cases by comparison with *ba* on objects" (Li & Yip, 1979, p.107). Furthermore, we can consider *ba* only as an object marker (accusative). Actually, some direct objects are marked obligatorily preceded by the morpheme *ba*, for other objects *ba* is optional, or prohibited.

In this paper, I'll first discuss Li and Yip's argument against the analysis of *ba* as an absolutive marker, then Fujii (1989)'s belief that the entire syntax is centered more or less round the absolutive in Chinese, and finally show that *ba*

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[1] According to Song (2001) "in discussion of case marking within linguistic typology it has become a very useful convention to make reference to three grammatical-semantic primitives, A, S&P. *A* stands for agent, or more accurately, the logical subject of the transitive clause; *P* for patient, or more accurately, the logical object of the transitive clause; *S* is the sole argument, the logical subject of the transitive clause. " That is the criterion to judge the ergativity of a language.
[2] "Mandarin Chinese," the official Chinese language, will simply be referred to as "Chinese" in this paper. In fact, it is slightly different from the dialect spoken in Hong Kong and in Taiwan.

as an absolute marker is unmotivated, rather than *ba* should be treated as an object marker, sometimes optionally, sometimes obligatorily.

II. ANALYSIS OF BA AS AN ABSOLUTIVE CASE MARKER

It is claimed that the characteristics of "*ba* marks specific direct objects dealt with transitive action verbs, but not all direct objects. Ba sentences must also include at least the aspect marker *le*, or resultative complement. It is subject to semantic and perhaps phonological restrictions[3], the *ba* NP having a definite referent" (Li & Yip, 1979, p. 105).

A. Criticism to Frei's Ba by Li and Yip (1979) and Fujii (1989)

When linguistic typologists discuss case marking, it has become a very useful practice to make reference to "three grammatical-semantic primitives, A, S & P. *A* stands for agent, or more accurately, the logical subject of the transitive clause; *P* for patient, or more accurately, the logical object of the transitive clause; *S* is the sole argument, the logical subject of the transitive clause" (Song, 2001, p.141). So in the ergative–absolutive system, *A* is identified with ergative case label, while *P* and *S* with absolutive. To put it differently, *S* and *P* are treated alike in contrast to *A*. It is believed that ergative–absolutive case marking system is quite common though less common than nominative-accusative marking (Dixon, 1994, p.101; Song, 2001, p.141). Frei (1956) published an article in which he analyzed *ba* as an ***absolutive marker***, because the intransitive subject (*S*) is cased marked in the same way as the transitive object (*P*) by *ba* as a marker in the ***ba-construction***, while the transitive subject (*A*) receives a different case marking.[4] So, in order to prove that *ba* is considered to be an ergative phenomenon, what is at issue is whether ba can mark intransitive subject(*S*), since it is well known that *ba* marks objects. However, Li and Yip (1979) found that *ba* marking of intransitive subjects is rare compared with *ba* marking on the transitive objects. They classify Frei's examples of initial *ba* into two groups and try to prove that these examples all have reasonable alternative explanations, that is to say, they don't carry the characteristics of *ba* mark on the intransitive subject. The first group has "verbs which are normally or potentially transitive, and the sentences are interpreted as having anaphoric subjects, or as imperatives, depending on context" (Li &Yip, 1979, p.105). The second group has verbs which are truly intransitive, such as ***pao*** (run) or ***zou*** (walk) or ***bing*** (ill). For example, (1) is an example of the first group and (2) & (3)&(4) of the second group.

(1) **ba**   ta   qi   si   le
     ba   S/He   angry   dead   ASP
     'S/he was made angry to death.'   (*adapted from Li and Yip1979*)

(2) ***Ba*** *ge zhu pao le* [5]
     Ba CL pig run ASP
     'A pig has run away.'   (*from Li and Yip1979, Frei, 1190*)

(3) ***ba*** *wo zou lei le*
     Ba I walk tired ASP
     'I walk to feel tired.'

(4) ***ba*** *ta ba bing le*
     Ba his/her father ill ASP
     'His father is ill.'

According to Li and Thompson (1981), we can argue that (1) can be treated as a *ba* sentence without a subject when that subject refers to either a noun phrase or a proposition that is understood from the context. If the understood subject refers to a noun phrase, it is simply a case of a ***zero pronoun***[6]. Consider example (5) from Frei (1371),

(5) a. *Wo dong huai le*
        I freeze bad ASP
     b. ***Ba*** *wo dong huai le*
        Ba I freeze bad ASP
     c. *Dong huai le wo*
        Freeze bad ASP I
        'I am freezing. '

According to common sense or context, we know we are freezing possibly because of the weather, so the subject is dummy "weather *it*" always realized as ***zero pronoun*** in Chinese. Therefore, (5b) comes from the transitive (5c) which can also be expressed in the form of intransitive (5a). It is apparent *ba* in (5b) marks the tansitive object, instead of intransitive subject, though *ba* is poistiond initially.

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[3] "Ba sentences must also include at least the aspect marker le, or other elaboration of the verb phrase such as frequency adverbials or an indirect object; this has been variously interpreted as a phonological constraint on monosyllabic verb phrases"(Li &Yip, 1979). See details in Li (1974, p.455).
[4] In Chinese, actually, the ergative of ba construction is zero-marked, and the absolutive is marked by ba. In this case, Li and Yip (1979) believe that Chinese is the only case known to be zero-marked ergative, for David Nash points out that the established cases of ergative languages have ergative marked and absolutive unmarked (Nash, 1977, p. 87).
[5] This sentence selected by Li and Yip (1979) as an example, in fact, is not acceptable in modern Chinese, so here it cannot be used to prove that *ba* as an ***absolutive marker*** on intransitive subject. The same for the example (3) and (4).
[6] See Li and Thompson (1981) for detail in chapter 24.

Sometimes the proposition is understood and doesn't need to be explicitly expressed, so if we want to discuss the way we treat a friend, we can simply say as in (1). Similarly, (3), if acceptable in Chinese, can be regarded as a **ba** sentence without subject, and it can be interpreted in the sense that the walking the distance made me feel tired to the extent that I feel dead. Consider another example in (6),

(6) *zuo- tian wo-men   qing ke,   **ba** ta chi de du -zi dou zhang le*
     yesterday we (pl)   invite guest, ba s/he eat belly   all   bloat ASP
Yesterday we invite guests and that made him/her eat so much that his/her belly was bloated.

In this example the proposition is implied in the previous context (zuo- tian wo-men   qing ke), it doesn't need to be overtly expressed in the ba sentence(**ba** ta   chi de -zi dou zhang le). This is the typical feature for the Chinese structure, with understood subject unexpressed directly.

The other two **ba** sentences (2)and (4) , though Li and Yip (1979) claim that they are the true examples of **ba** marking intransitive subjects, actually, are not acceptable in modern Chinese, as a result, they cannot be treated as the typical example for **ba** to mark intransitive subject. Besides (2) and (4), Li and Yip also list several examples to prove that there indeed exist examples of **ba** marking intransitive subject. However, I find out that all of these examples are not acceptable in Chinese. Why? Frei's data is based on Cantonese or Mandarin spoken in Hong Kong. It is slightly different from the **pu tong hua** (Chinese) now officially used in China. That is why I found all of these examples proved ro be the true examples, are not acceptable according to **pu tong hua** in China. Consequently, so far, we cannot find a true example.

In a word, the question of whether **ba** marks the intransitive subjects is crucial to Frei's analysis of **ba** ergativity, but it turns out that examples (1)-(4) cannot be taken as convincing examples to illustrate that **ba** marks the intansitive subject, for the reason that understood subject of **ba** sentence is not necessarily overtly expressed.

Li and Yip also argue that if **ba** is an absolutive marker, what is ergative marker? In Chinese, actually "the ergative of **ba** construction is zero-marked, and the absolutive is marked by **ba**". In this case, Li and Yip (1979) believe that Chinese is the only case known to be zero-marked ergative, for David Nash points out that the established cases of ergative languages have ergative marked and absolutive unmarked (Nash, 1977, p.87, from Li & Yip, 1979).

As far as Frei is concerned, Chinese is not always ergative, exhibiting both the ergative-absolutive and nominative-accusative based on "semantics" (Frei, 1956, p.83). Frei (1956) also says: "The use of **ba** presupposean ergative verb, whereas the latter does not presuppose **ba** "(p.96). In Li and Yip's interpretation, "**ba** is an absolutive marker, but verbs may appear in either ergative /absolutive or nominative/accusative construction" (Li &Yip, 1979, p.106). That is to say Chinese has the characteristics of "***split ergativity***". Frei therefore outlines the semantic conditions for **ba**, indicating that **ba** NP must have a specific referent and an object of action verb in the case of transitive and he also observes that there is connection between **ba** and aspect (either perfective *le* or a resultative complement).

For the split-ergative case marking system, the division between ergative/absolutive and nominative/accusative is "regular and systematic" (Song, 2001, p.148). One condition for division is "referential/semantic nature or the inherent lexical content of NPs" (Nominal Hierarchy (Dixon, 1994, p.85)). Another condition is "aspect and tense" with the language Georgian as example (Song, 2001, p.149. For example,

(7) a. *student –i   midis*   (from Song, 2001, p.149 Georgian)
      Student-NOM   goes
      'The student goes.'
   b. *student –i   ceril-s   cers*   (from Song, 2001, p.149 Georgian)
      Student-NOM   letter-ACC   writes
      'The student writes the letter.'
   c. *student –i   mivida   Georgian*   (from Song, 2001, p.149 Georgian)
      Student-ABS   went
      'The student went.'
   d. *student –ma   ceril-i   dacera*   (from Song, 2001, p.149 Georgian)
      Student-ERG   letter-ABS   wrote
      'The student wrote the letter.'

(7a) and (7b) are in the present tense, and the suffix –*i* is used to mark intransitive subject and transitive subject, in contrast to the suffix–*s* in transitive object. On the other hand, (7c) and (7d) are in the ergative–absolutive case system because of the past tense (Song, 2001, p.149). It is not the case for Chinese ba sentense. Taking the conditions for split ergativity and semantic conditions for **ba** into consideration, it is not natural for **ba** to be analyzed with respect to split ergativity, for **ba** sentence doesn't satisfy the conditions for split ergativity.

Moreover, in terms of Frei's ergativity hypothesis which is to distinguish "inertial" from "energetic", Fujii (1989) believed that it is best understood in the sense of the "active type" of language. What is "active type" of case system? In this system the case marking of intransitive subject depends on the semantic nature of the intransitive verb (Song, 2001, p.150). "If the intransitive verb refers to an activity which is likely to be under the control of subject, the subject will bear the same case marking as transitive verb subject", and "if it refers to non-controlled activity, the subject will be marked in the same way as transitive object" (Song, 2001, p. 150). Consider the example (8):

(8) a. *Deng   xi - mie le*

    Light   go out   ASP
  b. *Ba deng xi -mie le*   (adapted from Grootaers, 16)
    Ba lamp go out ASP
  c. *wo xie -mie le deng*
    I   go out   ASP lamp
  d. *wo ba deng xi-mie le*
    I   ba   lamp go out ASP
  e. *wo deng   xi-mie le*
    I   lamp   go out ASP
    'I turn off the lamp.'

Here in (8a) *xi-mie*, intransitive verb, refers to an activity which is not likely to be controlled by the subject (*deng*), so the subject (*deng*) will be marked in the same way as transitive object, thus (8b) (*Ba deng xi mie le*) equals to (8d)(wo ba deng xi-mie le). But (8a) and (8b) are not identical in terms of meaning, and (8b) share the similar meaning with (8d) except (8b) has no subject, because it can infer from the context. In addition, *xi-mie* also behaves as transitive verb in (8c). In (8e), object (*deng*) is moved to preverbal position, but **ba** is not added. Therefore how can we explain the sentences (8)? I, personally think **ba** should be considered only as object marker. Some direct objects are marked obligatorily preceded by the morpheme **ba**; for some objects **ba** is optional, and for some **ba** is prohibited. In this way can we make a systematic analysis of the sentences (8). In the next section I will examine what factors influence the realization of the **ba** as an object marker.

B. Ba as Object Marker

Chinese is well known as an isolating or an analytic language which lacks inflectional morphology. In other words, words in Chinese are generally not marked by any morphology showing their role in the sentence, so word order carries a lot of importance and the basic grammatical relations are identified by word order only. Chinese has unmarked word order –SVO.Consider example (9a):

(9) a. *ta   chi   le   yi-ge   ping-guo*
    S/He eat   Asp   one   apple
    'S/He ate an apple.'
  b. *ta   ba yi-ge   ping-guo chi le*.
    S/He ba one   apple   eat Asp
    'S/He ate an apple.'
  c. **ta   yi-ge   ping-guo chi   le*.
    S/He one   apple   eat Asp
    'S/He ate an apple.'
  d. *ta   ping-guo chi   le* .
    S/He   apple   eat Asp   (from Bergen, 2006)
    'S/He ate an apple.'
  e. *ta   (ba) zhe-ge   ping-guo chi   le* .
    S/He (ba) this   apple   eat Asp
    'S/He ate this apple.'

The subject **ta** is positioned on the left side of the verb chi (eat), while direct object (yi-ge ping-guo) is placed on the right side of verb. Although word order in Chinese is rather strict, direct object can be moved to a preverbal position. Compare examples (9b) and (9c) and (9d), we can find that if the direct object is moved to before verb, **ba** has to be used to mark the object to distinguish from the subject as in (9b) instead of (9c), that is, **ba** becomes obligatory; on the other hand, we can also have (9d) without **ba** as object marker when the direct object NP has to change from *yi-ge ping-guo* to *ping-guo*.It is apparent that direct object can be placed both in preverbal and in postverbal position and object in preverbal position can be preceded with or without **ba**.

Compare the sentences below, in which the object **ta** is placed post-verbally in (10a) and pre-verbally in (10b). According to (10d) and (10b), we can conclude that when the object **ta** is moved to preverbal position, **ta** must be preceded by **ba**, otherwise (10d) is ungrammatical. In other words, omitting the **ba** marker is impossible for the pronoun object **ta** in preverbal position. In (10c), compared with (10b), we can observe that the understood subject is not explicitly expressed.

(10) a. *Wo qi   si   ta le*
    I   angry dead s/he ASP
    'I made him/her angry to death.'
  b. *Wo **ba** ta   qi   si   le*
    I   ba him/her angry dead   ASP
  c. *Ba   ta   qi   si   le*
    ba   her/him angry dead   ASP
  d. **Wo ta   qi   si   le*
    I   s/he   angry dead ASP

Compare the sentences (11) below. In (11a) direct object ***lao-hu*** is placed post-verbally while in (11b) it is moved to pre-verbal position with ***ba*** as obligatory object marker compared with (11d).

(11)   a.   *Ta   da   si   lao-hu   le*
            s/he beat dead tiger   ASP

   b.   *Ta   **ba**   lao -hu da si le*
            s/he ba   tiger   beat dead ASP

   c.   **ba**   lao -hu da   si le
            ba tiger   beat dead ASP

   d.   *Ta   lao -hu   da   si   le
            s/he tiger   beat dead ASP

The above examples illustrate that ***ba*** as an object case marker is "sometimes obligatory, sometimes optional and sometimes prohibited", which is determined by the "word order" and "semantic properties of the object" (Bergen, 2006, p.10).

Firstly, Greenberg (1963) has already observed the relationship between word order and case marking. Based on his vast typological research, he established a number of linguistic universals, including the implicational universal 41: *"if in a language the verb follows both the nominal subject and nominal object as the dominant order, the language almost always has case system"* (p.96).

It follows that if a language would change its word order from SVO to SOV, it is to be expected that it develops case marking. In Chinese, most of scholars claim that the dominant word order is SVO. In a canonical Chinese sentence, the prototypical syntactic position for objects in Chinese is postverbal position, that is the arguments of subject and object are distinguished by their syntactic position in relation to the verb, so word order already provides the necessary information to discriminate the grammatical roles of the arguments, and in this case ***ba*** is never used for the purpose of discrimination (Bergen, 2006, p.35; Song, 2001, p.156) as shown in (9a) and (10a) and (11a). However, when direct objects are scambled preverbally as shown in the sentence (9b) and (10b) and (11b), both the subjects and objects are on the same side of the verb, the word order change from SVO to SOV. In SOV construction, the subjects and objects can no longer be discriminated from each other by means of their position relative to verb. This can be solved by marking either or both the subjects and the objects with case. If the subject or the object receives a case marker, it can be identified regardless of its position in the sentence (Bergen, 2006). That is the reason why (9b) and (10b) and (11b) have to be marked by ***ba***. In addition, in these examples ***ba*** as object marker is obligatorily. Why? I'll discuss later. Now we can therefore conclude that the use of ***ba*** as an object marker in Chinese is licensed by a shift in "word order". As is known, in terms of basic word order SVO, subjects are prototypically in preverbal position, while objects are generally in postverbal position. "When objects scramble, they end up in a atypical position for objects, as a result of which they can no longer be identified as objects by means of their position, relative to the verb" (Bergen, 2006, p.46). In this case, ***ba*** as object marker is used. However, ***ba*** is not always obligatory, for ***ba*** can be omitted under some circumstances. Next I'll investigate what triggers the omission of ***ba*** marker.

Secondly, the semantic features of ***animacy and definiteness or specificity*** of the object determine whether the objects are marked or not with case marker (Aissen, 2003; Bergen, 2006). For example, in Hebrew indefinite objects are not case marked, in contrast with the definite objects marked; on the other hand in Malayalam human and animate objects are case marked while inanimate objects are not (Asher & Kumari, 1997; Bergen, 2006). "Nouns can be ranked by animacy or definiteness on a continuum ranging from most to least animate or definite" (Bergen, 2006, p.14), thus forming a universal prominence scale:

Animacy scale: Human > Animate > Inanimate

Definite scale: Pronoun > Proper Noun>Definite NP > Definite specific NP > Indefinite non-specific NP
(from Bergen, 2006)

Aissen (2003, p.435) generalize that "the higher in prominence a direct object, the more likely it is to be overtly case marked". We can see from the above examples (9), (10) and (11) this ***universal prominence scale*** has influence on the ***ba*** as obligatory marker or optional marker. When we compare (10b) with (10d) and (11b) with (11d), we can find that the preverbal objects are human and animate respectively, and ***ba*** is retained there, that is, it cannot be omitted. On the other hand, when the preverbal object is inanimate as shown in (9b) with (9d), ***ba*** is optional and can be omitted. Therefore the dimension of animacy determines whether ***ba*** object marker is obligatory or optional and the cut-off point on the animacy scale is placed between animate and inanimate objects. In terms of ***universal prominence scale***, *human* and *animate* are more prominent than *inanimate*, so it is likely to be ovetly marked according to the generalization that "the higher in prominence a direct object, the more likely it is to be overtly case marked" (Aissen, 2003, p.435). Consequently, the human and animate preverbal objects in (10b) and (11b) are obligatory marked with ***ba***, while inanimate preverbal object in (9d) can be omitted. As is shown in the example (9d), ***ba*** as object marker is semantically empty, and only plays a syntactic role, so, it can be omitted without affecting the meaning and grammaticality of the sentence, if the preverbal object is inanimate. In addition, Bergen (2006) argues that "whereas the optional omission of ***ba*** can be seen as a consequence of animacy features of the object, the presence of ***ba*** in itself is not semantically driven; it is a consequence of the syntactic structure of sentence"(p. 91). However, ***ba*** is not optional for every inanimate preverbal object as shown in (9c).

In order to account for this situation, we have to turn to the dimension of definiteness—definite scale. So the dimension of definiteness becomes applicable, when the object is inanimate. Given the ***universal prominence scale***, when objects are definite, they have high prominence, while objects are indefinite, they have low prominence, so definite objects are more likely to be overtly marked than indefinite objects, according to the generlization made by Aissen (2003, p.435). It follows that **ba** is obligatory when preverbal objects are definite, while **ba** is optional when preverbal objects are indefinite. However, when we compare (9b) & (9c) & (9e), we can observe that **ba** is optional in (9e) with definite object, and obligatory in (9b) with indefinite object. As we know, Chinese doesn't have definite or indefinite articles, but *yi-ge* and *zhe-ge* represents indefiniteness an definiteness respectively.So, it is true that the omission of **ba** is determined by the definiteness of object (ping guo), but it is in conflict with the Aissen's generalizaton that the more prominent the object is, the more likely it is overtly marked.

From the above discussion, we can draw the conclusion that the dimensions of animacy and definiteness determine the omission of **ba** when object is located in preverbal position. If animate or human objects are placed preverbally, they have to be obligatorily marked with **ba**, while **ba** is omitted if inanimate objects are in preverbal position. Furthermore, if preverbal objects are indefinite, **ba** is obligatory, while **ba** can be omitted if they are definite. Finally, I fully agree with Bergen (2006) that "the way in which animacy influences **ba** fits Aissen's (2003) cross-linguistic predictions: high prominent objects are obligatorily marked, and low prominent objects are optionally marked. However, the way in which definiteness influences **ba** appears to conflict" (p.48).

III. Conclusion

The unmarked order of Chinese is SVO. When the word order is changed to SOV, where the object precedes the verb and thus is marked by a special morpheme **ba**, for **ba** as a marker can be used to distinguish subjects from objects. Under normal circumstances, **ba** marks the direct object, [7] but there are apparently cases where **ba** marks the subject of an intransitive. For this reason, Frei (1956) proposed an ergative analysis of **ba**, thus **ba** is treated as an absolutive marker. In this paper, based on the criticism made by scholars, I demonstrate that I don't consider **ba** to be ergative phenomenon. One reason is that some of the cases in which **ba** marks intransitive subjects are proved to have unexpressed subjects, for these understood subjects can be inferred from the context. Second is that several cases which are said to be true examples turn out to be unacceptable in modern Chinese. Finally, Li and Yip argue that the established cases of ergative languages have ergative marked and absolutive unmarked. If the ergative is zero-marked in Chinese, and absolutive marked by **ba**, this would be the only such case known.

A question arises that how we can account for the **ba** marker, if it is not absolutive. I propose that **ba** should be treated only as an ***object marker***, instead of an ***absolutive marker***. However, only when the object is moved to preverbal position, can **ba** be added to mark the object. In Chinese, since the subject and object are placed on opposite sides of the verb, their grammatical functions are distinguished by their syntactic position. If the word order is changed to SOV with the object preverbally positioned, in this case, word order is no longer enough in distinguishing subjects from objects, so **ba** is needed to determinate the grammatical roles of the arguments. Under normal circumstances, **ba** should be obligatorily used. In fact, according to observation, the semantic features of ***animacy and definiteness or specificity*** of the object determine whether the objects are marked or not with case marker **ba**, that is, **ba** is optionally marked or obligatorily marked depending on the animacy and definiteness of objects. If animate or human objects are placed preverbally, they have to be obligatorily marked with **ba**, while **ba** is omitted if inanimate objects are in preverbal position; if preverbal objects are indefinite, **ba** is obligatory, while **ba** can be omitted if they are definite.

I can summarize that it is the syntactic position of direct object that determines whether **ba** as an object marker can be added. Once the direct object is in preverbal position, semantic features of animacy and definiteness determine whether **ba** is omitted or not. But last bot not the least, the dimension of definiteness becomes applicable only when the object is inanimate.

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Differences between Language and Linguistic in the ELT Classroom

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Abstract—This paper attempts to present differences between language and linguistic. Language and linguistic are two different words but there is relationship between them. 'Language' is a sign system of humankind in order to communicate one's thoughts, Feelings, and opinions to someone else but linguistic is scientific study of language. In fact the goal of linguistic is to describe languages and to explain the unaware knowledge all speakers have about their language. Therefore, linguistics is a subject of study that is built on languages. Noam Chomsky (1957) argues that "Language is a set (finite or infinite) of sentences, each finite in length, and constructed out of a finite set of elements" (p.13). According to Aronoff (2007) it is impossible to separate language from literature, or politics, or most of our everyday human interactions. "[Linguistics] has a twofold aim: to uncover general principles underlying human language, and to provide reliable descriptions of individual languages" (Aitchison, 1992). Also linguists, study individual human languages and linguistic behavior in order to discover the fundamental properties of this general human language.

Index Terms—language, linguistic, differences between language and linguistic

I. INTRODUCTION

The beginning of the research of the relationship between linguistic theory and language teaching can be traced back to the late of 19th century. Until 1960s, when their relationship was reassessed, emerged two viewpoints: one was to say that linguistics is not so important as it has been thought, i.e. its importance had been overrated. Some linguists like Johnson (1967) and Lamendella (1969) expressed their disagreement to regard linguistics as the basis of a strategy of learning. Lamendella (1969) thought that it was a mistake to look to transformational grammar or any other theory of linguistic description to provide the theoretical basis for second language pedagogy. Levenson (1979) once said, 'no one school of linguistic analysis has a monopoly of truth in the description of the phenomena of speech…traditional school grammar, TG grammar, …all these and more can be shown to have their own particular relevance to the language teaching situation.' As cited in Meng, 2009

I agree to the second point of view. In my opinion, linguistics and language teaching are interactional with each other. In this paper, all the language teaching, teaching theories or language pedagogy refer to L2 teaching.

I find it helpful to think of linguistic form as if it were located in a pane of glass through which ideas are transmitted from speaker to listener. Under ordinary circumstances language users are not conscious of the glass itself, but only of the ideas that pass through it. The form of language is transparent, and it takes a special act of will to focus on the glass and not the ideas. Linguists undergo a training that teaches them how to focus on the glass … the experience of becoming conscious of previously unconscious phenomena is one of the principal joys of linguistic work. (Chafe 1994, p.38)

Wallace Chafe's image of language as a pane of glass which linguists are trained to turn their attention on brings to mind another possible metaphor for thinking about the work of linguists.

Tom and Meriel Bloor (2004) provide an interesting parable when writing about terminology in linguistics; they ask us to imagine a dictator who prohibits all use of technical terms in garages, so those involved in motor vehicle maintenance would not be able to use terms such as 'reverse gear selector pivot pin' or even 'brake' for that matter.

Language and Linguistics are two different words that have to be used differently. A language is a mode of expression of thought by means of articulate sounds. But linguistics is a branch of study that deals with languages. It is a comparative study of languages. Hence it should be understood that linguistics Ural human languages are alike in their basic structural design; they are all instances of a single entity, human language (Aronoff, 2007).

Michael Halliday (2003) points out that "A language is a system of meaning- a semiotic system". Muharrem Ergin (1990) argues that "Language is a natural means to enable communication among people, a living entity that it has its own peculiar laws, by means of which alone can it develop, a system of contracts whose foundation was laid in times unknown, and a social institution interwoven with sounds".

Linguistic is a subject of study that is build on languages. Therefore it can be said that language is the fundamental unit of the branch of linguistics. In fact without languages the subject of linguistics cannot be there. Aron (2011) argues that linguistics studies the nature of languages, the various phonetic changes that take place in the languages, the changes in the meanings of particular words in the course of time and the like. A few laws have also been advocated by

linguists who work on the languages. On the other hand each language has special and inherent characteristics. Since the languages are individual and separate in nature the need for their comparative study arose.

II. LANGUAGE

Language is an important organism in every human being and it separate human from other creature because human has the ability of learning and creates many sentences and words. Therefore, Language is a major attribute that distinguish human from the rest of the animal kingdom.

According to **Merriam Webster Dictionary**, language is system of conventional spoken or written symbols used by people in a shared culture to communicate with each other. A language reflects and affects both a culture's way of thinking, and changes in a culture influence the development of its language.

According to Derwing (1973) language is embedded in acts of communication and cannot be properly described and understood out of communicative contexts. This means that relevant "Language is a purely human and non-instinctive method of communicating ideas, emotions and desires by means of voluntarily produced symbols" (Edward Sapir, Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1921).

"Language, like culture, that other most human attribute, is notable for its unity in diversity: there are many languages and many cultures, all different but all fundamentally the same, because there is one human nature and because a fundamental property of this human nature is the way in which it allows such diversity in both language and culture" (Aronoff, 2007).

Bloch and Trager (1942) argues that "A language is a system of arbitrary vocal symbols by means of which a social gorup co-operate" Noam Chomsky (1957, p.13) argues that "language is innate, that crucial parts of the human language ability are built into the brain and are programmed into our genes".

Language diversity is attested from earliest recorded history. Therefore, language exist in a human being from birth and all person have the ability in acquiring language both verbally and nonverbally but the symbols and sign of languages in every culture and society are different. For example, sun in English and خورشید in Persian have the same meaning but different form. So, in spite of the differences in sing and forms of languages, all languages have the same meaning.

A. Yule's 5 Characteristics of Human Language

Displacement
This is the ability to use language to talk about times, places and people other than the 'here and now'. It allows the user of language to talk about things and events not present in the immediate environments.

Arbitrariness
This means that there is generally no natural, inherent relationship between the signs (i.e. sounds or letters) we produce and their meaning. For this reason different languages can use different signs to refer to one and the same thing. e.g. a گل in Persian is a *flower* in English.

Productivity
This is an important characteristic of human language allowing us to continuously create new utterances, combining the 'building bricks' of language in ever new ways, whether these be sounds, words or sentences.

Cultural Transmission
This refers to process whereby language is passed on from one generation to the next is described as **cultural transmission.** This means, for example, that a child born in Iran to Iranian parents but then adopted by English parents in England will tend to grow up speaking English as his/her first language and not Iranian. (unless the English parents make sure the child is also exposed to Iranian).

Duality
Duality (or '**double articulation**') refers to two separate layers of language working together to provide us with a pool of sounds which we can combine to communicate with one another. On the one hand, there is a limited number of discrete sounds (e.g. the 44 phonemes in English) which in isolation have no inherent meaning e.g. *b*, *i*, or *n*. On the other hand there is unlimited number of distinct meanings which can create by combining these sounds in certain ways e.g. *bin*, or *nib*.

B. Other Properties of Human Language

Another feature of human language is **reflexiveness**, which means that human are able to use the language to talk about language – which is typically what linguists do. **Discreteness** is also something that is said to distinguish human languages from other forms of animal communication.

III. LINGUISTICS

According to Hudson (1999) "The history of linguistics, the study of language, is sometimes and reasonably dated from the first surviving descriptive grammar of a language of a European language, of Greek, written by Dionysius Thorax in about 100BC".

The founder of modern structural linguistics was Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913), whose most influential work, *Course in General Linguistics*, was edited by his students and published in 1916. The pioneer linguist Ferdinand de Saussure criticized scholars who studied the history of a part of a language, dissociated from the whole to which it belongs. He insisted that linguists should study the complete system of a language at some point in time, and then examine how the entire system changes over time (R. M. W. Dixon).

A starting point can be Chomsky's list of the three main questions that linguistics should try to answer (Chomsky, 1986):

1) *What constitutes knowledge of language?* The goal is to discover the reality of language in the mind: what does a human being know who knows English, say? The linguist aims at describing the language contents of the human mind in whatever terms are appropriate, describing the full computational system that relates the physical reality of the actual sounds of speech to the cognitive representation of their meaning. The study of language knowledge in this sense has led to a massive explosion of work in the past ten years.

2) *How is knowledge of language acquired?* A mind must be able to learn any possible human language, not just English or Finnish, say. The process of acquisition enables and constrains the knowledge that is acquired; the study of language knowledge cannot be separated from the study of acquisition. This goal has led on the one hand to syntactic descriptions that take in acquisition, on the other to accounts of first language acquisition that take in recent linguistic descriptions, for instance the work of Radford (1990) and Atkinson (1992).

3) *How is knowledge of language put to use?* This acquired knowledge is used for sociological and psychological ends, whether to communicate ideas to people, to propose marriage to someone, to keep one's diary, to try to save the blue whale, or to achieve the innumerable other functions that human language may have.

Ferdinand de Saussure, a Swiss linguist considered to be the father of modern linguistics who studied variation in language. According to him there are diachronic linguistics and synchronic linguistics. As cited in Yule, 2006 diachronically linguistics studies how language change over time. The synchronic linguistic study language change in terms of differences within one language in different places and among different groups at the same time same time. Saussure viewed language as a system of signs, which consist of two parts: signified and signifier. The signified is the concept which is referred to, and the signifier is the label used for that concept.

Therefore, Saussure believe that, linguistics is the study of the system of a language in order to articulate elements which distinguish one functional form from another. What is of interest to linguists, in Saussure's view, is the system of forms, or ***langue*** as Saussure termed it, rather than ***parole***, or the actual use of language by individual speakers. According to Saussure (1959) *Langue* refers to the "hoard deposited by the practice of speech in speakers who belong to the same community, a grammatical system which, to all intents and purposes, exists in the mind of each speaker". Also ***parole*** refers to what Chamsky called ***performance*** and ***langue*** refers to the concept of ***competence.*** Therefore, linguistic competence refers to what person knows and when he/she uses this knowledge in actual speech production, it is linguistic performance.

Chomsky later moved from the terms competence and performance to using the terms I-language and E-language (Chomsky 1986), I-language being the internal set of linguistic rules that children develop over their early years. E-language, or external language, is often incomplete and thought of as rather messy, especially in certain contexts such as informal conversation.

Linguistics is the science of language, including the sounds, words, and grammar rules. Words in languages are finite, but sentences are not. It is this creative aspect of human language that sets it apart from animal languages, which are essentially responses to stimuli. (Fromkin and Rodman).

"Linguistics will have to recognize laws operating universally in language, and in a strictly rational manner, separating general phenomena from those restricted to one branch of languages or another" (Saussure,1910-19).

There are many ways to study language scientifically. The most traditional, with its roots going back thousands of years to the Classical Greek and even Classical Sanskrit grammarians, is called Descriptive Linguistics. It is generally a descriptive discipline rather than a prescriptive one, which do not means that how to use a certain language, but rather concentrate on describing the rules which (especially native) speakers seem to have internalized. Apart from this, there are various different ways of 'doing' linguistics. For example, *Diachronic* linguistics looks at languages over a long period of time and generally compares different linguistic forms and uses across two different time periods, hence the name diachronic linguistics.

Synchronic is a term that comes from Greek meaning 'same time'. Modern linguistics, since the time of Saussure has devoted itself to a careful analysis of language situated or frozen within a particular time frame.

Linguistics is a science which can either be studied in a theoretical or a more applied way. For example, someone may be interested in finding out exactly how questions are formed in English (= theoretical). Once this is known the knowledge could be applied e.g. to language teaching, thereby (hopefully) enabling teachers and pupils to learn the language more effectively (Kortmann, 2005).

Within both descriptive and theoretical linguistics, historical linguistics refers to the study of how languages change over time. Sociolinguistics refers to interrelationship between sociology and linguistics. Psycholinguistics is the study of the psychological aspects of language. Lyons(1968) argues that "Linguistics is the scientific study of language by means of controlled and emprically verifiable observations with reference to some general theory of language structure".

In fact there are two types of linguistics: Linguistic competence and Linguistic performance. Linguistic competence is the system of linguistic knowledge possessed by native speakers of a language. It is in contrast to the concept of Linguistic performance, the way the language system is used in communication.

Chomsky (1965) argues that "Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech-community, who knows it's (the speech community's) language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of this language in actual performance".

Chomsky differentiates competence, which is an idealized capacity, from performance being the production of actual utterances. According to him, competence is the ideal speaker-hearer's knowledge of his or her language and it is the 'mental reality' which is responsible for all those aspects of language use which can be characterized as 'linguistic'.

The four branches of linguistics are phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics. Phonology deals with the study of sounds. Morphology deals with the the morphemes and combinations of morphemes as words. Syntax deals with the combinations of words as phrases and phrases as sentences. Finally semantics deals with the study of meaning of words, phrases and sentences. In fact, linguistic is the scientific or logical test of any aspect and property of language.

IV. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN LINGUISTIC AND LANGUAGE

Languages that have a common source are genetically related. These languages were once dialects of the same language. According to Fromkin and Rodman (1993) "Earlier forms of Germanic languages, such as German, English, and Swedish were dialects of Proto-Germanic, while earlier forms of Romance languages, such as Spanish, French, and Italian were dialects of Latin".

There are linguistic changes like sound shift in the history of all languages, for example, the regular sound correspondences that exist between different stages of the same language, different dialects, and different languages. Words, morphemes, and phonemes may be changed, added or lost.

Fromkin and Rodman argue (1993) that "The study of linguistic change is called historical and comparative linguistics. Linguists identify regular sound correspondences using the comparative method among the cognates (words that developed from the same ancestral language) of related languages. They can restructure an earlier protolanguage and this allows linguists to determine the history of a language family". Linguistics is the scientific study of human language while language is a body of knowledge about speaking, reading or writing, in other words language is a way of communication between group of people. Therefore, most often the linguist' goal is to discover the" laws of human language".

Language and Linguistics are two different words that used for different purpose. A language is a mental phenomenon and a way of expression of thought by means of articulate sounds. On the other hand linguistics is a branch of study that deals with languages. According to Meng (2009) early in the years of Second World War, linguistics was recognized as an important component in language teaching theory. During the Second World War, America was in great need of soldiers knowing foreign languages. To meet this demand, a group of linguists including Bloomfield (1942) undertook to use the knowledge of linguistics to analyze the language to be taught and the result proved to be satisfactory. Bloomfield suggested that the only effective teacher should be the trained linguist working alongside the students, because language teachers often have an insufficient command of the language, only the trained linguists know how to guide the students learning from native speakers and how to teach the forms of the language.

Crystal (1992) on the other hand views language as," an act of speaking or writing in a given situation." This spoken or written form of language is referred to as, "parole or performance whereas the linguistic system underlying one's use of speech or writing is referred to as competence" (p.212).

Hence it should be understood that linguistics is a subject of study that is build on languages. Therefore it can be said that language is the fundamental unit of the branch of linguistics. Without languages the subject of linguistics cannot be there. In other words languages pave the way for the growth of the field of linguistics.

Linguistics studies the nature of languages, the various phonetic changes that take place in the languages, the changes in the meanings of particular words in the course of time and the like. A few laws have also been advocated by linguists who work on the languages.

Widdowson (1978) stressed the need that linguistics must be used selectively in language teaching, stating that "linguistics requires mediation of an interpreter for its own potential usefulness to the language teachers to be realized".

V. CONCLUSION

The outcome of the paper shows that linguistics is a field of study that examines language in a principled way. There are various theoretical perspectives that object of study can be analyzed, as language is multi-faceted; there are different idea and perspective to language. Therefore language and linguistic are different words and have different usage.

Language is a system of conventional spoken or written symbols used by people to communicate with each other, reflects a culture's way of thinking, and changes from one culture to another culture. Linguistic refer to scientific study of language. Also there is different point of view about language.

Oller (1970) claimed that pragmatics has implications for language teaching; it defines the goal of teaching a language as prompting the students not merely to manipulate meaningless sound sequences, but to send and receive messages in the language. Many linguistics recognized the extent that languages are differ form each other, they also noted the extent that all languages have universal and common properties. These common properties called language universals.

Widdowson (1978) defined a set of contrasting concepts which distinguish language as a formal system and language use as communicative events. He advocated shifting the emphasis from teaching a second language as a formal system to teaching a second language as communication. Widdowson (1983) refers to the *continuum* between ELT and ESP teaching, we assert that there is a continuum between linguistics and language teaching (i.e. a continuum between language proficiency, language awareness and performance). This is the reason why we cannot isolate anything: grasping the linguistic phenomenon generally helps us to have a better command of the language, to be more aware of the language and to perform in the classroom more efficiently.

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On the Development of Translation Technology

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Abstract—**With the rapid development of translation technology, the machine translation system and translation memory system have gradually become popular tools among professional translators. This article made a brief introduction of the machine translation system and the translation memory system, explaining some key terms, sorting the recent development and recent studies in this area, so as to provide some ideas and suggestions for further study.**

Index Terms—**translation technology, machine translation, translation memory system**

I. INTRODUCTION OF TRANSLATION TECHNOLOGY

The development of the translation technology has a close relationship with the significantly increasing demand for translation service in recent years. Nowadays, globalization and localization have become a trend throughout the world, leading to a rapid growth of international demand for translation. According to a survey conducted by the Canadian Translation Industry Sectoral Committee in 1999, the European translation industry was expected to grow by 7% annually over the next five years, and the Canadian industry by 5-10% over the next three years. And according to the estimation of LISA (The Localization Industry Standards Association), in 2001, the global annual expense in localization was expected to be five billion US dollars, and the real expense could be as high as 15 billion US dollars. In 2006, this number could be up to 30 billion US dollars.

In spite of this growing demand of translation service, the supply of qualified translators is on a relatively low increase. In Canada, universities produce only about 400 new translators each year, less than a third of the requirement of the market. And in EU, the lack of translators has become a big problem with the rapid addition of new members and new languages in recent years. In such a condition, the problem of supply and demand becomes increasingly serious in the translation market.

What's more, in such a world of information explosion, the time pressure on translators is just as much as the pressure of the volume and the quality. For example, in the translation of web pages, the translated versions are sometimes required to be updated just as quickly as the original ones. This makes the contradiction in the translation market even worse.

All these conditions and problems bring great challenges to the traditional translation practice mode, and people have to turn to the evolution of translation technology for the solution. During the development of the translation technology, the most familiar concept to the public is perhaps the Machine Translation.

A. Machine Translation System

Machine Translation (MT) is defined by Hutchins and Somers as "computerized systems responsible for the production of translation from one natural language to another, with or without human assistance" (Hutchins & Somers, 1992). The development of MT is marked with a lot of ups and downs. The first idea of MT can be dated back to 1903 when Couturat and Leau put forward the term "ein mechanisches Uebersetzen", which is German name of "machine translation". Before 1960, the development of the MT was quite optimistic and researchers believed that the MT could produce "fully automatic high-quality translation (FAHQT)". However, in 1966, a report of the ALPAC (Automatic Language Processing Advisory Committee) declared that the concept of FAHQT was unrealistic. Although the report was widely considered short-sighted later, it had a great negative influence on the MT researches at that time. After that, some researchers persist in the development of the MT system with a more realistic goal, while others turn to looking for some alternative ways to solve the problem caused by the contradiction between the demand and supply of the translation service.

B. Translation Memory System

One of the most attractive alternatives widely used in recent years is the Translation Memory System (TMS). The TMS is a computer-aided translation tool "designed to increase translation productivity by automating the linguistic transfer from source to target text" (Austermuhl, 2001). It is able to assist human translators by reusing their past translations. There are many differences between the MT and the TMS.

According to Liang Sanyun (2004), differences between the MT and the TMS can be explained in at least three parts. The fist and most important one is that they are designed for different purposes. The MT is developed to replace the human translation with the operation of machine, aiming at providing language assistance to the users who are not good at a certain kind of foreign language, while the TMS is a tool devised for professional translators, aiming at improving their working efficiency and the quality of the translated texts. The second difference lies in their scope of applications. It has been generally acknowledged that the MT should only be used for texts from some restricted domains, especially for non-literary texts. In contrast, the application of the TMS does not have such a limitation since it only provides assistance to translators, and translators still play a leading role in the translation procedure. The last but not least, they have different translation engines. As a fully automatic translation device, the MT has a high requirement for both the grammar bank and the knowledge bank of the translation engine. Compared with the TM, however, the TMS is only semi-automatic as it only focuses on the automatic matching between the new segment and the stored segment. Therefore, the storage of large quantity of translated materials is more important than the grammar capability to the translation engine of the TMS.

From the above comparison, it can be seen clearly that the most significant difference between the MT and the TMS is that the former is machine-centered while the latter is human-centered. The strength of the TMS lies in that it provides better cooperation with the human translators and integrates the strengths of computers with that of human beings. By recycling the existing translations, it is able to reduce the cost and time of translation as well as improve the quality and consistency of the translated text. As a result, the TMS gets a better practical usage than the MT and is currently among the most popular CAT tools in use among professional translators.

However, the popularity of the TMS does not necessarily mean that no problem exists in the application of the TMS. Although "the TMS does not conduct real translation" and is just a bank of pre-translated materials, it is possible that the translator and the translated text are negatively influenced by the operation of the TMS. One possible problem is that the translator relies too much on the TMS and believes whatever is suggested by the TMS, even if the translation suggestion is wrong itself or inaccurate in some aspects. As a result, the wrong or inaccurate translation may repeat and even recycle in the translated text. At the same time, the creativity of the translator may also be impaired.

Researches on the limitation of corpus-based translation studies may provide some theoretical explanations to the possibility of this problem.

Liu Kanglong (2006) cites the opinion of Mona Baker in his article, saying that researchers tend to be attracted by the large amount of translation information and data from a large-scale corpus by simply clicking the mouse. Therefore, they may focus more on the Translation Norm but neglect the creativity of translators, and even regard a creative expression as a mistake. Liu Jingguo (2006) also mentions the weakness of corpus-based studies. He points out that corpus-based studies have a clear tendency of scientism, focusing too much on the objectivity and tending to constrain the creativity of persons. Therefore, it may lead translation studies into a lifeless condition and even to a stop.

The above ideas of Liu Kanglong and Liu Jingguo are helpful in understanding the potential problem between the translator and the TMS. From the above introduction, it can be seen clearly that the TMS is in its nature an aligned corpus. Therefore, in using the TMS, the translator may also have a tendency to be attracted by the information stored in it and neglect his/her own creativity and even judgment. That is to say, they may tend to trust and rely on all the translation suggestions provided by the TMS without or with little further thinking. If some mistakes exist in the TM database, it is also possible that they may fail to find them out and just adopt them in the translated text as usual. If such a problem does exist, there may be a danger that these mistakes get repeated and recycled in the TM and the translated text, and hence causing damages on a larger scale.

In view of the above assumptions, the author of this thesis attempts to make use of a self-designed experiment and a questionnaire to prove their existence, aiming at finding out whether the mistakes in the TMS will lead to the repetition of the mistakes in the translated text, and what the attitudes of the translators are during this process. The result of this research may have some significance either to the translation education, the translation service, or to the development of the TMS. As for the translation education, the result may help improve the self-awareness of student translators in the translation procedure with the TMS, so as to help them avoid complete trust in the information stored in the TM and to maintain independence in the analysis and judgment. As for the translation service, the result of this research may help stress the importance of the management of the TM database, either to the translation companies or to the client of the translation service. And for the development of the TMS, the result of this research may provide some new perspective of improvement especially in the aspect of the TM management.

II. DEVELOPMENT OF TRANSLATION TECHNOLOGY

A. Key Terms

Just as introduced in above section, the TMS is a type of CAT tool that is able to store the previously translated text and the corresponding source text in a database, and allows the translators to reuse them or part of them in a new translation task. A typical TMS consists of two parts: a Translation Memory (TM) and a search engine. The TM is in its nature a database that store translated texts together with the corresponding original texts. The user can make use of the previously translated text and the source text to set up one or more TM database(s). Then, in a new translation task, the system can use the search engine to automatically search in the existing TM database for the same or similar translation

material (such as a sentence, a paragraph, etc.) and provide a translation suggestion to the translator. As a result, the translator does not have to do any repetitive work and can focus his/her energy and time on the translation of the new materials. At the same time, the TM database is going on storing newly translated materials and expanding the volume of the database. As for the translation suggestion, the translator can choose to follow it, edit it or discard it.

Some basic concepts in the technology of the TMS are briefly explained as follows.

Segmentation

When texts are added into a TM database, they have to be first divided into some small chunks that are called segments. A segment is the smallest unit that can be processed by the TMS, and is also the base of the alignment. Generally speaking, a segment is a sentence or a sentence-like structure and is usually ended with a punctuation mark (such as a period or a question mark). However, according to Bowker (2002a), it is also possible for the user to specify what should or should not represent the end of a segment.

Alignment

The alignment is the second step in storing and organizing the texts. Aligning texts means matching the source text segment with the corresponding target text segment, and storing them in the database as an integrated unit for future processing. The correct alignment is the key to the successful reuse of the stored information.

Retrieval

Once the aligned texts have been stored in the TM database, they can be reused by the translator in a new translation task via the automatic search and retrieval of the system. When a new text is opened in the translation editor of a TMS, the system first divides it into segments as was introduced before. Then the system takes the first segment and compares it with those segments that have been stored in the TM database. The comparison is carried out on the basis of some preset rules. The establishment of these rules is also an important topic of researches and studies on the TMS. Once a match is found out in the comparison, the system retrieves the relevant information (a unit of the aligned texts) and presents it as a translation suggestion to the translator.

There are a number of types of matches that a TMS can retrieve, so as to find not only *identical* translation units but also *similar* ones.

Perfect or Exact Match

A perfect or exact match means that the new segment in the source text is exactly the same as a segment that is already stored in the TM database (100 percent match). According to Austermuhl (2001), there is another type of match that is similar to the exact match called a *full match*, which means the new segment is identical to a stored segment in all the other aspects except for some variable elements such as dates, numbers, time or measurements. In most TM tools such as the Trados, these elements can be automatically treated by the system by replacing the old dates, numbers, time or measurements with new ones.

Fuzzy Match

Fuzzy match is an important and powerful function of the TMS, meaning that the new segment is not identical to but similar to a stored segment. It is more often encountered by translators in the real practice than the exact match. Translators can edit the fuzzy match so as to produce a valid translation for the new source segment. In most TM tools, different parts between the new segment and the stored segment are highlighted with a different color to indicate which elements in current translation need to be changed or adjusted to meet the source text.

Another important thing in using fuzzy match is the degree of fuzziness, or on the other hand, the degree of similarity, which respectively means to what degree a stored segment found by the searching engine is different from or similar to the new source segment that needs to be translated. In most TM tools, there is a user-defined minimum match value which can be adjusted by the translator before translation according to the desired degree of fuzziness or similarity. Generally speaking, the higher the match value is, the stricter the retrieval will be, and vice versa. However, according to Bowker (2002b), the translator must be very cautious in selecting the degree of fuzziness so as to avoid the problem of silence and noise. That is to say, if the match value is set too high (e.g., 95%), the system may not retrieve matches that could be potentially helpful to a translator. In information retrieval, this type of problem is known as "silence." In contrast, if the match value is set too low (e.g., 10%), then too many segments, or segments that are not useful, could appear leading to a problem known as "noise," which may actually hinder the efficiency of the translation process.

B.   Recent Development

With the developing popularity of the TMS among translators, it also becomes the subject of a growing number of researches in recent years. However, compared with researches and discussions on the technological problems in the TMS, such as the segmentation, the alignment and retrieval of information, not many studies have been carried out on the application of the TMS. Generally speaking, present studies on the application of the TMS are mainly around three topics, namely, the speed of the translation, the quality of the translated text and the attitude of the translators. Since the problem of speed is not the major concern of this article, this section only focuses on the introduction of the previous researches related to the quality of the translated text and the attitude of the translators.

a. Quality of the Translated text

It is widely accepted that the application of the TMS can greatly improve the quality of the translated text, especially the consistency of terminologies and phrases in a large project. According to O'Brien (1998), if the translation memory

is on a network, several translators working on a single project can achieve greater consistency through instant access to each other's work.

Bowker carries out some experimental studies on the quality of translation with the TMS. She (Bowker, 2003) examines the advantages and disadvantages of using a single TM database in both language directions, showing that when searching from L1 to L2, translators are likely to retrieve a greater number of matches, but these are of a lower quality, while translators searching from L2 to L1 are likely to find fewer matches, but the ones they do find are of a higher quality. She also conducts another study focusing on both the productivity and the quality (Bowker, 2005). The result shows that it is often difficult for translators to achieve a balance between the productivity and the quality because one often comes at the expense of the other when using a TMS.

Moreover, some researchers focus especially on the negative impact of the TMS on the quality of the translated text. Mogensen (2000) points out that the application of the TMS may make the resulting text less readable because of the relative absence of cohesive devices between sentences. She also explains that using the TMS may lead to an oversimplified translation because the sentences are often short. What's more, she indicated that instead of translation tools being modified to accommodate language, language is being modified to accommodate translation tools. This may result in a target text whose syntax closely models that of the source text and is therefore less readable in the target language.

Another important threat in the application of the TMS is the possibility of mistranslation. According to Austermuhl (2001), the recycling of past translations may not only help increase the consistency and improve the quality, but also lead to the repetition and reproduction of mistakes. Therefore, the maintenance of the TM database is of great importance. If this is neglected, the errors may be propagated quickly throughout a document.

However, Austermuhl does not carry out an empirical study to prove this assumption. Therefore, this thesis attempts to test this assumption through a self-designed experiment and to find out more about the problem.

b. Attitudes of the Translators

The development of the TMS technology not only brings improvement to the translation itself, but also brings some changes in the way translators see their work. Although the changes of translators' attitudes do not attract much attention as compared with other aspects in the application of the TMS technology, several scholars still make some observations in this area.

O'Brien (1998) declares that in comparison with the idea of the MT, translators are more satisfied with the TMS because they feel they are still in control of the whole process. Merkel (1998) also carries out a study to examine the attitude of a group of technical translators toward terminological consistency and variation when working with the TMS. The result shows that translators can become frustrated by the way that consistency is sometimes inappropriately imposed on the texts by these systems. That is to say translators may not be very satisfied with the way that the previously translated texts are reused, since the system may sometimes make improper application.

However, no present researches on the attitudes of translators have mentioned the problem of the trust and reliance of translators on the TMS, even though such a phenomenon is possible to exist as discussed above. Nevertheless, researchers focusing on the assistance of the Internet to the translation practice have investigated a similar problem.

Ni Chuanbin (2003) points out that translators must be very careful in using the Internet search engine to assist their translation. He says that some information provided by the Internet search engine is far from the standard or authentic English due to the variety of sources of the information. Therefore, translators must be very careful, and should think about and analyze the authenticity and correctness of the information before adopting it in their translation.

Ni's opinion is enlightening for understanding the attitudes of translators on the TM database. It is true that a TM database is different from a search engine in many ways, but they are similar in their working mechanism of information storage and extraction. As for the trustworthiness, the TM database may perform better than the Internet search engine, but is still far from being 100% correct. In this case, translators may also need to be very careful in using the stored translation in the TM database instead of completely trusting and relying on the TMS.

On the basis of these observations, it is necessary for us to make a further investigation on the attitudes of translators to the application of the TMS, especially to the translation suggestions provided by the TMS, so as to find out whether the trust and reliance of translators to the TMS may influence the repetition of mistranslations in the translated text.

III. CONCLUSION

From the above discussion, it can be seen clearly that it is quite important to carry out an empirical study on the influence of the quality of the TM to the quality of the translated text, especially on the existence of the repetition of mistranslations and other types of mistakes. Meanwhile, it is also helpful to make a survey on translators' attitudes towards the application of the TMS, trying to find out how translators' attitudes may affect the quality of the translated text.

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How to Cultivate Intercultural Communication Competence of Non-English Major Students

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Abstract—**In fact students have already received almost totally grammatical rules during their several years study, but they often lack of the ability to actually use English and to understand the use in normal intercultural communication. Misunderstandings caused by cultural differences have involved them frequently in intercultural miscommunication. The purpose of this paper is to present the concept of intercultural communication competence, focus its importance on foreign language teaching, and indicate how to cultivate students' intercultural communication competence. The writer emphasis the relationship between culture and language, communication and culture, she briefly introduces the situation in foreign language teaching in the past and today. In this paper, the author try to illustrate how to cultivate students who are not English major to understand the cultural meanings of language, and try to help them use English properly, especially in special context.**

Index Terms— **foreign language teaching, teaching in context, intercultural communication training**

I. INTRODUCTION

In modern society, because of globalization, communications between nations is widely active. On another hand, economic area has shifted from developed country to developing country. Therefore, the communication between people who are from different cultural background is more and more prevalent. During the connection, people who have intercultural communication competence are easy to achieve their goal in their notational, particularly in business world. From this point of view, as a college teacher, we have to think about how to make our students have ability to receive the challenge after their graduation, how to make them communicate properly with foreigners, and how to train or cultivate their competence of interculture communication.

Globalization is an unavoidable process of development of society, it is also an important trait of modernization, and it is a major trend of the world. To be specific, globalization is a connection which makes economy as the core, including politic, culture, technology, military, security, style of life, value and so on. In fact, globalization is a concept of diversification.

Economic globalization has brought the profound influence on the world economy and great changes. Economic development and international economic situation of a country or a region is becoming more and more closely. Intercultural communication is increasingly frequent used In the field of economic and technological cooperation with countries around the world. At the same time, due to the cultural differences between various misunderstandings and conflicts also followed. in such a new situation, face the great challenge of globalization and strong effect, we not only need more skillful English users but also need people who can accurately grasp the cultural differences between China and foreign countries in foreign exchange, they must has a good ability to intercultural communication, in order to more properly conducting external exchanges, adapt to the growing international economic exchanges and the needs of the growing national strength competition.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

i. Connections between language and culture

At the very beginner, we should clarify what language is, what function it has, and what relationship between language and culture is. First, Language is a tool for communication, people use it to inform, chat, request, express, persuade exchange and to try to make their expressions be understood by others. Language plays a crucial role in the process of human historical development.

Language is a part of the culture. it is a special kind of social phenomenon human created by human being, is the most important tool of human communication, language as tool of human minds are not isolated, but with many physical phenomenon. it can provide service for human beings, human cannot leave it all the time; Although it's not a pure spiritual phenomenon, it also can well reflect the spirit of the characteristics of the human material world through language, the state of human spirit can be carefully to interpret and so language is, of course, become a part of the culture.

As a kind of social phenomenon, language is not only as a tool for human communication, at the same time; language also has the function of recording culture. People record the understanding of the human life and natural phenomena by using language.

Language and culture are closely related with each other. As everyone knows, language has been playing an important role in the process of human historical development. We as human beings are unique in the world due to we have language, we can communicate each other freely---to make sounds and marks serve as substitutes for things and feelings.

In the past, people usually regarded language as simply marks, which has no influence in human development. It was just a tool by which ideas were indicated, rather than an effective method of expression of culture. This view had been canceled by later linguists. The new point is that language and culture are closely linked with each other. Language is the reflection of culture and culture is a reflection of language.

Culture influences language by our perceptions of the universe, and the world we live in. Every time we choose words, make sentences, and express our feelings, in oral or written, we also make cultural choices. If we select language without being aware of the cultural implications, we may not communicate well if we choose words randomly without considering its cultural meaning. Language, therefore, is perceived as window to the culture. In a word, it is impossible to separate language and culture apart.

However, In our traditional class, the aim of teaching is not a high quality education, whose norm is greatly affected by structuralism taught in a pure and abstract form, focused on grammatical rules or semantic meanings of certain words or phrases. Teachers seldom tell their students cultural meaning of certain expressions and background knowledge. This kind of teaching leads to some difficulties in understanding cultural knowledge and produce serious consequence learners incompetence in intercultural communication in the use of this language. So, nowadays, more and more teachers pour almost all their energy and time to the study of intercultural communication, and try to reform the teaching strategies so as to develop effective intercultural communication competence for learners. In this paper, the author tries to emphasize the importance of intercultural competence and aims at analyze how to cultivate the intercultural competence of Chinese English learners.

The link between culture and communication is so important that it goes through the influence of culture that people learn to communicate. Once people from different culture meet face in face, cultural difference must be considered. Their communication practice differs from that of people in the same culture. Hence, in language learning, culture competence is as crucial as linguistic competence. As foreign language teachers, we have responsibility to make our students know exactly how to use language appropriately.

ii. Definitions of culture

To define intercultural communication competence, we must first define culture.

A working definition of culture is; the sum total of ways of living built up by a group of human beings, which is transmitted from one generation to another. (The modern Chinese dictionary, 1998)

Culture is the arts and other manifestations of human intellectual achievement regarded collectively, the customs, civilizations and achievement of a particular time or people, improvement by mental or physical training. (The concise oxford dictionary, 2001)

This means personality, how people express themselves (including shows of emotion), the way they think, how they move, how problems are solved, how their cities are planned and laid out, how transportation systems function and are organized, as well as how economic and government systems are put together and function." (Edward T. Hall, 40)

iii. Definitions of Intercultural Communication Competence

Intercultural communication is a kind of communicative behavior, communication type, can be the interpersonal communication, can also is a person with the public (community) communication. Brian Spitzberg (1973) thought that communication ability of the individual embodies in the individual appropriate effective communicative behavior in specific situations in the context of intercultural communication; both parties have in common, differences, more communication, cultural differences affect the effective communication of variables such as language differences worldview values. Kramsch (1993) for a more specific definition of intercultural communication skills: ability to cross-cultural communication is individual has the intrinsic ability, able to handle the key problems in cross-cultural communication, such as cultural differences strangeness, this cultural attitude within groups, and the resulting psychological pressure, etc. Since Hymes (1971) put forward the concept of communicative competence, the scholars at home and abroad has not end their study for communication skills, especially on the discussion of intercultural communicative competence. Although scholars has different definition and classification in view of the communicative competence or ability to intercultural communication mode, but communicative competence should at least include grammatical correctness of speech act and social appropriateness of verbal behavior. Some foreign scholars believe that intercultural communicative competence includes cognitive emotional behavior aspects of adaptability; the ability of the communicator can according to the actual situation in the intercultural communication, to learn and adapt to the different cultural habits, and can deal with the cultural differences between the two communicating parties creatively. people who has the ability of intercultural communication, not only to master the two or more cultural knowledge, more important is to experience the process of cultural harmony, thus thoroughly at home in the process of communication, communication smoothly achieve the desired goal. in this sense, to improve students' intercultural communication ability as the goal of college English teaching, can better meet society's need for high-quality talents.

III.   RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

i. Factors that cause intercultural communication obstacles
Different mode of thinking and value ideas

Because of cultural differences it is frequently caused communication barriers In intercultural communication. He culture will influence people to the outside world views and understanding, different countries have different culture, so there must be differences in thought patterns. This is obvious between Chinese and western culture. The thinking mode of westerners is more logical, rational analytic, and the thinking mode of Chinese is rely more on intuition, it seems like more general and ambiguity.

Cultural differences also present in the differences of values. Every culture has its unique value system. Values attitude determines people's beliefs and actions from different cultural backgrounds, if each starting from their own values, cultural differences, for which affect intercultural communication.

In the process of socialization, People learned the value system of their own culture unconsciously. The value they acquired becomes their philosophy moral standard and code of conduct. However, every culture has a unique value system, criterion. in one culture it is considered to be normal, in another culture may be considered to be of eccentric. characteristics of western culture is a value above; And the characteristics of the Oriental culture is emphasis collective values. in Chinese culture, people praise highly humble comity, promoting mutual support and on collective responsibility, the pursuit of settling; In individual orientation of the western culture, it could be described as a lack of enterprising spirit, people advocate personal struggle for independence pursuit ego. They praise great importance to personal freedom development, request personal space and power to protect personal privacy.

2. Emotional factors

The emotional factors in cross-cultural communication refer to the communicator with communicative objects from different cultures and intercultural communication behavior attitude. One important feature is the anxiety to the intercultural communication activities.

People who have High degree of intercultural communication anxiety tend to avoid communication with people from the foreign culture, whether one is willing to communicate is an important emotional factor in intercultural communication. The more knowledge of Intercultural communication one has the smaller psychological pressure one may has, the stronger the motivation for intercultural communication. The more opportunity to gain experience in intercultural communication, one may has.

IV. DISCUSSION

i.The importance of cultivating intercultural communication competence
1. Cultivation of intercultural awareness

Whether one has intercultural awareness or not directly affect the quality of communication, it also can measure whether he is a successful communicator and whether he achieves intercultural communication purpose. If we want to make our students be successful communicators, we must start from the cultivation of intercultural awareness in particular, in college English teaching is to develop two kinds of culture consciousness: one is the consciousness of cultural equality, the other is the consciousness of cultural understanding.

Firstly, the consciousness of cultural equality communication is based on respect for different cultural tolerance and understanding of native cultural identity. As teachers, we should teach students to treat every vision culture, gently and objectively, derive the essence, discard the dregs. On the other hand, we should strengthen the education of traditional culture of the Chinese nation. Secondly, developing students' consciousness of cultural understanding refers to jump out of one's own cultural values, to view and evaluate each other on each other's cultural values, learn tolerate respect and understand others with their own different, only in this way, we can achieve the intercultural communication smoothly.

2. Teaching in intercultural dimension

The main purpose of intercultural ability training is to train students to become able to adapt to the complexity of the different culture and also make them become multiple identities in modern society. Intercultural communication should be based on respect for individual and the equality of human rights. Intercultural ability is to ensure that one can be understood by people from different social status. People who have intercultural ability in communicate can make oneself maintaining multiple identity and individuality while he communicates with others.

The best language teacher is neither the native speaker, nor is the non-native speaker, but for one who can help students to see the relationship between different culture and himself. he can make them interested in other cultures and make them full of curiosity, meanwhile, he also help the students know exactly what their own culture like in foreigners eyes.

In language teaching, teachers should cultivate the students' ability of language, at the same time also cultivate intercultural ability; make them have the ability to communicate with people from other cultures; make the students understand and accept different cultural, let them know the different views of value and behaviors; To help students clear that it is a process of experience gaining of communication with people from other countries. The teacher does not need to have experience of living in other different cultures or be expert in certain field. The teacher's task is to help students to ask questions and try to give them answers.

To visit and practice class of the target language communication is not just a chance; it also is a kind of overall learning experience. If teachers can create this kind of communication mode, Students will obtain knowledge and

experience from visiting. This knowledge can hardly receive from communication in the classroom. During lecture, teachers should make students aware the implicit values and significance of the learned material, thus, using real material is very important.

3. Strengthen the practice ability of intercultural communication

Whether a person really has the ability of intercultural communication, not just see if he grasps the cultural knowledge and communication skills, more important is to see whether he can flexibly deal with the actual problems in intercultural communication. So it is not enough only attaches importance to students how to study cross-cultural communication in the classroom. In the process of the cultivation of intercultural communicative competence, teachers must be arranged in a planned way and encourage students to actively participate in the practice of intercultural communication. Students should be encouraged to associate with people from different cultural backgrounds, to deepen the understanding of cultural differences, cultivate the flexibility of dealing with cultural differences, enhance the sensitivity of culture, learning and using of intercultural communication skills, let them improve their intercultural communication ability in directly.

ii. Methods of intercultural communication competence training

1. Changing of teaching concept

In our country, foreign language teaching is mostly only in the classroom, teachers play an absolute role. only if teachers focus on grammar and vocabulary teaching, the students could not grasp the language ability of practical application, and also do not have access to intercultural communication ability, therefore, the teacher must change their concepts, to realize the actual existence of cultural conflict and the importance of cultivating students' intercultural communication consciousness and ability. at the same time, English teachers should improve their comprehensive cultural quality; comprehensive grasp of English; and the concrete methods;   steps of teaching. Only in this way, teachers can achieve the expected teaching purpose. In another aspects, teachers may strengthen the contrast and comparison of Chinese and western cultural differences, the Chinese and western cultural differences in various aspects of consciousness naturally penetrate into teaching progress.

2. Changing of teaching method

Of college English teaching emphasis on language knowledge teaching, and neglected the cultivation of the intercultural communication consciousness and ability. in order to change this situation, we must improve the method of teaching, teachers should control teaching process in quality and quantity two aspects and make full use of modern teaching means to mobilize students' learning enthusiasm. In improving teaching methods, be sure to make the new contents closely linked to the knowledge of materials, and closely integrated with language communication practice. Make full use of the diversity of classroom teaching and flexibility to cultivate students' intercultural consciousness and ability, strengthen the introduction of cultural background knowledge, lets the student understand the multiple perspectives to its culture in learning a language. Teachers also should Guide students to read more, to contact with western culture, and to help students learning to use, through the combination of theory and application, to deepen the understanding of culture, thus improve the intercultural communicative competence.

iii. Introduction of background knowledge of different culture in class

Teachers can introduce some background knowledge of other countries which is concerned in teaching material. Differences between Chinese and western civilization is widely used in verbal communication, but Chinese students lack of natural language acquisition environment, therefore, Teachers should make great efforts to activate the teaching material content, promptly tell students to figure out the difference between different cultures.

iv. Cultivation of non-verbal communication ability

Nonverbal communication is also an important way of communication. It refers to the process of information communication by using nonverbal behaviors in a specific context of situation. They are not real language units, but sometimes they can express more strongly than words in life and communication. the meaning of some certain non-verbal behavior often represents a certain meaning, must be pay attention to in intercultural communication. under certain background, the difference of nonverbal communication between Chinese and western culture is very wide, for example, the Chinese believe in *silence is golden*, think silence contains rich information, and English speaking countries people have very uncomfortable feelings when Chinese keep silence in conversation; Westerners conversation, the listener is generally long time looking at each other's eyes, to show the listener's serious and respect for the speaker, but in the Chinese point of view, this is a kind of rude behavior, because the Chinese are not used to stare at each other for a long time.

v. Using physical objects and pictures

Because the students generally have no personal feelings towards social cultural knowledge in foreign countries, if teachers only rely on reading written material or explain abstract concept is difficult to achieve the teaching purpose, therefore, to make students feel the foreign culture, to understand its real meaning, in the teaching should be as vivid teaching method, in which physical pictures and photographs is relatively easy to be understood. For example, when teachers in the interpretation of the sign language, available pictures vividly expressed *OK Good luck, welcome* such western gestures, this is much more clear than only illustrate by words, and in the process to produce novelty and affection, and help to cultivate students curious of foreign culture, and also provides a prerequisite for learning skills.

vi. Role playing

Role playing is a English teaching activity. in this activity, students play with characters, and the things that happen in a certain situation in foreign language and certain actions. It greatly promotes the development of communicative competence, such as listening to the application, ability of language, sense, observation, flexibility, imagination and improvisation.

Teachers can also suggest advanced level students to see some British and Americana movies. Not only because most of the content of the film itself is a microcosm of the one side of a culture, but also is the view in the actor's performance can make the students understand and learn many methods and means of nonverbal communication. It is very important for our students to communicate with native speakers from foreign language learning point of view. So teachers should encourage students to chat with them, so that students can often learn many vivid expressions that they may not learn in classroom.

V. CONCLUSION

From the aspects of theory, the significance of the cultivation of intercultural communicative competence is obvious. It provides some useful ideas for English teaching. Apparently, it is important to note that although culture of human thinking mode and behavior patterns of the dominant factor, but race, personality, ethnicity, age, gender, economic status, religious and other aspects will affect its understanding. Culture is dynamic, the world has a tendency to from collision to the compatibility, and the frequent communication between different cultures is unavoidable. so that the content of the intercultural communicative competence should also be dynamic, it helps put forward the intercultural communication competence training effectively.

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A Comparative Genre Analysis of English Business E-mails Written by Iranians and Native English Speakers

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Abstract—The present study aimed at conducting a comparative genre analysis of English business e-mails at generic and lexico-grammatical levels. To this end, a corpus of 60 English business e-mails written by Iranians was compared with a counterpart corpus comprising the same number of emails written by the native English speakers. All of these e-mails served the same communicative purpose (i.e. providing and/or requesting information and actions). They were investigated following Swales (1990), Bhatia (1993) and Santos's (2002) notion of genre analysis. The results revealed that Iranian and native English business correspondents followed closely similar generic structures to exchange information. Moreover, Iranian correspondents favored the lexico-grammatical expressions that helped them respect their interlocutors' negative face whereas the native English speakers tried to encourage a friendly and intimate atmosphere. Investigating structures and characteristics of English language realized in business settings and for commercial purposes, this study offered a number of implications for business English teaching staff, material developers, and last but not least, business negotiators.

Index Terms—genre analysis, business e-mails, lexico-grammatical analysis, politeness

I. INTRODUCTION

As a type of Computer-mediated Communication (CMC), email is gradually replacing more traditional spoken and written modes, and becoming the dominant medium of communication all over the world. Owing to this growing inclination towards the use of emails, it became increasingly important to uncover the nature of this relatively new medium and the way it fulfills various communicative purposes in different discourse communities. To meet this end, researchers embarked upon the *genre analysis* of email in different contexts.

Genre analysis was first introduced by Swales (1990); as he asserted, the shared communicative purpose is the principal criterion that characterizes a class of communicative events as a genre. Each genre, according to Swales (1990) is composed of certain units called 'move'- "a discoursal and rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse (Swales, 2004, p. 228)." Bhatia (1993), another pioneer in the realm of genre, believes that genre studies are beneficial to ESP students and teachers as they provide a pre-knowledge of formal and content schemata which would facilitate the learning of both generic conventions and the linguistic resources that help the realization of these conventions.

Drawing on Swales (1990) and Bhatia's (1993) notion of genre, several genre studies were conducted to identify the generic features of correspondences (i.e. letters and emails) (Abbasian and Tahririan, 2008; Al-Ali and Sahawneh, 2008; Barron, 2006; Cheung, 2006, 2007, 2008, 2009; Flowerdew & Wan, 2006; Ho, 2009; Jalilifar & Beitsayyah, 2011; Santos, 2002; Upton, 2002; Vergaro, 2002, 2004; to cite a few). However, most of these studies have dealt with the analysis of *letters* and only few have studied the structure of *emails*.

Santos (2002), for example, conducted a genre analysis of business letters; he examined a specific corpus of commercial letters called 'Business Letters of Negotiation' (LNs) in which all the letters served the purpose of providing and/or requesting information (and/or favors), or in other words, *negotiating* information. Finally, he extracted a four-move model and the common linguistic choices that were employed in order to realize each identified move. Santos (2002) believed that a large group of people can benefit from his study and get familiar with the linguistic features of such correspondences, since it has investigated a rather general communicative purpose.

Cheung (2009) conducted another genre study to compare the discourse structures of Chinese and English direct-marketing sales e-mails and found that the two corpora share similar moves and steps. The results of this study revealed that the writers of sales mails determine the encoding of their messages according to their rhetorical goals, the viewer–maker relationships they wish to establish through the texts, and the social and cultural context within which these texts unfold. In this process the sales genre is likely to adapt in terms of its discourse strategy and textual features.

Barron (2006) presented a genre analysis of unsolicited promotional e-mails, i.e. 'spam'. The macro-textual analysis of 121 medical spam mails reveals that the unsolicited promotional e-mails undoubtedly belong to the promotional genre introduced by Bhatia (1993). The resulting move-scheme was found to be the product of a clearly persuasive communicative purpose and the specific rhetorical context in which spam mail functions.

Elucidating business genres, the above mentioned studies are worthy enough in today's commercial world as they offer practical implications to the business negotiators and the business teaching staff. However, as Santos (2002) contends, they are not sufficient because each study, in its own turn, presents only one aspect of the broad business world and analyzes one specific genre from a specific discourse community and therefore, much is still left to be investigated.

Genre analysis of Iranian correspondences has been rarely tackled. The dearth of research in this area could be attributed to the difficulty of access to the needed data (that is, letters and emails), or in other words, the difficulty of data collection. To the best of the researchers' knowledge, only three instances of research are devoted to the macro-textual analysis of the Iranians' letters and/or e-mails (Abbasian and Tahririan, 2008; Arvani, 2006; and Jalilifar & Beitsayyah, 2011).

Arvani (2006) conducted a cross-cultural genre study of English business follow-up letters written by Iranians and native English speakers and found that the two sets of letters tended to share similarities in the patterns of moves and steps though subtle differences were found in the frequency of the moves applied. It was also revealed that both groups enjoyed nearly the same lexical density. And finally, Iranian business letters bore a few traces of politeness strategies of the English language.

Abbasian and Tahririan (2008) scrutinized emails that were exchanged between two different discourse communities: EFL teachers and biology professionals. The collected emails were contrasted following Santos' (2002) model of Business Letters of Negotiation (Abbasian and Tahririan, 2008). The results revealed that the same overall rhetorical structure was applicable to the two corpora. The two disciplines, nevertheless, show a degree of discrepancy in the strategies they used to realize each move. These observed differences in strategy use indicated the dynamic nature of e-mail genre accommodating the rhetorical and functional needs of the discourse communities. Finally, Jalilifar & Beitsayyah (2011) carried out a cross-linguistic genre analysis of Persian and English business letters and found a relative similarity in the generic structures of the two sets of letters and a considerable difference in the use of positive and negative politeness strategies.

All the three Iranian studies are informative enough since they adopted multi-perspective approaches for their analyses. Moreover, the cross-cultural and cross-linguistic comparisons could be quite pertinent to the current study and therefore, could inform the analysis here. Nevertheless, both Arvani (2006) and Jalilifar & Beitsayyah (2011) examined a different medium of communication, i.e. letter. Moreover, Jalilifar & Beitsayyah (2011) dealt with the Iranian correspondences which were written in the Persian language. And finally, Abbasian and Tahririan (2008) explored the use of English in an academic setting. As such, no study has yet analyzed English business emails that are written by the Iranian business negotiators. Consequently, another piece of research seems to be necessary since the medium of communication (i.e. letter, email, face to face speech, etc.), the language of use, and the discourse community in which the linguistic message has been generated can all affect the structure and configuration of an instance of language.

The present study, therefore, seeks to address the mentioned gap and conduct a comparative analysis of English business emails that are written by the Iranians and native English speakers. It can be a significant instance of research as it sheds light on a rather unknown mode of communication, i.e. *email*. Furthermore, as business has been globalized, the international language, i.e. English, is prevalently used as the medium of interaction by business negotiators around the world. Therefore, the comparison of the way different people with different language backgrounds adopt the *English Language* in their e-mails can yield helpful findings and can illuminate the extent to which the email messages are influenced by the interlingual and intercultural transfer. And, last but not least, the discourse community from which the data have been collected, i.e. the *business correspondents*, makes this research reasonably practical. With reference to studies of this kind, business negotiators can be trained in more effective rhetorical strategies and linguistic conventions which can better take forward their transactions with the native English speakers.

In order to address the afore-mentioned purposes, the following research questions are proposed:

1. Is there any difference between the macro structures of business e-mails written by Iranians and native English speakers?

2. Is there any significant difference between the typical lexico-grammatical features of English business e-mails written by Iranians and native English speakers?

II. METHOD

A. *The Corpus*

The corpus which was used for the present research consisted of business e-mails collected from companies in Iran and two English speaking countries, i.e. England and the United States. Through formal correspondence between Shiraz University officials and the business corporations, a set of English business e-mail messages written by the non-native Iranian (NNI) communicators were obtained from four companies in Shiraz, Iran and a company in Tehran. They were all well-established companies that usually had international transactions. Two business correspondents were graduate

M.A. students of TEFL (teaching English as a Foreign Language) and one was a retired English teacher. Some other Iranian emails were also collected through a famous international trading website, i.e. alibaba.com. It is worth mentioning that not all of the companies with which we had correspondence were willing to give up their so-called confidential emails. Therefore, the researchers had to suffice to the collected emails and restrict their study to the companies. This set of e-mails was developed by 13 Iranian business correspondents.

Native English e-mails, on the other hand, were written by 21 native English-speaking (NE) communicators. A number of them were collected from a company in England which had transactions with a company in Shiraz. Some others were collected in the United States and forwarded by an Iranian business manager who lives there. And a few other emails were obtained using the online corpus of business emails, i.e. Enron Email Corpus which consisted of categorized emails that were written by the employees of the Enron Corporation in the U.S.

Since business e-mail is a broad category fulfilling various purposes, after conducting a preliminary analysis on the initial corpus of 500 e-mail messages, a homogeneous set of 120 e-mail messages (60 messages from each group) which served the purposes of 'providing and/or requesting information/actions/favors' were chosen for the main analysis. In order to preserve confidentiality, the e-address (or addresses) to which the message was sent (following *To:*) and the e-address from which the message was sent (following *From:*) were changed. Three fake e-mail addresses were used instead of the real e-addresses: 1) Iran@gmail.co.ir; 2) England@gmail.co.uk; 3) United States@gmail.co.us. These unreal e-addresses showed the country of the origin (or, in some cases, the destination).

B. Data Analysis Procedures

The analytical procedures were divided into two major stages: macro-level analysis and micro-level analysis.

1. Macro-level analysis: Move analysis

In the present study, as mentioned above, genre analysis (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993) formed the framework for the macro-textual analysis and the main communicative purpose guided the division of this genre into moves and steps. In order to determine the move-scheme and the strategies realizing each move, Santos's (2002) endeavor in genre analysis of Business Letters of Negotiation (LNs) constituted a model of reference to the present study. The reason underlying this choice is that the corpus used in the present study shares the same communicative purpose and discourse community as those investigated in Santos (2002). Moreover, Santos's (2002) model has been considered as a comprehensive and recent model (Abbasian & Tahririan, 2008) and has been adopted in two Iranian studies (Abbasian & Tahririan, 2008; Jalilifar & Beitsayyah, 2011).

Therefore, the first analytical step was to examine the e-mail messages in order to identify the moves and steps present in the communicative event, as well as their frequencies and sequences. Once the move-schemes were extracted for each corpus and the frequency of each move/step was computed, Chi-square test was employed for each move and step separately in order to find out whether the differences between the parallel moves and steps in the two corpora were statistically significant.

In order to ensure the consistency and dependability of the utilized move-scheme and the results obtained from the generic analysis of the data, two types of reliability analysis, namely, inter-coder and intra-coder reliability were carried out and the results showed reliability coefficients of 0.91 and 0.94, respectively.

2. Micro-level analysis: Lexico-grammatical analysis

A move has been defined as "a meaningful unit represented in linguistic (lexico-grammatical) forms and related to the communicative purposes of the activity in which members of the community are engaged" (Vergaro, 2002, p. 1214; 2004, p. 182). As implied in Vergaro's definition of move, each functional unit is realized through certain linguistic elements. Flowerdew and Wan (2006), too, believe that there are lexico-grammatical features typical to each move. In his study, Santos (2002) examined the most frequent linguistic realization of the moves.

Following the same trend, this study investigated the salient lexico-grammatical choices and strategies which characterize each identified move along with the reasons underlying such choices. Here again, Santos' (2002) study was adopted as a model of reference and features like the use of subject pronouns and the three grammatical structures (imperative, interrogative, and declarative), and the specific wordings and expressions used to realize each step were selected to be examined. The two corpora were compared with respect to these features and strategies so that the differences and similarities between the native English and the non-native Iranian business e-mails were uncovered.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. The Generic Structure of Business E-mails

The preliminary move-analysis of the two corpora revealed that a similar four-move scheme as that proposed by Santos (2002) was applicable and relevant to the data collected for the present study. Four obligatory moves as those found in Santos' study were identified in both corpora. These obligatory moves are as follows:

Move 1. Establishing the negotiation chain
Move 2. Providing information/answers
Move 3. Requesting information/action/service/favors
Move 4. Ending

Although the same four moves were employed by both the native English and the non-native Iranians, the two corpora revealed a number of differences in the 'steps' which realized these moves. Figures 1 and 2 demonstrate the recurrent generic structures of non-native Iranian and native English business e-mails, respectively. As evident, where there is a difference in the step utilized, it is marked using an asterisk.

MOVE 1
Establishing the negotiation chain
Steps
(i)	Defining participants
(a)	Sender- line
(b)	Recipient- line
(c)	Subject- line
(d)	Date- line
(e)	Attention to the message- line *
(ii)	Opening
(a)	Addressing and greeting the addressee
(b)	Thanking the addressee
(c)	Apologizing*
(iii)	Reference to previous contact

AND/OR

MOVE 2
Providing
(Information/Answers)
Steps
(i)	Information
(a)	Introducing and providing information
(b)	Continuing/adding/up-dating
(c)	Agreeing/confirming information
(d)	Showing opposition (unexpected results)/disagreeing
(ii)	Advising about message
(a)	Along with e-mail (attachment)
(b)	Via link/website

MOVE 3
Requesting
(Information/Action/Favor)
Steps
(i)	Information
(a)	Explaining/clarifying/requesting information
(b)	Exchanging/asking for ideas/opinions
(c)	Confirming information
(ii)	Actions/favors of:
(a)	Material/document mailing
(b)	Service/action

STEPS COMMON TO BOTH MOVES 2 &3
Negotiating
(iii)	Evaluating
(a)	Giving personal opinion
(b)	Making comments
(iv)	Drawing attention to something
(v)	Indicating wishes/plans/intentions
(vi)	Applying pressure tactics

MOVE 4
Ending
Steps
(i)	Prompting further contact: soliciting response*
(ii)	Signing-off
(iii)	Signature-line
(iv)	Job status in the company
(v)	Company name
(vi)	Contact information
(vii)	Note & PS-line*

Figure 1. The generic structure of non-native Iranian business e-mails

MOVE 1				
Establishing the negotiation chain				
Steps				
(i)	Defining participants			
(a)	Sender- line			
(b)	Recipient- line			
(c)	Subject- line			
(d)	Date- line			
(ii)	Opening			
(a)	Addressing and greeting the addressee			
(b)	Thanking the addressee			
(iii)	Reference to previous contact			

AND/OR				
MOVE 2		**MOVE 3**	
Providing		Requesting	
(Information/Answers)		(Information/Action/Favor)	
Steps		**Steps**	
(i)	Information	(i)	Information
(a)	Introducing and providing information	(a)	Explaining/clarifying/requesting information
(b)	Continuing/adding/up-dating	(b)	Exchanging/asking for ideas/opinions
(c)	Agreeing/confirming information	(c)	Confirming information
(d)	Showing opposition (unexpected results)/disagreeing		
(e)	Offering something in return/incentives*		
(ii)	Advising about message	(ii)	Actions/favors of:
(a)	Along with e-mail (attachment)	(a)	Material/document mailing
(b)	Within e-mail*	(b)	Service/action
(c)	Via link/website		
STEPS COMMON TO BOTH MOVES 2 &3			
Negotiating			
(iii)	Evaluating		
(a)	Giving personal opinion		
(b)	Making comments		
(iv)	Drawing attention to something		
(v)	Indicating wishes/plans/intentions		
(vi)	Applying pressure tactics		

MOVE 4	
Ending	
Steps	
(i)	Prompting further contact: indicating availability*
(ii)	Signing-off
(iii)	Signature-line
(iv)	Job status in the company
(v)	Company name
(vi)	Contact information

Figure 2. The generic structure of native English business e-mails

As shown in these figures, there are three steps which were found in the Iranian corpus but not in its English counterpart. These steps are as follows:

M-1 (i-e) Attention to message, which signals the importance of the message and therefore, encourages the e-mail recipient to take a prompt action;

M-1 (ii-c) Apologizing, which is employed in order to express regrets; and

M-4 (vi) Note & PS-line, which is added as the last-minute information which deserved special attention and was therefore, highlighted.

On the other hand, two steps were utilized in the English corpus which were absent in the Iranian e-mails. These two steps are:

M-2 (i-e) Offering something in return, which compensates for a previous disagreement or opposition; and

M-2 (ii-b) Advising about the message within e-mail, which provides extra information within the e-mail itself.

There is another step which, though present in both corpora, is realized through different strategies by native English and non-native Iranian e-mail writers. The step *Prompting Further Contact* is carried out through the solicitation of response among the Iranians while it is accomplished by an indication of availability on the part of the Native English speakers.

Following, are some examples extracted from the two corpora. They both exemplify the application of the move-schemes on the emails and highlight the differences noticed between the two corpora.

	[1] Non-native Iranian e-mail sent to both provide information and request action
M1 (i-a)	From: Shiraz@gmail.co.ir
(i-d)	Sent: Wednesday, March 17, 2010 10:07 AM
(i-b)	To: 'Christian.Klima@Linde-LE.com'
(i-c)	Subject: RE: 2103-REQ-A-HM-251 Reformer Lordegan - Revised Technical Quotation
	Importance: High
(i-e)*	**TOP URGENT**
	Dear sir
M1 (ii-a)	
M2.(i-d)	Unfortunately your recently submitted technical proposal for the above subject does not include all our requested replies to our last TQ and therefore the submitted technical proposal accounts to be poor for final evaluation. To speed up the work and in order to enhance Linde technical proposal in final evaluation, you are strongly requested to take
(iii-b)	prompt action and complete/submit the attached table which you received on previous Friday, latest by midday today.
M3. (ii-b)	Your urgent action on the above is highly appreciated.
(vi)	
M2. (ii-a)	Yours Faithfully
	Farshid Farshchi
(vi)	
	EP Director
M4 (ii)	X Engineering Corporation
(iii)	********~** extension:1358
	************
(iv)	f.farshchi@X.org
(v)	
(vi)	

	[2] Non-native Iranian e-mail (Move 1)
(i-a)	From: Shiraz@gmail.co.ir
(i-b)	To: paul@edm.co.uk
(ii-a)	Dear Mr. Denton,
(ii-c)*	**Sorry for long answer due to religious holidays in Iran.**

	[3] Non-native Iranian e-mail (Move 4)
(i)*	**Your fast reply will be appreciated.**
(ii)	Thanks and Regards,
(iii)	Mohmmad Kalani Tehrani
	Mobile : ***********
(vi)	Fax : ******* or ********
	Tel : ******** or *********
(vii)*	**Kindly notice that** , we have already been importing from China directly (Electric Wire Rope Hoists from Xintai in Shandong , EDM Sink and Wircut and super drills from Jiangsu and Hydraulic mobile truck Cranes from XCMG from XUZHOU and agricultural tractors from Liang .... and distributing other machine tools imported by other Iranian Partners .

	[4] Native English e-mail sent to provide information
M1 (i-a)	From: United States@gmail.co.us.
M1 (ii-a)	Hello Daneile and Vicki,
M2.(i-a)	At last we got the crack in the foundation repaired. They went out there, last week and it is all done. But what really
(iii-b)	helped was the work we did on the outside to divert the water away from the house. **Here is what the tenants wrote to me:**
(ii-b)*	
	Hi Sean!
	Just wanted to send a note to let you know that the work you had done outside has really seemed to have done the job. All that rain we received the week they were supposed to come out and fix the basement and the bit of rain since then, and there's not a DROP of water in the bucket from any of that. Amazing!!! I believe they can probably come and fix it whenever. It seems that the outdoor work has done the job. Thought you might appreciate the update and maybe want to share with Vicki and Daniele. Have a good day and a Happy Thanksgiving. Carrie
	This was before they finally went and did epoxy the crack. But it is all done.
	Also attached is the financial statement.
M2.	**Please let me know if you have any questions.**
(i-b)	Thank you and have a wonderful Holiday.
(ii-a)	Sean
M4. (i)*	
(ii)	
(ii)	

The following sections are devoted to the detailed discussion of each move where the differences and similarities between the native English and non-native Iranian business e-mails are singled out, the results of tests of significance are reported and interpreted, and the probable underlying reasons are pointed out.

1. Move 1: Establishing the negotiation chain

Occupying the header position in e-mails, Move 1 sets up the negotiation chain and introduces the communication scene (Santos, 2002). Within the current corpora, 63 occurrences of the first move were found in the native English corpus and 84 occurrences in the non-native one. These high frequencies signify the importance and commonality of this move across the two corpora. Though Move 1 appears to be more frequent in the Iranian corpus, a chi-square test of significance revealed that this difference is not significant (df= 1, ch-sq= 3, p= .083).

In Move 1, the acts of greeting and thanking the addressee constituted the core. These two functions were carried out with relatively similar frequencies across the two corpora; the function of greeting was realized in 52 native and 60 nonnative emails, and the function of thanking appeared in 8 native and 17 nonnative emails. Test of significance also revealed no significant differences here (p $_{Greeting}$= 0.450; p $_{Thanking\ the\ addressee}$=0.72).

2. Move 2: Providing information/answers

Together with the third move, Move 2 – Providing information/answers – is responsible for the real content of the message (Santos, 2002). It displays one facet of the overall purpose which motivated the communication: the exchange of information. Occurring 100 times within the native English corpus and 85 times within the non-native Iranian one, this move seems to be an obligatory move within 'providing/requesting information' genre. Despite the observed difference in the frequency of occurrence, the results of a Chi-square test of significance showed that the two corpora were not meaningfully different with respect to this move (p=0.27).

The move *Providing Information* is accomplished through two main steps within both Iranian and English corpora. Each step comprises several sub-steps across the two corpora (see Figures 1 and 2). Table 4 below gives the frequencies of occurrence of each step and sub-step within the two corpora and summarizes the results of the Chi-Square tests of significance (Note: The Roman numerals shown in Table 1 corresponds to those represented in Figures 1 and 2 above).

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCIES AND CHI-SQUARE TESTS BETWEEN NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE E-MAILS FOR STEPS AND SUB-STEPS IN MOVE 2

		i-a	i-b	i-c	i-d	i-e	ii-a	ii-b	ii-c
Frequency	Native	47	24	2	3	2	15	6	1
	Nonnative	47	17	4	7	0	8	0	1
	Total	94	41	6	10	2	23	6	2
Test Statistics	Chi-Square	.000[a]	1.195[a]		1.600[a]		2.130[a]		
	Df	1	1		1		1		
	Asymp. Sig.	1.000	.274		.206		.144		

As seen in Table 1, there is no significant difference between the two corpora in terms of the steps and sub-steps of Move 2. (Note: Chi-square test was not run for *Agreeing/Confirming Information, Offering Something in Return/Incentives, Advising about Message Within E-mail, and Advising about Message Via Link/Website* sub-steps because they do not satisfy one of the main prerequisites of this statistical test; that is, no cell should have expected frequencies less than 5.)

3. Move 3: Requesting information/action/favor

As mentioned before, both Move 2 and Move 3 constitute the body of the e-mail and, therefore, incorporate the main propositional content of the message. The frequency of the third move was 66 in the non-native Iranian corpus and 50 in the native English one. Chi-Square test of significance revealed that the two corpora did not differ significantly in terms of the frequency of their requests (p=0.137).

Move 3 was realized via two main steps across the two corpora. Not only did both sets of e-mails adopt the same two steps, but they utilized identical sub-steps in order to carry out the third function (see Figures 1 and 2, above).

In spite of the close correspondence in the types of the steps and sub-steps employed, the two corpora showed a number of differences regarding the frequency with which each part is employed. Table 2 below summarizes the observed differences providing the frequency information. It also reports the results of the tests of significance run between the two corpora. (Note: Chi-square test was not conducted for *Confirming Information* sub-step as it does not satisfy the previously mentioned assumption of the Chi-square test.)

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCIES AND CHI-SQUARE TESTS BETWEEN NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE E-MAILS FOR STEPS AND SUB-STEPS IN MOVE 3

		i-a	i-b	i-c	ii-a	ii-b
Frequency	Native	11	6	3	8	22
	Non-native	29	3	6	11	17
	Total	40	9	9	19	39
Test Statistics	Chi-Square	8.100[a]	1.000[a]		.474[a]	.641[a]
	Df	1	1		1	1
	Asymp. Sig.	**.004***	.317		.491	.423

As Table 2 indicates, the native English business e-mails were significantly different from the non-native Iranian ones with respect to the first sub-step in Move 3. In other words, Iranian business persons asked for information, explanation and clarification significantly more than their English counterparts. The rest of the sub-steps; however, did not reveal any significant differences regarding their frequencies of occurrence within the two corpora.

4. Steps common to both moves 2 and 3

While moves 2 and 3 included a series of steps exclusive to each, there were certain steps which were shared by these two main moves (see Figures 1 and 2). As the name of the category *Negotiating* suggests, these steps brought the negotiation strategies into play and, therefore, enhanced the negotiation process. Iranian and English e-mail writers used the same sets of steps in order to promote their negotiation. These steps appeared with relatively similar frequencies (see Table 3) except for the step Applying Pressure Tactics which showed a significant difference across the two corpora (p= 0.028). It was significantly more frequent in the Iranian corpus. This business tradition could have resulted from the broader Iranian culture in which people are accustomed to persuade others to do things promptly by applying different pressure tactics.

TABLE 3.
FREQUENCIES AND CHI-SQUARE TESTS BETWEEN NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE E-MAILS FOR STEPS COMMON TO BOTH MOVES 2 AND 3

		iii-a	iii-b	iv	v	vi
Frequency	Native	7	6	3	9	9
	Nonnative	5	13	5	8	21
	Total	12	19	8	17	30
Test Statistics	Chi-Square	.333[a]	2.579[a]		.059[a]	4.800[a]
	Df	1	1		1	1
	Asymp. Sig.	.564	.108		.808	**.028***

5. Move 4: Ending

Move 4 is the last move in business e-mails and signals the end of the message. This move was the most frequent move used in both Iranian and English corpora. With the total of 339, Move 4 occurred 137 times in the Native English corpus and 202 times in the non-native Iranian one. The test of significance revealed that the two corpora were meaningfully different with respect to this move. That is, Iranian business correspondents used this move significantly more than their English counterparts (p=0.000). This difference was due to the inclusion of different information categorized under Move 4 by the Iranian writers in most of the e-mails, whereas the native English writers mostly tended to end up their e-mails with the most basic steps, i.e. sign-off and signature-line.

Like other moves, Move 4 was realized through special steps (see Figures 1 and 2 above) which appeared with different frequencies across the two corpora (see Table 4 below). As seen in Table 4, four steps were significantly different between the two corpora: *Prompting Further Contact, Job Status in the Company, Company Name, and Contact Information. Prompting Further Contact, Job Status in the Company*, and *Company Name* were more common in Iranian e-mails while *Contact Information* was more recurrent in English e-mails.

TABLE 4.
FREQUENCIES AND CHI-SQUARE TESTS BETWEEN NATIVE AND NON-NATIVE E-MAILS FOR STEPS IN MOVE 4

		I	ii	iii	Iv	V	vi	vii
Frequency	native	6	52	44	4	18	18	1
	nonnative	15	59	56	39	39	8	0
	Total	21	111	100	43	57	27	1
Test Statistics	Chi-Square	3.857[a]	.441[a]	1.440[a]	28.488[a]	7.737[a]	4.481[a]	
	df	1	1	1	1	1	1	
	Asymp. Sig.	**.050***	.506	.230	**.000***	**.005***	**.034***	

On the whole, what was inferred from the macro textual analysis is that non-native Iranian and native English business correspondents follow closely similar generic structures to accomplish their overall communicative goal, i.e. 'requesting and providing information'. As seen in the two move schemes that were applied by Iranian and native English speakers (see Figures 1 and 2) similarities outnumber differences: both corpora applied the same four obligatory moves; similar steps were used to realize these obligatory moves; and most of the moves and steps were employed with relatively similar frequencies across the two corpora. This result confirmed that of Arvani (2006) where it was concluded that NNI writers followed the prototypes of business writing used by NE writers.

B. Lexico-grammatical Features of Business E-mails

Beside generic structure, the most salient and typical lexico-grammatical choices and strategies characterizing moves 3 and 4, the main parts which were responsible for the propositional content of the e-mail message, were investigated and the two Iranian and English corpora were compared with reference to these features. The results of this analysis are presented in the following sections.

1. Lexico-grammatical features in Move 2

An in-depth analysis of the second move, Providing Information/Answers, showed that certain linguistic features helped the realization of this specific rhetorical function. The first finding was regarding the choice of participants. First

person plural, *we*, was applied most commonly by the Iranians. The third parties *they/proper names* were also found to be rather prevalent within the Iranian business e-mails. The following examples extracted from the non-native corpus illustrate these lexical choices:

[5] **We** inform you that **we** arrange the shipment and payment … (NNI-7)

[6] Then **Mr. Ardi, Mr. Poujam,** and **Mr. Rabinejad** will join them on Wednesday. (NNI-23)

On the other hand, as can be seen in the examples below, the first person singular, *I*, and words related to machines, products, and services were more common within the native English corpus.

[7] **I** will reduce the export price Down to £22,000.00 UK Pound for you…   (NE-9)

[8] **The transaction** is for delivery of intrastate gas at the tailgate … (NE-35).

The predominant use of *we* shows the Iranian business correspondents' tendency to focus on the company or the corporation as a whole -a frequent convention in Persian letter writing- and implies that the entire group, rather than the writer as an individual, is responsible for the provided information. This result is similar to that found in Jalilifar & Beitsayyah (2011) and confirms the cross-linguistic effect the notion of 'transfer'. On the contrary, native English speakers' frequent use of *I* indicates their "personalized professional attitude, i.e. the writer is focusing on him/herself and shifting the responsibility of the message from the company (Santos, 2002, p. 186)" and, in this way, confirms the results of Flowerdew and Wan's (2006) study.

The first step in Move 2, i.e. Introducing and Providing Information, is characterized by a specific lexico-grammatical unit within most of the Iranian e-mails. Iranian business correspondents adopt the word 'inform' or its noun form –information – to make the addressee aware of a new piece of information. The examples below illustrate this feature:

[9] We **would like to inform** you that our dealing is not selling … (NNI-17)

[10] **For your information**, I am the sales manager of Lari company … (NNI-54)

Though compatible with the communicative function of this step, i.e. providing *information,* the above structures only appeared in the non-native Iranian corpus and no instance was witnessed within native English e-mails. One reason underlying this finding can be the letter writing conventions in Persian. Using similar structures is quite conventional in Persian formal letter writing.

Similarly, the step Agreeing/Confirming Information is realized through specific lexical choices. These choices, however, are shared by the two corpora. The business correspondents participating in this study either used the lexical word 'accept' or 'confirm' to fulfill the act of agreement. Following are two authentic examples that occurred within the current data:

[11] Yes as we are doing ongoing business I **accept** your offer of £21,000.00 UK Pounds including full case packing. (NE-11)

[12] We **confirm** the shipping documents. (NNI-6)

Another lexical feature that occurred systematically across the two corpora was different forms of the word 'attach' which was employed to execute the function of advising about the message via attachment. There were no discrepancies between the two corpora regarding the adoption of this feature.

2. Lexico-grammatical features in Move 3

Requesting information, actions or favors can be accomplished through three different grammatical structures: imperative, interrogative, and declarative. Here, however, these three forms differ in terms of 'directness'. Using indirect speech acts to ask for a favor is considered more gentle and polite in English speaking communities than direct commands (Yule, 2006).

All these three forms were observed within both sets of data analyzed in the present study. In the Iranian corpus, imperative and declarative forms were both common, being used 36 and 24 times, respectively. Interrogatives, however, appeared only in few e-mails (N=6). In the native English corpus, too, imperatives were the most common (N=20). The other two forms were adopted with the same frequencies (N=15) and were both rather common. Therefore, there was not much discrepancy between the two corpora regarding the use of these three structures except for the interrogatives which was more common within the native data.

Nevertheless, Iranians seemed to favor certain lexico-grammatical expressions in order to minimize the imposition of their commands. It was quite interesting that these lexico-grammatical choices sometimes made the Iranians' requests sound more polite than those of the native speakers. Hereunder are some examples extracted from the Iranian corpus to exemplify these linguistic features:

[15] To begin with we **would like to** ask you the **favour** of giving us your prices… (NNI-47)

[16] **Could you kindly** send us the proforma invoice by return mail if the product… (NNI-50)

[17] **Please** give me the exact day and time of your arrival to Iran. (NNI-19)

As seen in the above examples, interrogatives and declaratives were usually mitigated by the modals *could* and *would,* or the expression *would like.* The use of these modals, according to Arvani (2006), adds to the indirectness of the act and therefore, makes it more polite and courteous. Direct imperatives are also preceded by the adjunct *please* which "strengthens the aspect of politeness and adds to the exchange an atmosphere of extreme formalism, respect and face-saving (Santos, 2002, p. 182)". In addition, the adverb *kindly* is often added to create an atmosphere of cordiality and geniality.

English e-mails, on the other hand, seem to be more straight-forward regarding the execution of requests. Though the native English writers had applied the modals *could* and *would* in a number of e-mails, they more tended to ask for a favor using the less formal modal, *can.* Furthermore, no instance of the adverb *kindly* was observed in this group of e-mails. These differences may have been caused by a socio-cultural reason. Iranians, who may be regarded as following the value of collectivism, show a lot of concern about the addressee's negative face and try to respect it by any possible means. On the contrary, English people are more friendly, intimate and casual, and do not worry about such bothersome conventions.

3. Lexico-grammatical features in steps shared by Moves 2 and 3

The common steps, by which the negotiation strategies were brought into play, incorporated certain lexico-grammatical features which helped the fulfillment of the intended functions. To begin with, the first Evaluating sub-step, i.e. Giving Personal Opinion, was mainly characterized by the pronoun *I* and, in a few cases, specific markers that indicated the writer's personal attitude. The examples below briefly illustrate these options.

[18] **I** as one your friends suggest you to study the relationship between yours and his one more again. (NNI-8)

[19] **It would be easier for me** if we be in touch via E-mails. (NNI-54)

[20] If the group feels it would be helpful to meet to discuss the timeline issues, I am in support of that effort. (NE-49)

On the other hand, the pronouns *we* and *you* were used in order to make comments and give opinions which were shared by a group (the company members rather than the individual him/herself) (examples 26 and 27 below).

[21] **It certainly appears you** have lined up a most impressive program and an outstanding group of speakers. (NE-57)

[22] If **you** find the machine in a good condition, **we trust** you as before. Just we should agree on its price. (NNI-1)

As seen in the above examples, these two sub-steps drew upon certain lexical options, such as *trust, believe,* and *eager,* which contain emotional connotations and therefore, conveyed thoughts, feelings and viewpoints. The next step, Drawing Attention, is realized through a number of emphatic linguistic choices (*note, necessary, etc.)* or a paralinguistic option, i.e. capitalization. Here are examples drawn from the two corpora:

[23] Considering the project procedure, kindly **note** that the PO should also be stamped by you. (NNI36)

[24] So a **PRICE** break down of each of the above mentioned components is needed, so that we order in our first shipment. (NNI-42)

[25] Please **note** the **deadline** to RSVP has been extended to 7/11/01, due to the July 4th holiday. (NE-26)

[26] Please **keep in mind** this is a **necessary** step in being able to control all our costs and report them accurately. (NE-55)

The two groups of participants also employed similar strategies to indicate their wishes, plans, or intentions. As suggested by the name of this step, the verbs *hope, wish, intend, plan,* and the expression *look forward to* were mostly used to carry out this function (see examples 27 and 28).

[27] I **hope** our friendship would continue. I **hope** the best for you and for your company. I **wish** I could visit you very soon in Iran and in my company. (NNI-17)

[28] We are **planning** to send the following e-mail to each of the desk heads. It is **intended** primarily to generate feedback from the desks, but my ultimate **plan** is to shut down the relationships and essentially start over with the desks making the transaction decisions instead of EOL. (NE-39)

Finally, in order to expedite the counterpart's decision and action, both Iranian and English e-mail writers used a number of pressure tactics which were realized either through similar linguistic expressions, such as *prompt action, as soon as possible* (or its abbreviated form *A.S.A.P.*), and *at the earliest* (refer to examples 29 and 30) or longer stretches of language as can be seen in example 31.

[29] If you have done so already, can you please return your feedback to me **ASAP**? (NE-48)

[30] Your **prompt** response is highly appreciated. (NNI-20)

[31] As your competitors have already finalized all their technical issues recently, you are notified that **unless** we receive your reply until Wednesday 14th.April.2010, review of your technical quotation will be stopped and consequently it will be assumed you are not eager to take part in the competition. (NNI-40)

On the whole, what was inferred from the observations made through the lexico-grammatical analysis was the more use of the 'face-saving acts' on the part of the Iranians and their adherence to negative politeness strategies, contrary to the native English speakers' preference for positive politeness strategies and their attempt in promoting a cordial atmosphere. As Yarmohammadi (1995) concluded "in general the use of polite expressions are mostly negative and less positive in Persian in comparison with those of English" (p. 150). Writing English business e-mails, Iranians occasionally drew upon some of their native language conventions, specifically those which made their style more formal and polite and helped the maintenance of a reasonable distance with their interlocutors.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

As indicated before, the macro-level analysis of business e-mails brought about characterizations of the generic structures of these e-mails as written by the native English and the non-native Iranian business persons. Despite the presence of particular features peculiar to each corpus, the two corpora employed closely similar generic structures to fulfill the overall communicative goal, i.e. 'requesting and providing information'. Not only did they apply the same four

obligatory moves, but they exploited similar steps, with relatively similar frequencies, to realize these moves. Therefore, the generic similarities exceeded the differences.

From among various reasons underlying this prevailing generic similarity (reasons like familiarity of the business negotiators with business transactions and English language through business manuals or internet), the common communicative purpose can be regarded as the prominent stimuli which gave rise to analogous schematic structures. These results, therefore, substantiated a genre-based hypothesis in which the communicative objective has been perceived to play the primary role in shaping a specific genre and, approved the findings of the previous studies done in this field (Vergaro, 2002; Arvani 2006; Cheung 2006, 2008, 2009; Abbasian and Tahririan, 2008).

Nonetheless, it should be noted that few differences were observed in the generic options adopted by the native-English and non-native Iranians. For instance, the steps *Attention to message, Apologizing, Note & PS-line, Offering Something in Return, and Advising about the Message within E-mail* were either utilized by the native correspondents or the non-native ones, and were not shared by both groups. Some of these differences were caused by the linguistic phenomenon 'transfer' and revealed the impact of cultural variables on the configuration of information and ideas within e-mails (Abbasian and Tahririan, 2008; Flowerdew and Wan, 2006). Iranian business persons, for example, drew upon pressure tactics far more than their native English counterparts – an observation which reflected Iranians' native social and cultural traits.

A number of differences were also found at the lexico-grammatical level between the Iranian and native English corpora. These differences revealed that business transactions are influenced by broader socio-cultural variables. Typical of a culture where collectivism is highly valued, Iranian business correspondences were developed in a cautious way respecting the negative face of the corresponding businessmen. On the contrary, the native English business correspondents seemed to favor individualism and for this reason, applied strategies that did not bound their individual being.

The present study purported to make a small contribution to the research into the structures and characteristics of English language as realized in business settings. Consequently, it can offer a number of implications for business English teaching staff, material developers, and last but not least, business negotiators. Drawing on the results of the genre studies of this kind, EFL/ESP teachers can raise their students' awareness of e-mail message conventions. Furthermore, the results obtained here can inform and update business English courses so that business professionals are familiarized with the patterns which promote their conformity to the linguistic and pragmatic conventions of native English speakers and structures that might hinder their communication or even threaten their commercial ends.

It should be mentioned that the corpus gathered for the present study bore a drawback. Only 66 e-mails constituted *mutual* interaction of Iranian and native English speakers. As factors like social distance or status relationship can affect the nature of any interactions, the relevant data could have been gathered in a way to counterweigh such effects and yield more dependable results. To this end, it would have been more reliable to collect Iranians and native English speakers' mutual e-mails. Nevertheless, the collection of such a corpus was a quite challenging task. Business e-mails are usually very confidential and for this reason, companies are rather reluctant in providing researchers with their e-mail messages. Therefore, the availability sampling had to be adopted here. Accordingly, future studies can compensate for the shortcomings of the present study and analyze structure of the emails taking the email addressees and their social status into account.

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English Dominance and Its Influence on International Communication

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Abstract—With the development of globalization and informatization, there is an undenied fact that more and more people from different countries are communicating and exchanging ideas with each other by one language, that is English. Whether you like English or not, if you want to enter into the wave of globalization and informatization, and conduct effective international communications, or you want to become an influential politician merchant and scientist , you must be able to use English to communicate. The dominance of English is like a snowball, too big to prevent. This thesis discusses the manifestation of English dominance and the necessity of analyzing English dominance. It analyses the reasons of formation of English dominance in international communication from the history of English language development, macro level, technical factors and other comprehensive aspects. Finally, the author analyses the influence English dominance brought to China.

Index Terms—international communication, English dominance, influence

Cultural hegemony taking place of colonialism is causing widespread concern. However, most studies on cultural hegemony focus on politics, philosophy and other fields. The author thinks that the spread and expansion of English makes English dominance more and more obvious in international communication.

I. LANGUAGE, CULTURE AND HEGEMONY

Language is the carrier of culture, and every language is the crystallization of each culture. It is the process of cultural exchange and cultural diffusion for people to use language to communicate with each other. Language users can gain a sense of cultural identity and social belongings through language. In general, the language of a nation is deeply rooted in national culture, and accompanied by national traditions. Language can not survive, develop and improve without culture. Language is the core of culture. There is no basis for the existence and continuation of culture without language. As a result, the national language has a vital role in maintaining ethic nationality. Language carries culture, but has inextricably association with politics and economy. Language has always been an effective tool for political and cultural struggle, an important means of maintaining and developing countries, and a significant part of national common culture. Culture is the reflection of politics and economy on ideology. Western powerful economic and political strength is bound to create and consolidate a strong position in their culture, thus showing an asymmetry tilt feature of global culture exchange, that is strong culture flow unidirectionally to vulnerable culture. As a result, weak culture is passive, and forced to absorb a large number of strong culture. Conversely, the strong culture is always in a dominant position, and it can select and deploy other culture according to its own needs to strengthen itself. As English is spread and used worldwide, it inevitably becomes an important tool for the output of Western culture, and even a means of Western countries to seek cultural hegemony.

E.Said points out in English dominance that in our modern era, most of the direct colonialism has been terminated, while dominance is still remaining in its place just as we see. It exists as a specific political, ideological, economic and social practices. Cultural dominance is the continuation of modern colonialism in cultural field. Its purpose is not to conquer territory, nor is to control the economic field, it is to control people's mind, which is a means to change power relations between two countries. In the background of economic globalization, with the deepening of cultural exchanges between countries, the emergence of cultural globalization is a trend. But it is not real equal exchange among countries around the world. It is cultural hegemony swayed by cultural dominance, which shows the dominance of strong culture over weak culture. Language advantages can be used to spread values, pursue national interests. America, Britain, and other English-speaking countries vigorously promote the expansion of English, making it become a global language. In a sense, it is culture wars at the level of language, and language is used as a weapon to violate other countries.

Cultural hegemony no longer solely refers to a non-violent culture domination form which a country's ruling class rules over ruled class. It includes non-violent ideological hegemony among countries, especially among western developed countries and Third world countries. As a colonist policy which Western countries conduct over Eastern countries, as a deep rooted thinking mode and power discourse, it does not exit the stage of history with the development of times.

II. MANIFESTATION MODE OF ENGLISH DOMINANCE IN MEDIA

Firstly, the performance of English dominance in international communication is the number of people using English. Currently, there are 380 million people around the world using English as a native language and 250 million people using English as a second language. While, the number of people who are learning English is an even bigger figure. According to the estimation of English cultural council, the number of people around the world who are learning English reaches 1 billion and about 1.5 to 2 billion people are in contact with English. By 2050, half of the world's population will be proficient in using English.

Linguists divide the people using English that are mentioned above into three categories: the first category refers to the people, who are using English as their native language, and usually it is their only language. These people mainly live in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Iceland, and South Africa. The second category refers to the people, who are using English as their second language. These people generally live in former British colonies and areas and regions which are greatly influenced by the United States, such as India, Nicaragua, Singapore, Philippines and Hong Kong of China. The third category refers to the people who are using English as a foreign language. Generally, these areas and regions do not have a close relationship with the United States.

Although the number of people who are speaking Chinese as their mother tongue is above 1.3 billion (including overseas Chinese), Chinese speaking population is limited to Chinese and foreign-country-born Chinese. After all, the foreign population using Chinese as their native language or their second language is much less. In these years, with the development of China's economy, there has been a increasing enthusiasm for learning Chinese, but it still can not be compared with the English boom.

In fact, English dominance in international communication is not only reflected in the population using English, but more reflected in the application range of English. After cold war, with the advent of globalization and information technology, English is widely used in various fields around the world, including politics, economy, trade, culture, diplomacy, tourism, communication, natural science and academic research of humanities, etc. According to the statistics, currently around the world, there are more than 60 countries using English as their official language, 85% of international organizations using English as their common language, and 75% of the world's mail are written in English, 80% of publications and internet information is published in English.

English dominance in international communication is particularly evident in the field of scientific research. After World War I, instead of English, German became the main language of scientific research. But after World War II (especially 20 years after Cold War), America established the status of supremacy, English dominance became overwhelming. According to the investigation of thousands of copies of scientific journal in 1997 which is proposed by Professor Eugene Garfield, founder of SCI (Scientific Citation Index), 95% of 925,000 scientific papers are written in English, half of which is written by authors from English speaking countries, and thus half of which is written by authors from non-English speaking countries. English dominance is evident.

English dominance in international communication is also very evident in our country, particularly in the last 20 years. The emergence of a large number of English language media is one example. So far, the English media which is based on news spreading includes an English TV channel, a foreign language radio station, 9 English daily and weekly newspapers, 10 magazines and 9 English websites. As a country with a non-English official language, it is a great achievement. But it also shows the importance of English language. These above statistics has not included the English newspapers which are based on English learning.

In addition to the English media, the vast number of people learning English is evident enough to explain the influence of English dominance. According to the statistics, there are about 30 million people in our country learning English and the number is still growing.

The emergence of English hot and our country's opening policy are closely related, and this is especially true after our country's entry into WTO. Now, English is not only compulsory for high and senior school students, but also compulsory for primary school students from third grade in the cities. English is also the compulsory subject for college and graduate entrance examination, and it is the necessary condition for the promotion of technical titles. In big cities like Shanghai, a person's English proficiency can also decide whether he can be international talents.

III. THE REASONS OF THE FORMATION OF ENGLISH DOMINANCE

The formation of English dominance has gone through a long time. Just as Robert of Gloucester said before, English is a language that humble people spoke 1300 years ago. In the following 200 years, the development of English has undergone the period of old English, the period of French-influencing and the period of medi-evil English.1500 years later, modern English was taking shape, which mainly refers to the stable spelling pronunciation and meaning. However, English emerged as the international language after 19tth century. The main reasons are as follows:

Firstly, from the macroscopic view, the dominance of English is not precipitated by the language itself, so the arising of English dominance in international communication is not solely the dominance of language itself. Just as the professor Jean Aitchison in Oxford pointed out, the success of a language has much to do with the power of the people who use it but has little to do with internal features of the language.

It is very obvious in consideration to English. During the 18th century and 19th century, the influence of the British

Empire began to spread around the world for the sake of industrial revolution, so English began to become popular. English was used not only in the British colonies but also in the diplomatic negotiations of non-English-speaking countries.

However, no matter how powerful the adaptively is and how large the area that the power of English covers, currently, the international status of English mainly springs from the status of America as a superpower after World War 2.

Besides, with the development of the economic globalization and new political structure, there is a great need of an international language. As result, English became the first choice.

Secondly, from the view of language, the dominance of English in international communication has a close relationship with the vitality of the language itself. On the one hand ,English has a connection with all the Indo-European languages .Maybe it appears to be difficult to oriental people, but it is an easy job to western European and Russian people because the grammar and are similar to their mother language.

Compared with Indo-European languages, English also bears the unique characteristics of the "universal language", that is diversity, flexibility and adaptivity. Although the dominance of English originated from Britain and America, it is regarded as the official language bit is regarded as the official language by many countries in 5 continents. Meanwhile, the vocabulary of English is the greatest in the world, but people only have to master 1000 to 2000 words to communicate.

In addition, non-English speakers are allowed to localize English, and create English suitable for themselves, such as Singapore English, Chinese English, Japanese English, Western English, Creole, French English and even Germany English etc. It may also include pidgin English appeared in Shanghai. In short, the dominance of English is represented in that it can tolerate non-English speakers to use broken English, thus making them feel English convenient and close to them, making English more universal.

Thirdly, the universalness of English has a close relationship with its cultural value system. It is universally acknowledged that the cultural value system of Britain and America can encourage more innovation compared with other cultures.

On the other hand, the marketization and technological power of British and American media makes English a dominant language in international communication. The "Hollywood effect" and "silicon valley phenomenon" also worth mentioning here. The former is cultural products, which includes English media, film etc; the later refers to the computer-based and internet-based technical products, all of which swept over the world, thus making English a popular language.

In the end, another reason of the formation of English dominance is that the universal culture appears in English. As mentioned above, 80% of the documents in the world are written in English. So the universalness of English is because of the universalness it has.

IV. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF ENGLISH DOMINANCE

Concluded from the above discussion, we can easily find the three characteristics of English dominance.

Firstly, the essence of English dominance is the dominance of English speaking countries. There is no exception in English speaking countries. Currently, the reason for American English taking place of British English is the status of America as the sole superpower in the world. Therefore, although the language spreading around the world is known as English, the content it carries is American culture.

Secondly, this kind of English dominance is irresistible, and it is hard to be changed in a short time. Non-English speaking countries can choose to accept or reject it. But they can't stop the emergence of such an English dominance.

Because of the close connection among language, politics, economy, culture, international communication and other fields, English dominance will inevitably strengthen the dominance of this country in politics, economy, culture and international communication. That is to say, English dominance is not simply the problem of the globalization of English, it will strong impacts on other aspects of other countries.

V. THE INFLUENCE OF ENGLISH DOMINANCE

The influence of English dominance is just like a double edged sword.   They can be positive and negative, or both simultaneously. That is, a seemingly negative impact is often accompanied by a favorable side and vice versa. It is very interesting that it is not only applicable to non-English speaking countries, but also applicable to English speaking countries.

A. *The Influence of English Dominance on English-speaking Countries*

For English-speaking countries or countries which are using English as their mother tongue, the influence of English should be positive. Firstly, the dominance of English makes these countries more dominant in politics, economy and culture, adversely, the dominance in these fields will strengthen the dominance in English. Secondly, the dominance of English can produce ethnocentrism so that they can feel a sense of honor as an English population. In the long term, this is the biggest benefit English dominance brings to English-speaking countries, because it would make the whole country maintain a strong cohesion. Of course, this sense of superiority and pride differs from country to country, and it

may be most intense in the superpower America.

However, the strong sense of superiority and pride brought by the dominance also has a negative impact. For example, because of versatility and convenience of English worldwide, people in most English-speaking countries don't have interest to learn about other countries and cultures, and they care less about international news, and don't have intention to learn other languages. It is known that the language skills of people whose mother tongue is English is the worst. In 2000, only 9 students successfully graduated among all the students majored in Arabian in America. While, languages using in UK is the least in Europe. This allows them to be more and more inert, and their thinking way to be more and more rigid.

In addition, the dominance and popularity of English will lead to English variants, such as Singapore English, Chinese English. These variants will not only cause a language barrier but also have a impact on English itself in the USA and UK. It is pointed out in Financial Times that the real challenge confronted by English is from the population which are using English as their second language, because this population has exceeded the English population and it is still increasing. It is predicted in the newspaper that this situation is bound to have a profound influence on English itself.

B. The Influence of English Dominance on Non-English Speaking Countries

The influence of English dominance on non-English speaking countries may be contrary to the influence on English speaking countries. Its negative impact maybe more than positive impact. The benefits brought by English is that people from different countries can communicate with each other freely. However, language is not just a communication tool, it is also the carrier of culture and signs of identity.

Faced with the irresistance of English dominance, many non-English speaking countries may feel helpless, and may also feel worried about the culture invasion brought by English dominance. Although the impact brought by English dominance is invisible and intangible, they indeed exist and can't be changed in a short time. Some people even think that cultural imperialism is the continuation of colonial policy, but the means is relatively civilized.

Especially for those minority languages, the dominance of English can be devastating, and it may even means extinction of their language, culture and identity. The extinction of language has been existing from the ancient time, but the scale is bigger, and speed quicker. It is said that half of the languages will disappear in middle 21th century, and someone says it is 90%.

For those non-English speaking western countries which also want to be language powerhouse, this helpless psychology becomes more apparent. Currently, although France spends 100 million US dollars to promote French culture every year, French ranks the 9th in the languages around the world. French scientists are clearly aware of the situation. They say that either they publish their articles in English, or die with French quietly.

Thus, the non-English speaking countries will be faced with a dilemma, to integrate into the world to be modernized or to isolate themselves to maintain national character. In order to be modernized, it is necessary to integrate into the world, but this will certainly bring some changes to traditional culture. In the current situation, whether to walk out of this predicament successfully largely determines the ability to effectively deal with the problems caused by English dominance in international communication.

C. The Influence of English Dominance on China

English dominance has both positive and negative effects on China. From a positive perspective, the strong direct effect English dominance has brought to China is to promote a popularity of English in our country, thus effectively improving the comprehensive quality and international level of our civil people and improve the environment to communicate with other countries in the world. Just think, if there is no language bridge of English in the past 20 years, what will be the outcome of China's reform and opening up policy? If our country does not introduce English, does not pay special attention to English and does not link English proficiency to education, promotion and other aspects, there can not be an English rush in the past 20 years, which ranges from New Concept English to Crazy English, and there can not be a so-called English economy, a going-abroad rush and an increasing tendency of English media.

In short, without effective absorption of English dominance in the past 20 years, there is no initially internationalized environment for China. Without this environment, the entry into WTO and the success of applying for hosting Olympic Games is unthinkable.

Our experience has shown that, as long as English dominance is handled properly, and English is regarded as a tool to integrate into the world, then it will cost less to develop and modernize our country, narrow lagging time, thus laying a foundation for catch-up.

Of course, many Chinese scholars are worried about the potential dangers English dominance will pose on China. They think that in contemporary info-technical society, language dominance is bound to bring culture dominance, thus emerging new unfairness. This concern is obviously justified. Chinese officials can say WTO. APEC and other English abbreviations very casually just like saying their hometown language. Furthermore, young people are all familiar with English buzzwords.

The famous social linguist Chen Yuan thinks that this is a great wonder of Chinese. It is marvelous that English words can appear so naturally in Chinese without any official requirement. Even though the old don't know what CT means, they can speak out very naturally.

Then, how do we regard English dominance which brings positive sides as well as potential dangers? How do we regard the side effects English dominance brings to Chinese and Chinese culture? First of all, we do not have to worry groundlessly, viable language are not afraid of foreign language invasion. Any language can not be self-sufficient and some foreign language can enrich their development. From another perspective, the absorption of English words can show the vigor and vitality of Chinese. As a result, faced with English dominance, we should be confident instead of being worried.

Of course, it is also true for culture. The long standing of five-thousand-year long culture relay on the feature of discarding the dross and selecting the essential. The western culture will inevitably have impacts on Chinese culture through English dominance. However, in the long term, if we can absorb the essence of foreign culture, and discard the dross, Chinese culture can get new development and demonstrate its strong vitality.

VI. CONCLUSION

Before the dominance of English takes shape, other languages have also been dominant for some time in the history. But with the impact of the language-speaking countries,, the dominance of these languages also disappeared. So will the dominance of English disappear in the future just like these languages? The answer is positive, as other languages have undergone ups and downs, English is no exception. Then what is the symbol of the declining tendency of English? The author of the future of English David Graddol thought scientific technology was one of the symbols. We can deny symbol of scientific technology, but I think the declining tendency of English can also be shown in other aspects, after all other, the dominance of one language is supported by other dominances. In fact, the lacking of interest in international journalism of English speaking countries and the ineffciency of learning other languages indicate the inflexibility of these English-speaking countries. In the long run, this maybe the beginning of the declining tendency of English, but we have to acknowledge that this process is long.

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Empathy in Language Learning and Its Inspiration to the Development of Intercultural Communicative Competence

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Abstract—In intercultural communication misunderstandings between communicators will appear. It is quite necessary to improve learners' communicative competence. The term "communicative competence" first gained wide exposure in the writings of Hymes (1971). He argued that communicative competence must include the linguistic forms of a language and the knowledge of when, how and to whom it is appropriate to use these forms. There are some necessary conditions before we are competent in intercultural interactions. These conditions include knowledge about the people in other cultures, the communication rules, and the context governing the interaction with the member of the other culture, etc. In many definitions of empathy, the idea of "acquiring another person's perspective" is crucial. It is this sense that is supposed to contribute a lot to achieving effective intercultural communication. We are supposed to be clear of the ways of improving empathy ability, among which understanding who we are culturally is the first step to becoming empathetic towards other cultures. The second step is to realize the differences between one's own culture and foreign cultures. This thesis only covers a very limited aspect of this issue, and it is expected by the author that the exploration may become further and further.

Index Terms—empathy, intercultural communication, communicative competence

I. THE CONCEPT OF EMPATHY

The concept of empathy is comparatively new and it has aroused a lot of discussions about its definition. Since it has been used in different fields such as aesthetics, psychology, linguistics and pragmatics, it is necessary to give the different understandings of this concept first.

A. Empathy as an Interpersonal Phenomenon

It is hard to define a specific concept, and it is the same case with the concept "empathy". The word "empathy" has been troublesome since it entered the language of psychology and psychiatry. The word empathy is not in the complete Oxford English Dictionary, though it is in a more recent edition (Simpson & Weiner, 1989). The most recent OED defines empathy as:

The power of projecting one's personality into, and so fully understanding the object of contemplation.

The term empathy has come to be widely adopted ever since, first in psychology and then more generally. In 1897, Lipps introduced the term "Einfühlung" in his writings about aesthetic perception and appreciation. "Einfühlung" meant "feeling oneself into" in German, and was translated as "empathy" by Tichener in 1910. Lipps believed that, in examining and contemplating an object (e.g., of art, nature, etc.), people projected themselves into the object, established an identification between the object and oneself, engaged in a process of inner imitation, and in this way came to a much better understanding and appreciation of the object, and Lipps called this "practical empathy".

Some years later, Lipps (1926, cited in Yang Yue's Thesis) extended this definition to include people. According to him, the perceiver engages in imitating the target object or person by consciously or unconsciously assuming aspects of its posture and, in the case of target persons, taking on certain of his or her physical stances, gestures, or expressions. In this manner, inner cues are created in the perceiver that leads to a heightened appreciation and understanding of the object/person and, in the case of target persons, a shared feeling experience. Thus, for Lipps, empathy proceeded by means of projection and imitation, could involve either objects or persons as targets, and consisted largely of heightened understanding of the other through cue-produced shared feelings.

With the introduction of Lipps, numerous scholars from various fields of study began to show great interest in the concept of empathy, and have developed quite many different definitions. With the work of George Mead (1934, ibid.), the definitional focus of empathy shifted in two important directions. A cognitive component in the form of "an ability to understand" was added to the earlier affective emphasis. Furthermore, the blending or merging of identities notion yielded to a self-other differentiation in which the empathizer temporarily "took the role of the other" or "put themselves in the other's place" as the heart of the empathic process.

Now in many definitions of empathy, the idea of acquiring another person's perspective is crucial. As pointed out by Bohart and Greenberg (1977, ibid.), most definitions of empathy include the idea of "trying to sense, perceive, share, or

conceptualize how another person is experiencing the world".

From the above definitions, we may view empathy as an interpersonal phenomenon, which includes that (1) the empathizer understands the target's situation and emotions, (2) the target experiences one or more emotions, (3) the empathizer perceives the similarity between what the target is experiencing and something the empathizer has experienced previously, and (4) the empathizer is concerned for the target's well-being.

There is one more thing worth mentioning about empathy, i.e., no communicators will show empathy from the right beginning of their communication. It needs studying and time, namely, a process to understand and to acquire.

B. Lingua-pragmatic Empathy

The notion of empathy was firstly introduced into linguistics by Susumu Kuno, a well-known Japanese linguist. Then he develops a theory of empathy in syntax by virtue of the following observations. He first explains the notion of point of view in terms of an informal notion of 'camera angle'. Thus, given a man and his brother, John and Bill, and that the former hit the latter, the speaker can describe this event in various ways, which include (1a) to (2c):

(1)   a. Then John hit Bill.
          b. Then John hit his brother.
          c. Then Bill's brother hit him.
(2)   [1]a. Then Bill was hit by John.
          b. ?? Then John's brother was hit by him.
              ?? Then his brother was hit by John.
          c. Then Bill was hit by his brother.

All the above sentences are identical in their logical content, but they seem to differ from each other with respect to where the speaker has placed himself in relation to John and Bill, i.e. these sentences differ from each other in camera angles.

One of the most important decisions that directors must make is where to place the camera while shooting this scene in which John hit Bill. The scenes shot from different camera angles, while capturing the same act of John's hitting Bill, produce different effects on the viewer. In describing the event in which John hit his brother Bill, speakers can place themselves in the following different assumptions:

(1-a) is the most objective sentence, in which the speaker is not taking sides either with John or Bill. In terms of camera angle discussed above, the directors place the camera equidistant from both John and Bill.

With respect to (1-b) statement, the speaker has placed himself closer to John than to his brother. This is shown by the fact that the speaker has chosen the term John's brother (his brother) in referring to Bill; the term John's brother does not give Bill an independent characterization, but a characterization that is dependent upon John.

In the same way, the expression Bill's brother (or his brother) can be used only when the speaker has placed himself closer to Bill than to John. Thus, (1-c) and (2-c) are sentences that the speaker has produced by placing himself closer to Bill than to John.

With respect to (2-a), a passive sentence, it signified speaker placement closer to the new subject than to the old.

Thus, (2-a) and (2-c) are both sentences in which the speaker is placed closer to Bill than to John.

What is most interesting here is that, the sentences of (2-b), repeated below, are marginal:

(1) a.?? Then John's brother was hit by him.
      b.?? Then his brother was hit by John.

The above phenomenon is predictable on the basis of the two observations that Kuno has made about camera angles. The term John's brother (or his brother), according to the first observation, indicates that the speaker has placed himself closer to John than to Bill. On the other hand, the use of the passive sentence pattern, according to the second observation, signified that the speaker has placed himself closer to the referent of the new subject, Bill, than to the referent of the old subject, John. These two positions are mutually irreconcilable, and clearly cannot be occupied by a single speaker/camera. The fact that the sentences of (3) are marginal suggests that in producing a single sentence the speaker can use only one "camera". Just as a film director must choose a single camera position for a given scene, the speaker must predetermine his camera position and maintain that position through the production of a single sentence. Thus, the consideration of camera angles or points of view in sentence production makes it possible to account for the marginality of (3), which would be unexplainable otherwise.

In the light of the above observations, Kuno develops a theory of "empathy". Now, let's take a look at the following definition offered by Kuno:

Empathy is the speaker's identification, which may vary in degree, with a person/thing that participates in the event or state that he describes in a sentence.

In this sense the concept empathy is mainly applied by Kuno to explain sentence structures. Nowadays, empathy is more often used in verbal communication, and then in cross-cultural communication.

Empathy is a type of communicative behavior that is closely related to cognitive processes. Without empathy, communication as a form of negotiation cannot take place. Although empathy originally belongs to the domain of

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[1] All sentences in this paper that are marked with ?? and * are syntactically grammatical, but are unacceptable due to violation of various constraints on empathy foci.

psychology, nowadays, more and more linguists have already realized that empathy plays a significant role in verbal communication. As one of the basic communication processes, empathy is the starting point of an effective interpersonal communication climate that lays the groundwork for responses that clarify meaning and help the other person.

In pragmatics, empathy is that the speaker and the hearer who are involved in the act of communication can detect and identify the immediate affective state of each other and respond in an appropriate manner. The first part of this definition, "detect and identify the immediate affective state of each other", describes the process of perception that is basic to selecting appropriate responses. It follows that empathy requires people involved in the interaction to understand how the others perceive the situation and what their emotional states are. What is more, empathy has a "you" orientation that makes successful interaction possible, rather than "I" orientation that may prevent a positive communication from taking place.

II. COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

A. Communicative Competence in Language Learning

Communicative competence is a relatively new concept. Although several scholars (Argyle & Kendon, 1967; Goffman, 1959) have dealt with communicative competence in various ways, the term first gained wide exposure in the writings of Hymes (1971). He used the term to refer to the knowledge an individual has about the use of language in communication. Since Hymes, a number of individuals have written about communicative competence, but have used a variety of definitions. This lack of definitional and theoretical consistency, though common to concepts in their developmental stages, points to a need for further clarification and elaboration of this concept if a useful theory is to be developed.

Then what is communicative competence? For the connotation of this question, many socio-linguists and anthropologists have their own views. Halliday (1970) points out, it is predominant in our thinking about language that we want it to allow us 'to communicate something, to represent our experience of the processes, persons, objects, abstractions, qualities, states and relations of the world around us and inside us'. According to Noam Chomsky, competence was defined as "the ability of an ideal native speaker to construct and recognize grammatical and only grammatical sentences in his language" (Noam Chomsky, 1965).

In Hymes' theory, he argues that communicative competence must include not only the linguistic forms of a language but also the knowledge of when, how and to whom it is appropriate to use these forms. Hymes (1971) defined communication competence as "the most general term for the speaking and hearing capabilities of a person". Competence is understood to be dependent on two things: (tacit) knowledge and (ability for) use. He pointed out that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate.

B. The Relationship between Empathy and Communicative Competence

The communication process is highly complex and a wide range of factors may contribute to the perception of communicative competence. General conceptions of communication competence are provided by a number of sources. Scholars on intercultural communication view empathy as the means of leaping over the hindrances in intercultural communication, and one component of effective communicative competence. In discussing dimensions of communicative competence, Weinstein (1969) gives a sense of the skills involved:

Skill at establishing and maintaining desired identities both for one's self and for others, is pivotal in being interpersonally competent. This skill is dependent in turn on three variables. First, the individual must be able to take the role of the other accurately; he must be able to correctly predict the impact that various lines of action will have on alter's definition of the situation. This is what is meant by empathy if we strip the concept of its affective overtones.

Therefore, empathy composes one of the necessities for effective communication.

What are intercultural communication competencies that are seen as contributing towards effective communication? A great deal of research aimed at answering this question has been carried out. For example, researchers in Britain and the United States have discussed and listed intercultural competencies that should be taught, together with foreign languages (Byram, 1997). They make the point that foreign language study does not automatically result in intercultural competence.

The most obvious cognitive factors influencing our effectiveness in communicating with strangers are our ability to speak the other language and the knowledge we have about the foreign culture. While it is theoretically possible to communicate effectively with no prior knowledge of the culture from which the strangers come and no ability to speak their language (assuming they can speak ours to some degree), this is obviously not the ideal situation. Even if we cannot speak fluently, our efforts to speak the foreign language probably will be appreciated and will lead to more effective communication. In addition, our knowledge of the strangers' culture and of how it is different from and similar to our own has a direct impact on our interpretations and predictions of their behavior. If we know nothing about the strangers' culture, it is highly probable we will make inaccurate predictions and interpretations of their behavior. Thus, acquiring effectiveness in intercultural communication needs the language and culture knowledge first.

As for the affective component of effective intercultural communication, Gudykunst (1984) argue that people who are effective in communicating with strangers do not use the perspective of their own culture when interpreting the

behavior of people from other cultures. Rather, effective communicators use a third-culture perspective, which acts as a psychological link between their cultural perspective and that of the stranger:

...we can say that people who have highly developed this perspective can be characterized as follows: (1) they are open-minded toward new ideas and experiences, (2) they are empathic toward people from other cultures, (3) they accurately perceive differences and similarities between the host culture and their own, (4) they tend to describe behavior they don't understand rather than evaluating unfamiliar behavior as bad, nonsensical, or meaningless, (5) they are relatively astute non-critical observers of their own behavior and that of others, (6) they are better able to establish meaningful relationships with people from the host culture, and (7) they are less ethnocentric (i.e., they try first to understand and then evaluate the behavior of host nationals based upon the standards of the culture they are living in).

The following are some examples to show the difference between competent communicators and incompetent communicators in their verbal communication. Among some European Americans, for instance, declarative statements express their personal attitudes or opinions as if they were facts, and an absence of qualifiers or modifiers, would show that they tend to evaluate unfamiliar behaviors rather than describing them:

♦ "New Yorkers must be crazy to live in that city."
♦ "Parisians are rude and unfriendly."
♦ "The custom of arranged marriages is barbaric."
♦ Every person wants to succeed--- it's human nature."

In contrast, a competent intercultural communicator shows his/her empathy toward other culture, and is open-minded to new experiences, as illustrated in the following examples:

♦ "I find New York a very difficult place to visit and would not want to live there."
♦ "Many of the people I interacted with when visiting Paris were not friendly or courteous to me."
♦ "I would not want my parents to arrange my marriage for me."
♦ "I want to succeed in what I do, and I think most people do."

In this aspect, empathy ability is a crucial component. It is recognized as an important factor for communication effectiveness not only in the United States but also in other cultures as well.

C.   Ways of Improving Communicative Competence

Communicative competence is now widely recognized as an important goal of language learning and teaching, and a good deal has been written concerning the necessity of making knowledge about socio-linguistic rules a part of classroom instruction in ESL or, indeed, in any second language. In recent years, many colleges and universities have taken communicative competence as the main aim in foreign language teaching and learning. However, as we have mentioned, communicative competence will not happen naturally, but have to be learned instead, and this is a long and complicated process. To be a competent communicator, one has to prepare from many different aspects. For example, competent intercultural communicators recognize and accept themselves as cultural beings, and understand their own cultural/social identities and how they shape their worldview. This includes an awareness of their own communication style, which reflects their perceptions, assumptions, norms, values, and beliefs. They adjust their style to the situation, communicating very purposefully by keeping the cultural knowledge of the audience in mind. Becoming aware of our own communication style will allow us to improve our intercultural competence. We may also suppose that being aware of the communication style of people from other cultures is also one of the essential components for intercultural competence. Most people have difficulties in bearing the differences of other cultures in some specific aspects such as beliefs, values, attitudes and ways of communicating. Therefore, to allow the existence of differences in different cultures is vital to easy intercultural communication. People usually view others from their own perspectives since judgment cannot be made without individual's experience. People have stereotypes when they offer judgment. When two people from different cultural backgrounds meet to communicate, it will not do so if one party looks down upon the other's custom and even attacks it from his own perspective.

As discussed in the previous section, ethnocentrism is a tendency to judge people unconsciously by the standard of his/her group and his/her own customs. They place themselves, their racial, ethnic or social group at the very center of the universe and rate other people from their own perspectives. Those people believe one group is superior to another, one segment of society to another, one nation/state to another. They usually view their own groups, their own country, and their own culture as the best, the most moral, and the most reasonable. This view often leads to the attitude that my country first - right or wrong. Therefore, if learners of English are to communicate successfully on a personal level with individuals from English-speaking cultures, they need not only to recognize the different cultural patterns at work in the behavior of people from English-speaking countries; they also need to become aware of the ways in which their own cultural background influences their own behavior, and to develop a tolerance for behavior patterns that are different from their own.

Empathy has been defined as "An emotional response that stems from another's emotional state or condition, and involves at least a minimal degree of differentiation between self and other" (Eisenberg & Fabes, 1990, cited in Larry A. Samovar's *Communication Between Cultures*). A famous Native American proverb tells us "We should not judge another person until we have walked two moons in his moccasins." That is, we need to develop empathy – be able to see things from the point of view of others. Many researchers in the area of interpersonal and intercultural competence

believe that our success as communicators depends, to a large extent, on our "skill at establishing and maintaining desired identities for both self and others." "Identities" are actually the pictures of ourselves and the other person that we hold in our heads. We use these pictures in two ways. First, our identities help us to define the messages we receive from others; and second, they assist us in selecting the most appropriate message to send to another person. We need not only know ourselves but also we need to develop empathy (emotional identification) and role-taking (cognitive adaptation) competence so that we can better know and adjust to the other person. After reviewing the literature on the topic of empathy, Broome concluded, "Empathy has been recognized as important to both general communicative competence and as a central characteristic of competent and effective intercultural communication."

Individuals who are able to communicate an awareness of another person's thoughts, feelings, and experiences are regarded as more competent in intercultural interactions. Alternatively, those who lack the ability of showing empathy, and who therefore indicate little or no awareness of even the most obvious feelings and thoughts of others, will not be considered as competent. Empathetic behaviors include verbal statements that identify the experiences of others and nonverbal codes that are complementary to the moods and thoughts of others.

The skill we are describing here is the capacity to behave as if one understands the world as others do. Of course, empathy is not just responding to the tears and smiles of others, which may, in fact, mean something very different than your cultural interpretations would suggest. Although empathy does involve responding to the emotional context of another person's experience, tears and smiles are often poor indicators of emotional states.

However, a number of behaviors can keep us from understanding the feelings, thoughts, and motives of another person – regardless of his or her culture. Perhaps the most common of all barriers to empathy is a constant self-focus. It is difficult to gather information about the other person, and to reflect on that information, if we are consumed with thoughts of ourselves. Attending to our own thoughts, as if they were the only ones that mattered, uses much of the energy that we should direct toward our communication partner. At times we are guilty of behaving according to the German proverb "Everyone thinks that all the bells echo his own thoughts."

Stereotyped notions concerning gender, race, and culture also serve as potential stumbling blocks to empathy. If we believe that "all English people dislike the Irish," we might allow this stereotype to influence our view of an English person. Stereotyped notions are so much a part of our personalities that we must be careful not to allow these unsupported generalizations to serve as our models of other people.

Empathy is best when it is reciprocal; hence, most of us have an aversion to revealing very much to a person who seems uninterested in us and our ideas. Empathy cannot take place when one of the individuals becomes defensive over the other person's lack of interest. Again, we must answer this question: How much do I enjoy talking to a person who shows no interest in me and in what I am saying? Dogmatism is yet another attitude that keeps us from developing empathy. If someone behaved as if he or she had doubted everything we said and had all the answers, even to questions we had not even asked, we probably would become defensive. With a dogmatic person, our defensiveness may take the form of silence or of dogmatism of our own. In either case, this defensive behavior will not be conductive to empathy.

Although it is nearly impossible to know another person completely and accurately, we can, with practice, develop the skills necessary to overcome the problems we have mentioned.

D. Ways of Improving Empathy for Language Learners

It is now commonly accepted that a good command of English vocabulary and grammar does not mean a good mastery of English. A student cannot hope to obtain ICC competence without a good knowledge of the culture of the target language.

When a student enters a university, he or she has usually studied English for between ten and twelve years. Furthermore, he or she may have been exposed to English television channels, English daily newspapers, and English movies. So a student at college level may be quite an advanced learner of English. Chinese students tend to achieve linguistic mastery of a foreign language to the point as having a complete knowledge of the language, but fail to achieve a grasp of the culture reflected in that language. Hence lack the proper intercultural communicative competence. They are more successful at acquiring accuracy than appropriateness, which may result in latent errors or misunderstandings. The task for English teaching goes far beyond the teaching of vocabulary and grammar. The goal of improving students' communicative competence inevitably comes to the top of the list that language teachers care about. The separation of language and culture teaching hinders the students' competence acquisition, both linguistic and communicative. Generally, the ELT process is not a dynamic and systematic process in China. What this thesis needs to do is to suggest some ways of improving empathy in the process of cultural learning, hence improving intercultural communicative competence.

III. PREPARING FOR EMPATHY

Because empathy is a reciprocal act, we must be expressive in our communication with our partners (unless we are interacting with someone from a culture that values interpersonal restraint). We cannot expect individuals from other cultures to offer us verbal and nonverbal messages about their internal states if our behavior is not in tandem with their efforts.

Empathy can be enhanced through awareness of specific behaviors that members of a particular culture or co-culture

might find impertinent or insulting.

Empathy can be increased if we resist the tendency to interpret the other's verbal and nonverbal actions from our culture's orientation. What we need to do in order to be more effective is to make a conscious decision concerning our basic attitudes toward ourselves and toward our relationships to others. Learn to suspend, or at least keep in check, the cultural perspective that is unique to our experiences. Knowing how the frame of reference of other cultures differs from our own will assist us in accurately reading what meaning lies behind words and actions. For example, in the Chinese culture, as a means of "saving face," people will often say one thing when they mean something else. Knowing this can help us understand what is actually being expressed.

When two people speaking different languages come together, one of them must speak the language of the other or they must choose a third language that both of them can understand if they are to communicate. However, even though we are going to show our empathy in order to communicate effectively, it is still important for us to maintain our own identity, i.e., being able to "come back from others' shoes". For example, a Chinese may speak English to communicate with an American. He may love the language and the culture, but if the Chinese tries to imitate Americans then he has gone beyond the purpose of showing empathy to his partner. The same case is also true to all foreign language learners in China. Therefore, we need to empathize but at the same time should also try to avoid over-empathizing.

IV. CONCLUSION

This thesis has referred to quite a few understandings of the concept empathy, which include its definitions in aesthetics and psychology and its application in syntax, pragmatics, and intercultural communication. Since empathy was introduced into linguistics, it has aroused great interest of many linguists. Apart from Kuno's application into syntax, empathy is widely used in intercultural communication, and it is in this field that empathy obtains great practical value.

In a world that foreign language becomes an important tool for intercultural communication, communicative effectiveness is vital for communicators. Many scholars suggest that a relationship exists between an individual's ability to use the communication process and his ability to function in society.

Showing empathy represents an important dimension of communicator's attitudes. It plays both an active and vital role in verbal communication, especially in intercultural communication, for it is an attempt to understand the other person's position and respond as accurately and appropriately as possible. This thesis mainly focuses on the acquisition of intercultural communicative competence by improving empathy ability. Needless to say, the exploration of the phenomenon of empathy in the linguistic field and in intercultural communication only touches a very limited number of aspects. This thesis only intends to offer an introduction to those who are interested in this issue and who wish to make further research.

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EFL Learners' Language Proficiency and Their Performance on (Non) Literary Inference Demanding Tests

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Abstract—**The present study aimed to explore whether there is any relationship between the performance of EFL learners on inference demanding tests of (non)literary text and their English language proficiency. Through convenience method of sampling, 30 Iranian senior students of English translation B.A. both of male and female genders, ranging from 19 to 30 years of age took part in the investigation. Once their language proficiency was measured by means of Oxford Placement Test, participants took part in an inferencing test constructed by the researcher consisting of two cloze tests - one non-literary and one literary text. The results of the test of Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient revealed that there was a positive and strong relationship between the learners' language proficiency and their ability in answering inferencing questions. This study is particularly important as most reading materials are far from being shallow and require deep interpretation.**

Index Terms—**EFL, proficiency, literary text, non-literary text, inference**

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is indispensable to academic, social and financial success. However, in practice, reading comprehension has not been in the center of attentions. Since the clarification of the complexities in reading comprehension remains vague, and since it is reckoned that reading comprehension is an intricate behaviour that continues to be bewildering, one may not set about analysing it in its wholeness. Therefore, it seems critical to study particular aspects of the process as a means of pursuing progression in the assessment of the entire procedure in reading comprehension. Therefore, it would be highly beneficial to offer an account of existing research and practice in the field of Literature and language teaching with special but not exclusive reference to EFL material development in foreign language studies.

There is more to reading than applying skills and analysing texts and learners need not only to decode the text but also to think through, experience while anticipating, questioning, puzzling over, and imagining it. However, many EFL teachers attempt to emphasize immediate and direct components of reading passage. Pennell (2002) concluded that very little attention is given to teaching students the strategies of reading comprehension and the teachers' assessment addresses students understanding rather than teaching them how to comprehend. Thus, one of the many problems students face nowadays is poverty of explicit comprehension strategy instruction on the side of EFL teachers.

The pressing problem here is that most materials used in the field of language learning are far from being shallow. They notably require EFL learners to process a text based on their own prior knowledge and reasoning to fill in the intentional gaps the author wishes readers to. In other words, EFL readers highly need inference making ability to comprehend fully and interact with the passage. It is with the practice of inference as a phase of reading comprehension that this study is most concerned.

What EFL teachers should, therefore, bear in mind is that it may not be the English language (i.e., a linguistic factor) that impedes successful reading comprehension; rather, it may be the EFL learners' unfamiliarity with content of the text. EFL teachers and material developers should therefore provide relevant information to their students so that they better comprehend the texts, and such information can be easily accessed through literary texts. A major justification is that literary texts are life-like and of great pleasure or relevance to student's everyday life. Appropriateness of integrating literature in EFL/ESL teaching is recognized by several authors and researchers (Bagherkazemi & Alemi, 2010; Bhuvanesvari & Jacob, 2011; Carter, 1997; Duff & Maley, 2003; Gajdusek, 1988; Khatib, Rezaei, & Derakhshan, 2011; Lazar, 1994; McKay, 1982; Savvidou, 2004). The current study, thus, is based on this hypothesis that not only is literature a source of individual delight, but also a ingenious language learning instrument that helps EFL learners infer

veiled ideas between the lines. This research, thus, seeks to find if there is any relationship between EFL learners' language proficiency and their performance on inference demanding tests.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Literature and Language Instruction

Rationalizations for the merging literary texts with EFL/ESL classrooms are abundant and the great number of researchers, and instructors who have written and applied literature in defence of such integration tells its own tale. The bases for such choice are almost universal among many, and the following will be an account of the most favourable ones.

Among the many reasons to embed literature in the teaching of language, Khatib et al. (2011) have named motivation as a great factor. Learning a language serves a purpose and according to Bhuvaneswari and Jacob (2011) the most salient one is to make the learners learn the language and use it infallibly. They also went on to claim:

This is done best when the learners are involved actively in the learning process. Involvement comes only if sufficient interest is aroused and sustained in the classroom….Catering to the needs of the second language learners, the syllabus should be revised and the curriculum should include short stories which will evince keen interest among the second language learners. (p. 156)

In his article on using literature in EFL classes, Aguero (n. d.) held that "Helping students see how literature relates to their lives usually makes them like literature" (p. 4). Mackay (1982), to further support the use of literature in EFL/ESL classroom, has argued that students take pleasure in reading literary text as it can motivate them to interact with the text which in turn may increase their reading proficiency. Motivation is reckoned as a major feature in literary text based on Duff and Maley's (1990) assumption.

One instance of a literary genre which has abundantly referred to as a great source for reading in EFL classes and that serves as a great source of motivation is short story. What makes stories especially interesting in Erkaya's term was "Since short stories usually have a beginning, middle and an end, they encourage students at all levels of language proficiency to continue reading them until the end to find out how the conflict is resolved" (p. 5). This is captured best by Bhuvaneswari and Jacob (2011) as such literary text is interesting and short enough to minimise the distraction level thus, focused attention rises and consequently lexical and structural complexities are simpler to comprehend.

Culture, in its broad sense, might help the language learners in different directions and thus functions as an alternative reason for incorporation of literature in EFL instruction. Several scholars have compromised such idea. Zoreda and Lima (2008) stated that literature can greatly help introduce the features of U.S. and British culture while expanding the Language learners' ability to read in a foreign language. In addition, it removes the dark perspective EFL learners might have toward the target language culture. This is especially important when we consider this attitude as barriers on the way of acquiring a new language (as cited in Bagherkazemi & Alemi, 2010). Merits of acquiring cultural knowledge through use of literature in EFL/ESL syllabus were looked at from a different angle by Ronnqvist and Sell (1994):

Reading literature not only gives learners a chance to contextualize on the basis of the cultural knowledge they already have, but can encourage them to use their brains in an effort to acquire the new knowledge they need in order to understand passages which puzzle them. By using and acquiring cultural information in this way, foreign language learners are in fact behaving like members of the target community, and it is reasonable to hope that for some learners the reading of target-language literature will stimulate the development of an integrative motivation in their learning. (p. 125)

McKay, too, recognizes how valuable literature is to enhance the tolerance of language learners concerning the cultural differences which in turn might trigger language learners to create their own imaginative works (1982). This question might seem critical to answer that whether there is any use in indulging one in world of imagination where there is no right or wrong, the kind of world where all seem to be equally good. The response to such question was best captured in Frye's term (1964, as cited in McKay, 1982) holding that "One of the most obvious uses, I think, is its encouragement of tolerance" (p. 531).

Another common cited rational for the use of literature is its contribution to linguistic knowledge. On their list of the reasons why literature is highly useful in foreign language setting, Khatib et al. (2011) have called literary texts specifically novels and dramas as good extensive and poetry as great intensive reading practice. They also continue to claim that literature serves as a good ground for writing practice. They are not alone there though. Thom (2008) equally has claimed that literary text can give EFL learners plentiful chances "to use and develop such sub skills as deduction of meaning from linguistic and situational context, relating text to knowledge and experience of the world, responding to text, creative writing, etc." (p. 122). One possible reason for such fruitfulness as a resourceful language teaching instruments is perhaps best explained by Gajdusek (1998) who believed that literary texts have "internal coherence" which makes interpretation of them rather simpler. In addition, literature benefits from "conscious patterning" which implies the pattern of any literary text is to connect intellectual, emotional and physical experiences.

Literature is a multi-faceted field in which authenticity is a critical aspect. Thornbury (2006) has defined authentic texts as "A classroom text is authentic if it was originally written for non-classroom audience. A newspaper article and pop song are thus considered authentic, whereas a coursebook drill or dialogue is not" (p. 21). Savvidou (2004), to press

the significance of authentic contents and specifically literary ones, claimed inseparability of literature and language and named headlines and advertisements as common examples of discourse which exploit literary language. One author and researcher who has backed the use of authentic materials in English language teaching (ELT) is Widdowson:

If you are going to teach real English as it functions in contextually appropriate ways, rather than a collection of linguistic forms in contrived classroom situations, then you need to refer to, and defer to, how people who have the language as an Ll actually put it to communicative use. (1996, p. 67)

Bagherkazemi and Alemi (2010) cited Van (2009) as claiming that authenticity provides the basis for meaningful context to improve the understanding and inference ability in EFL learners. Such ideas pave the way for considering longer term goals of acquiring language. McKay (1982) named one major aim of acquiring language as:

The question is one of whether or not the study of literature can in any way contribute to academic and/or occupational goals. Certainly, in so far as literature can foster an overall increase in reading proficiency, it will contribute to these goals … For some students, literature may provide the affective, attitudinal and experiential factors which will motivate them to read. As such literary texts can aid in the development of reading proficiency and in this way contribute to students' academic and occupational objectives. (p. 530)

As indicated, justifications for utilising literature in EFL classrooms are numerous and they can all be found summarised by Van (2009, as cited in Bagherkazemi & Alemi, 2010) who has pointed out a number of reasons why literature is highly fruitful in EFL classroom:

• It provides meaningful contexts;
• It involves a profound range of vocabulary, dialogues and prose;
• It appeals to imagination and enhances creativity;
• It develops cultural awareness;
• It encourages critical thinking;
• It is in line with CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) principles.

Selection of literary text is another major consideration in EFL program since each kind might serve different functions and our criteria should be in line with those purposes (McKay, 1982; Povey, 1967; Thom, 2008). But, prior to selection of any literary text one must identify its main distinguishing features from that of non-literary.

Carter (1997) considered all languages literary, some more literary than some others. He has also proposed some criteria for specifying literariness in language: (1) Literary language is medium dependent since it creates a world of internal reference and depends only on its own power to project. (2) Literary language enjoys the notion or re-registration which means such language welcomes any register, style, or word. (3) Interaction of level or semantic density is another feature of literary language. That is to say, interaction of numerous overlaid codes and levels is considered as more literary than a text where there are fewer number of levels at work or where they are present but do not interact as densely. (4) Each word in literary language might possess more than one meaning. (5) Interaction of author and reader is another criterion specific to more literary texts. This is named as displaced interaction. (6) Final feature of more literary languages is discourse patterning at supra-sentential level (pp. 129-135). Discourse types, in Kinneavy's view, are expressive which concentrates on personal expression (letters, diaries, etc.), transactional, focusing on passage and reader (advertising, instructions, etc.), and poetic, that presses the significance of form and language (short story, novel, drama, poetry, etc.) (1983, as cited in Savvidou, 2004).

ome guidelines for choosing literary genres, according to Nga (2003), are appropriateness, cultural barriers, and pleasure. By appropriateness, the level of difficulty in terms of grammar, lexis, and style in connection with language proficiency is intended. Another factor to choose a text of literary taste would be the learners' difficulty in dealing with unknown cultural aspects. And finally provided that readers enjoy what they read, greater understanding and interpretation of text will be achieved (as cited in Thom, 2008).

Text type can be chosen and used according to the local classroom needs such as language teaching and learning objectives, learners' target language proficiency level and accessibility of each text type. McKay (1982) has called attention to young adults as they are mostly not in an appropriate level to read current literature. She suggested taking readability into accounts while choosing a literary text. An alternative way is to select literary work which is written for this age range. Khatib and Nourzadeh (2011) cited Hadaway and Young (2006) as enumerating the factors in six criteria:

• Content accessibility: Is the topic familiar?
• Language accessibility: Is the language used in proper level of difficulty?
• Visual accessibility: Are there enough illustrations?
• Genre accessibility: Are different genres available?
• Cultural accessibility: Is the text culturally related to the EFL learners' lives?
• Accuracy and organization accessibility: Is the text properly organized?

B. Literature and Inference

Interdependency of literary texts and inferring ability best manifests itself in the definitions scholars have made about inference. Keene and Zimmermann (1997, as cited in Kopitski, 2007) in their try to explicate inference defined the term as "when we read, we stretch the limits of the literal text by folding our experience and belief into the literal meanings

in the text, creating a new interpretation, an inference" (p. 147). In line with such description, Beers (2003, as cited in Kopitski, 2007) also held that "an inference is the ability to connect what is in the text with what is in the mind to create an educated guess" (pp. 61-62). Both definitions stress the role of interaction between the reader's prior knowledge and a given text. Considering aforementioned controversies, the importance of literary texts seems even more obvious.

Inference is not limited to reading comprehension; there are several moments in everyday life when one needs to infer and draw conclusions since inferring is about reading faces, gestures, tone as well as reading text. One instance of inference in everyday life is joke. Jokes are funny because of the implied meaning understood by the teller and the audience. A joke is told when the teller has a presupposition that there is a shared knowledge between the teller and the listener; otherwise there would be nothing funny in the statement. In order to infer the intended meaning of the joke teller, the listener combines the clues in the joke with the information he/she already has.

There has been consensus over whether comprehension skill correlates with inference ability. Cain et al. (2001) suggested:

Even when knowledge was equally available to all participants, poor comprehenders build incomplete representations of the text: They are often able to integrate information at a local level but are unable to produce a coherent integrated model of the text as a whole. Poor comprehenders' difficulties with inference making are a likely cause of their text-level comprehension problems. (p. 857)

In the same study, the authors point out the skilled comprehenders' ability to read more as a key factor to acquire more information which in turn leads to superior inference making compared to poor comprehenders. Walls (1986) summarized the reasons why good readers draw more inferences compared with poor ones: Firstly, they possess a more extensive prior knowledge. Secondly, they enjoy a higher intelligence and a better memory capacity. Finally, their cognitive learning style is field independent. Kispal (2008), on the other hand, enumerated the reasons why poor comprehenders fail to make viable inferences, if any. It is supposed that they are less aware:

- that a text should make sense to them
- that they should be monitoring their understanding for potential inconsistencies
- about strategies to adopt when embarking on a text
- about strategies to adopt when an inconsistency occurs
- about the need to draw inferences at all
- about the information that is relevant to the drawing of inferences

A comprehensive study of inference types is carried out by Kispal (2008) who has cited the most frequent inferences, reckoning some overlaps between them:

- Coherence inferences (also known as text-connecting or inter-sentence inferences): Integrity of text is sustained through these types of inference. For instance, in the sentence *Mary asked her friend to shoulder the responsibility*, the reader will recognise that the pronoun 'her' addresses Mary to fully grasp the meaning of the text.

- Elaborative inferences (also known as gap-filling inferences): Mental representation of the text is augmented through these types of inferences. For example, in the sentences "*As soon as Susan saw the criminal, she called the police,*" the reader will make use of life experience and general knowledge to understand that the police would arrest the criminal to supply the connection between these sentences.

- Local inferences: These create a coherent representation at the local level of sentences and paragraphs. This class of inferences includes:
    1. Coherence inferences (described above).
    2. "Case structure role assignments", e.g. *Dan stood his bike against the tree*. The reader needs to realise that the tree is assigned to a location role.
    3. "Antecedent causal" inferences, e.g. *He rushed off, leaving his bike unchained*. The reader would need to infer that Dan was in a hurry and left his bicycle vulnerable to theft.

- Global inferences: These types address the entire text to create coherence. The reader should infer overarching notions regarding the theme, main point or moral of a text by relying on local pieces of information.

- On-line inferences: These include making inferences automatically while reading.

- Off-line inferences: These include making inferences strategically after reading.

Pennell (2002) cited Barrett (1974) as describing eight kinds of inference: *Inferring supporting details:* Guessing further facts the author could have included in the text to make it more informative, and attractive. *Inferring the main idea:* Finding out the theme, or moral that is not explicitly stated in the text. *Inferring sequence:* Speculating what event may have taken place between two explicit incidents or hypothesising about what could happen next. *Inferring comparisons:* surmising similarities and differences in characters, times, or places. *Inferring cause-and-effect relationships:* Inferring the motives of characters and their interactions with others and with time and place. *Inferring character traits:* Hypothesizing about the nature of characters based on the explicit clues in the text. *Predicting outcomes:* Guessing the outcome of a text after reading the beginning part of it. *Inferring about figurative language:* Inferring literal meanings from the author's figurative use of language.

Walls (1986) cited Schank (1975) as classifying inferences into slot-fulfilling and text-connecting types. Slot-fulfilling inference reproduces a hidden act or event in a text; such inference highly needs background knowledge. Text-

connecting inference elucidates relationship between explicit acts and events which heavily depends on linguistic knowledge. Frederiksen (1976, as cited in Walls, 1986) has categorized inferences in terms of operations:

• Lexical class: understanding pronoun referents and specific meanings of multiple meaning words.

• Identification class: Inferences involving attributes, location, degree and time that are necessary for identifying persons, objects, places and events.

• Frame class: Inferences related to instruments, results, goals, sources, themes and acts.

• Event class: It involves inferring events.

• Algebraic class: It involves inferences of quantity.

• Truth value class: Inferences requiring that a judgment be made on the truth or falsity of a situation.

• Macrostructure class: Inferring superordinate and subordinate relationships and ideas in a text.

• Dependency class: It deals with inferences of a causal and conditional nature.

III. METHODOLOGY

This section outlines the steps taken in the process of carrying out the study. Detailed report will address the introduction to the participants, instruments, and the procedures employed in data collection. Finally, a thorough data analysis entails the report. The following research question is the focus of this study: Is there any relationship between EFL learners' language proficiency and their performance on inference demanding tests?

A. Participants

The sample in this study was made up of 30 male and female Iranian senior university students of English translation B.A., studying at Islamic Azad University, Karaj Branch, Iran, ranging from 19 to 30 years of age. The convenience method of sampling was utilised. All participants had passed a nationwide university entrance exam to be eligible for admitting in the aforementioned university and had attended reading comprehension courses during the past 6 semesters. The sample was true representative of the entire population given that they were all majoring at an English language major. Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered to homogenize the attendants based on their general language proficiency. Participants whose scores on OPT were beyond the range of $\pm$ 2 standard deviation from the mean (56.77) were set to be discarded; however, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test indicated a normal distribution of scores.

B. Instrumentation

Two tests contents were developed and administered. A validated test of language proficiency (Oxford Placement Test), retrieved from *www.oup.com*, was administered as a means of homogenizing the participants in terms of their language proficiency. The test consists of 60 multiple-choice items. An analytic look at the test suggests that language components tested were grammar, vocabulary, as well as English reading comprehension. The allotted time for all 60 items was 30 minutes with 5 extra minutes to transfer the answers to the answer sheets. An answer sheet was devised to ease the process of correction.

A cloze test including 47 multiple-choice items was constructed by the researcher. The test consisted of a non-literary text with 24 items and a literary text (poetry) with 23 items. Two texts were stapled together as the booklet form. In order to determine whether the items that appeared in the inference demanding test were of proper functioning quality, it was vital for the cloze tests to be piloted and revised. The total test can be found in appendix A.

The purpose of this process was to screen the malfunctioning items so that the most suitable distractors would be included in the final version of the cloze test. The researcher included six alternatives in each item. After the pilot administration, the items were thoroughly analysed. After item analysis, those four alternatives that had the best discrimination index values were selected for every 47 items and the residue was discarded.

The non-literary passage entitled as "why the Yogic way for food?" was chosen from the book *Essential Reading for IELTS* (Gordon & Harding, 2007) with a readability of 19.80. The poetry is chosen from one of the collections of Maya Angelou under the name *Phenomenal Woman* (1978).

Poetry is a type of text where imagination and figurative language dominates which in turn undermines the validity of readability formulas. Therefore, it was decided that the best way to control the poem's difficulty and readability would be to ask 15 EFL teachers for their reflection on the text difficulty. Twelve out of 15 felt the two texts were almost of the same difficulty. It was further supported with piloting the test on 10 upper-intermediate EFL language learners who were studying Summit 1A from Top Notch series. Four of the test takers claimed that the poem was more difficult than the prose.

Through test piloting, a sufficient test time was determined (35 minutes). The reason why poetry is chosen among a long list of literary genres and styles is the fact that poetry is symbol of literariness in literature which could best carry the aims of the present study. The questions for both texts were devised in a way that their alternatives directly tested the test takers' inference making ability.

Participants' inference ability was tested against these misleading factors; some of which might have triggered them to choose the correct response which was considered as one of the research imposed limitations. The alternatives marked as 'close' could equally be replaced by the correct response; however, participants' ability to guess, infer and retrieve the original response was desired.

TABLE I
SPECIFICATIONS OF INFERENCE CLOZE TEST

Test \ No.	Words	Items	Too Informal	Too Formal	Close	Grammar	Wrong Word Choice	Background Knowledge	Context	Rhyme
Non-literary	213	24	9	4	47	30	17	6	5	1
Literary	189	23	5	11	33	16	23	1	6	0

Alternatives for these two tests were too informal, too formal, grammatically incorrect, or wrong word choice. Some other factors affecting the responses were considered as the test takers' background knowledge, context familiarity, and rhyme perception.

C. Test Administration Procedure

The researcher utilised OPT to place the participants in a range of two standard deviations below and above the mean (56.77). Before administering the test and after the distribution of test booklets as well as answer sheet, the researcher explained the instructions in participants' native language (Persian). After 35 minutes, they were asked to put their pencils down and all booklets recollected for data analysis.

A week later, the inference test was administered. The test composed of one non-literary and one literary cloze test, each with 24 and 23 multiple-choice items respectively. The two cloze passages were in the same booklet. The text length for the non-literary passage was minimally longer which in turn demanded more time to be answered. The Persian test instruction was provided in the test booklet. Participants collectively finished on time which itself suggested the sufficiency of time allotted. Finally, by analyzing the gathered data from the remaining booklets, and parametric testing of the statistical significance for the hypothesis, the researcher tried to testify the research hypothesis.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The tests administered among all participants were scored by the researcher. In the placement and inference tests, every true response to each item was awarded 1 point; while, for each item that was unmarked or marked erroneously, zero score was assigned. Since the number of questions varied among the test and that the researcher intended to come to a correlation between them, percentage of each score would act as a true indicator of values. Different statistical procedures were performed for the analysis of the scores. Measures of central tendency including mean scores and standard deviations of the placement and inference tests were tabulated.

The data were undertaken test of normality to decide on the parametric/nonparametric tests. To study the relationship between the proficiency level of the participants and their general performance on both literary and non-literary tests, the participants' test scores were input to SPSS and Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient (PPMCC) was conducted.

Figure 1 shows the frequency of the scores obtained in the test. It can be seen from the figure that scores of two test takers were below 40 and accumulation of scores is between 40 and 70 which consist of over 73 per cent of total scores obtained. Accordingly, 20 percent of participants had a score over 70.
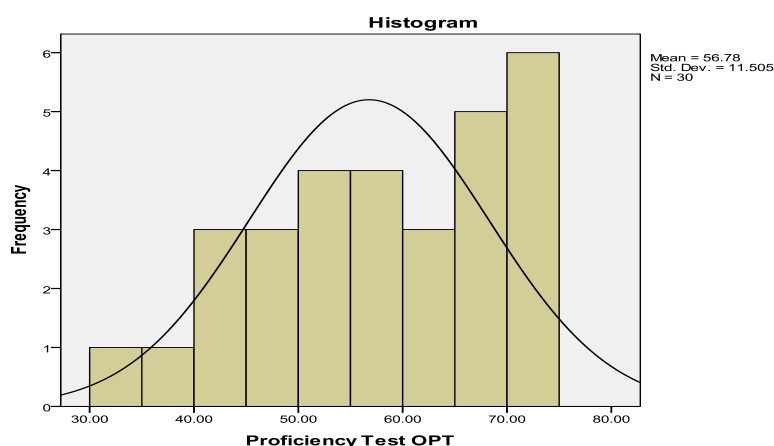

Figure 1. Distribution of Participants in Oxford Placement Test (OPT).

As Table 2 shows, minimum and maximum scores obtained in the Oxford Placement Test were 30 and 73 respectively which suggests a range of almost 43, and a mean of 56.77. The variance for all the scores obtained equals 132.36 with a standard deviation of 11.50 from the mean.

TABLE II.
STATSITICAL DESCRIPTIVE DATA OF THE PARTICIPANTS IN OXFORD PLACEMENT TEST

Test	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Mode	Variance	Std. Deviation
Oxford Placement Test	30	43.33	30	73.33	56.7753	58.33	50	132.364	11.50494

Based on the obtained results consistency of items in Oxford Placement Test was measured through K-R 21 and thus its reliability was (K-R 21= 0.99).

TABLE III.
RELIABILITY OF OXFORD PLACEMENT TEST

Number of Students	Number of Items	K-R 21 Method
30	60	0.9934

The Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test approves the distribution function of the results as normal. The result of the performed test appears in the Table 4.

TABLE IV.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST FOR OPT

N		30
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	56.7753
	Std. Deviation	11.50494
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.708
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.697

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

The following boxplot in Figure 2 visualises the degree of dispersion and skewness in the data, and identifies outliers. It also eases the study of the distributional characteristics of scores in OPT.
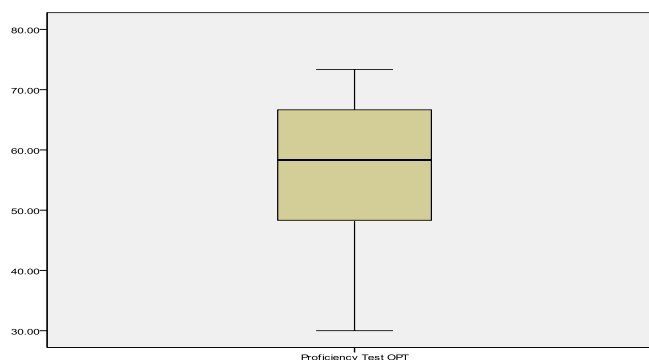

Figure 2. Boxplot for OPT.

According to Figure 2, range of scores in OPT is relatively wide and the lower whisker is a tall one suggesting that 25% of scores below the lower quartile are dispersed across a wider range compared to upper whisker. The box, however, has a median right in the midpoint of quartile 2 and 3 to show a symmetric dispersion with a small skewedness. It can also be seen from the figure that there is no outlier in the score which implies that all scores lie within the lowest and highest value. This, in turn, suggests that distribution of the population from which sample was taken is normal.

An analytic look at the following figures indicates that distributions of the two tests of inference are bell shaped, thus normal since many scores accumulated in the center.
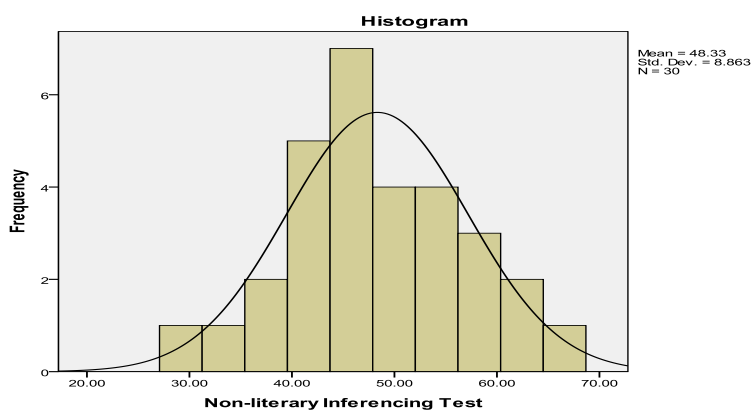

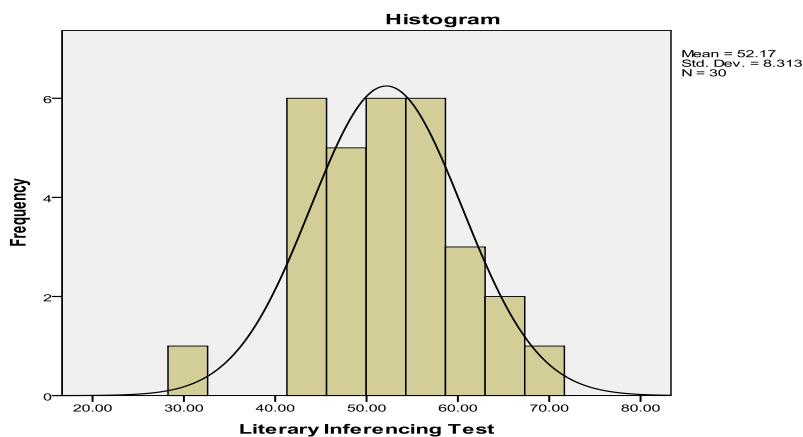Figure 3. Distribution of participants in non-literary inference test.

Figure 4. Distribution of Participants in literary inference test.

The following figure depicts the degree of dispersion and skewness in the data, and identifies outliers in non-literary and literary inference tests.
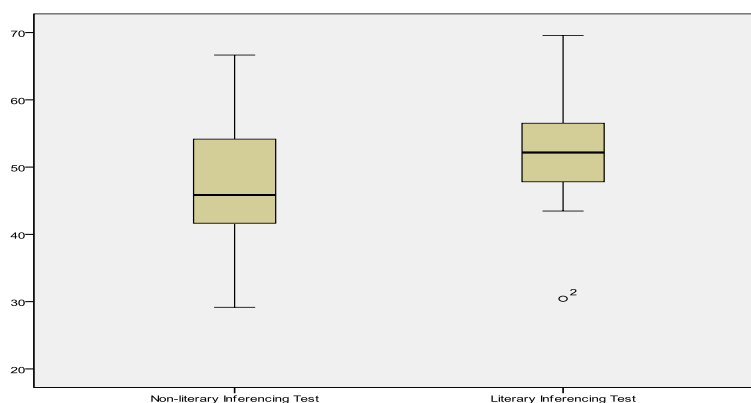

Figure 5. Boxplot for (Non)literary Inference Tests.

An analytic look at Figure 5 implies that the height of non-literary inference test boxplot is normal, suggesting that distribution of scores is relatively consistent. Lower and upper whiskers are almost equal in size, but the second and third quartiles have different height and the median is closer to lower quartile. This shows that the top 50% of scores have greater variety. It can also be seen from the figure that there is no outlier in the scores which implies that all scores lie within the lowest and highest value. This, in turn, suggests that distribution of the population from which sample was taken is normal.

The boxplot for literary inference test, however, is situated in the upper part of the scores range. The lower whisker is a short one suggesting that 25% of scores below the lower quartile are dispersed across a shorter range compared to upper whisker. The box, however, has a median right in the midpoint of quartile 2 and 3 to show a symmetric dispersion. It can also be seen from the figure that there is only one outlier in the score which implies that almost all scores lie within the lowest and highest value. This, in turn, suggests that distribution of the population from which sample was taken is normal.

The obtained mean scores of non-literary (NL) and literary (L) inference tests for total number of participants (N=30) were (NL = 48.32, L = 52.16) and a standard deviation of (NL = 8.86, L = 8.31). Non-literary inference test had a range of 37.50 while the range for literary inference test was 39.13. As the Table 5 demonstrates, the participants' responses to both tests were relatively consistent.

TABLE V.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS IN(NON)LITERARY INFERENCE TESTS

Test	N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Mode	Variance	Std. Deviation
Non-literary Test	30	37.50	29.16	66.66	48.3297	45.83	45.83	78.550	8.86282
Literary Test	30	39.13	30.43	69.56	52.1683	52.17	43.47[a]	69.102	8.31276

a. Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown.

The calculated Kolmogorov-Smirnov test in Table 6 implies the normal distribution of the two tests (NL = .791, L = .626) and the feasibility of the parametric study.

TABLE VI.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST FOR NON-LITERARY INFERENCE TEST

		Non-literary Inferencing Test	Literary Inferencing Test
N		30	30
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	48.3297	52.1683
	Std. Deviation	8.86282	8.31276
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.791	.626
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.559	.828

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.

With regard to the nature of the hypothesis in the present investigation which is mainly concentrated on measuring the correlation (linear dependence) between the two sets of variables – proficiency and inference ability – the researcher collected the quantifiable data from participants by means of Oxford Placement Test, non-literary/literary inference cloze tests. Due to normality of the data, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (PPMCC) was conducted. Considering the 0.95 level of significance and *p-value* <.05, the decision making principle is as follows:

a. If the significance of two-tailed correlation coefficient is less than or equal to (0.05), the null hypothesis is rejected (*p-value ≤ .05*).

b. If the significance of two-tailed correlation coefficient is more than (0.05), the null hypothesis is confirmed (*p-value > .05*).

The hypothesis of this study states that: "There is no relationship between EFL learners' language proficiency and their performance on inference demanding tests." In order to evaluate the strength and direction of relationship between different test scores correlations were computed. Table 7 presents the related data.

TABLE VII.
RELATION BETWEEN LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND INFERENCE TESTS

		Proficiency Test OPT	Non-literary Inferencing Test	Literary Inferencing Test
Proficiency Test OPT	Pearson Correlation	1	.857[**]	.624[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	30	30	30
Non-literary Inferencing Test	Pearson Correlation	.857[**]	1	.390[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.033
	N	30	30	30
Literary Inferencing Test	Pearson Correlation	.624[**]	.390[*]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.033	
	N	30	30	30

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The results in Table 7 show that there is a significant relationship between language proficiency and non-literary inference test (r= .857, p=.000), with a strong and positive correlation. As one would expect from the related literature, there was a positive significant correlation between language proficiency and literary inference test (r=.624, p=.000), while there is a moderate and positive correlation between the two inference tests at 0.05 level (r=.390, p=.033). In short, there was a positive and strong relationship between the language proficiency of learners and their ability in answering inference demanding questions; thus, the null hypothesis is also rejected. In the next section, major findings of the present study will be noted.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study was set up to confirm or reject the effect of general language proficiency level on how they deal with inference demanding texts. One major issue explored in this study was a possible relationship between EFL learners' language proficiency and their performance on inference demanding tests. Interpreting the findings of correlation coefficient, the researcher was able to conclude that there was a strong and positive relationship between EFL learners' language proficiency and their performance on inference demanding tests. This superior performance of proficient readers over poor ones, when it comes to inference ability, is consistent with most previous research studies (Jenkins, 1986; Phillips, 1989). Based on the analysed data from the current study, it is reasonable to hold with previous studies.

The possible reasons for the superiority of the proficient readers are that they use the facts, the hints, and their prior knowledge to piece together the bits of meaning. The facts and clues lead to assumptions which then lead to conclusions. Thus, poor readers might not extract enough evidence and clues from the text, which in turn can lead to weaker inferences (Pennell, 2002).

In conclusion, it is unquestionable that literature is of great importance in EFL learning since the benefits it serves are numerous as it is a multi-dimensional means to create a safe ground for language learning and teaching.

APPENDIX A. INFERENCE TESTS

INSTRUCTIONS: *Choose the most appropriate answer. You will have **15 minutes**.*

Phenomenal Woman by Maya Angelou
Pretty women wonder where my secret lies.
I'm not cute or built to ….1…..a fashion model's size
But when I ….2…. to tell them,
They think I'm ….3…. lies.
I say,
It's in the….4…. of my arms
The span of my hips,
The stride of my step,
The curl ….5…. my lips.
I'm a woman
Phenomenally.
….6…..woman,
That's me.
I walk into …7… room
Just as cool as you please,
….8…. to a man,
The fellows stand or
….9…. down on their knees.
Then they swarm ….10…. me,
A hive of honey bees.
I…11….,
It's the fire in my eyes,
….12…. the flash of my teeth,
The swing….13…. my waist,
And the joy in my ….14…..
I'm a woman
Phenomenally.
Phenomenal woman,
….15….'s me.
Men themselves have wondered
What…..16…. see in me.
They try so much
….17…. they can't touch
My inner mystery.
….18…. I try to show them
They say ….19…. still can't see.
I say,
It…20…. in the arch of my back,
The….21….of my smile,
The ride of my ….22….,
The grace of my style.
I'm ….23…. woman
Phenomenally.
Phenomenal woman,
That's me.

1	**A** fit		**B** meet	
	C the requirements of		**D** suit	
2	**A** start		**B** commence	
	C begin		**D** mean	
3	**A** liking		**B** telling	
	C loving		**D** saying	
4	**A** grasp		**B** range	
	C scope		**D** reach	
5	**A** in		**B** at	
	C of		**D** on	
6	**A** phenomenal		**B** wondrous	
	C magnificent		**D** terrific	
7	**A** the		**B** a	
	C my		**D** this	
8	**A** next		**B** a	
	C first		**D** then	
9	**A** drop		**B** go	
	C come		**D** fall	
10	**A** around		**B** above	
	C aloud		**D** about	
11	**A** deny		**B** tell	
	C say		**D** cry	
12	**A** and		**B** but	
	C with		**D** or	
13	**A** in		**B** at	
	C on		**D** of	
14	**A** eyes		**B** feet	
	C hands		**D** heart	
15	**A** this		**B** it	
	C she		**D** that	
16	**A** people		**B** friends	
	C enemies		**D** they	
17	**A** however		**B** while	
	C but		**D** whenever	
18	**A** when		**B** if	
	C as		**D** whenever	
19	**A** people		**B** friends	
	C enemies		**D** they	
20	**A** is		**B** 's	
	C isn't		**D** is not	
21	**A** shine		**B** sun	
	C love		**D** fun	
22	**A** bikes		**B** breasts	
	C cheeks		**D** horses	
23	**A** the		**B** that	
	C a		**D** this	

*INSTRUCTIONS: Choose the most appropriate answer. You will have **20 minutes**.*

Why the Yogic way for food?

Yoga is the only science that has placed great emphasis on food over centuries. In fact, there is a whole branch - ……….1…..… Anna Yoga - devoted to food for health and ……2……..

Over centuries, Yoga has developed a concept …..3…… a balanced whole-food diet and an eating ……4……. . These principles of good eating use powerful ……..5…….. which help in maintaining a strong and ……6……..body, a stress-free mind and a positive ……7…….. within this mixed-up world.

Never has ……8…….. Yogic philosophy of a balanced whole-food diet been ……..9……. more than today when 97% of all ……..10……. disorders can be traced to a faulty …….11…….. and diet.

It has been observed that (East) …….12…….. civilizations suffer least from bowel problems, constipation, ………13…….. and other food related disorders such as ……..14…….. Do you know why? Because the Indian …….15……. of cooking and eating draws heavily from …..16…… yogic philosophy of eating!

Yoga does not …..17……. food into vitamins, minerals, protein etc..The ……18……philosophy is that the true benefits of these …….19…… can be had only when they are ……20……. isolated but are kept as much in their natural form as possible.

The key to ……21…… health is to have a balanced whole-food ……22…….. . A balanced diet ensures that all the …….23…….. of digestion work smoothly-absorption, assimilation and elimination. ……..24……… balanced whole-food diet ensures a healthy you!

1	A dubbed	B called	
	C named	D denominated	
2	A delight	B gratification	
	C pleasure	D happiness	
3	A in	B at	
	C on	D of	
4	A philosophy	B possibility	
	C philosophies	D possibilities	
5	A techniques	B approaches	
	C approaches	D ways	
6	A healthier	B healthy	
	C healthily	D health	
7	A feeling	B atmosphere	
	C spirituality	D belief	
8	A that	B such	
	C --	D this	
9	A required	B demanded	
	C needed	D desired	
10	A healthier	B healthiest	
	C healthily	D health	
11	A nutrition	B nutriment	
	C nourishment	D nutrient	
12	A Swedish	B Indian	
	C Canadian	D Belgian	
13	A indigestion	B headache	
	C fatigue	D backache	
14	A obesity	B fatness	
	C bigness	D heaviness	
15	A philosophy	B lifestyle	
	C logic	D possibility	
16	A --	B this	
	C the	D such	
17	A provide	B analyze	
	C dissect	D synthesize	
18	A yoga	B yogi	
	C yogic	D --	
19	A components	B ingredients	
	C elements	D constituents	
20	A never	B not only	
	C --	D not	
21	A true	B real	
	C truly	D really	
22	A style	B nourishment	
	C improvement	D diet	
23	A aspects	B sections	
	C faculties	D means	
24	A the	B a	
	C one	D --	

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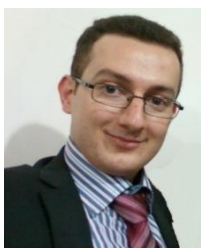
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A Study of Overturned Sexual Roles in Lawrence's *Tickets, Please**

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Abstract—D· H· Lawrence, in almost all of his stories and novels seeks a balanced man-woman relationship, "star-equilibrium" relationship in his own words. In his short story *Tickets, Please*, a wartime love story, he expounds his idea about the tragic outcome of overturning sexual roles: in a world of women transvestites and emasculated men, the ideal man-woman relationship will be a destined illusion.

Index Terms—balanced man-woman relationship, WWI, manhood, womanhood

I. INTRODUCTION

D· H· Lawrence, an English modernist writer, is probably best remembered for his quest of "an 'inhuman' vitalistic energy born out of blood rhythms, states of consciousness, the solar plexus" (Malcolm, 2006, p.122) with a language of vernacular sexual tenderness. His expression and exploration of this "energy" parallels with his constant denouncement of industrial civilization. From a miner's family in Nottinghamshire, England, he saw the aggressively advancing industrial civilization in his hometown, which, for him, had corrupted man's life. He thought the going-on industrialization was destructive, "for its cut-throat competitiveness and its encouragement to war, for its mechanical progress and diminution of industrial creativeness, and for its intellectualism that dried up the springs of human vitality." In his statement, man's life, reduced to the stuffy humdrum, was unnatural, morbid and anguishing emotionally and psychologically, while the therapy to heal the devastated modern world was to return to a balanced man-woman relationship in the unspoiled nature, the ancient world, or "star-equilibrium" relationship, borrowing his own words.

Lawrence's "star-equilibrium" theory is originated in his philosophical work *Him With His Tail in His Mouth*, in which he states:

"I want, in the Greek sense, an equilibrium between me and the rest of the universe—Equilibrium, in its very best sense—in the sense the Greeks originally meant it—stands for the strange spark that flies between two creatures, two things that are equilibrated, or in living relationship. It is a goal: to come to that state when the spark will fly." (Lawrence, 1977, pp.315-316)

Among the living relationships, the most essential is man-woman relationship, which is later defined by Lawrence as the "star-equilibrium" relationship, proposed first in *Women in Love*:

"what I want is a strange conjunction with you," (Birkin) said quietly: "not meeting and mingling, but an equilibrium, a pure balance of two single beings—as the stars balance each other". (Lawrence, 1996, p.240)

Yet his "balance" is not an equivalent of equality. Lawrence is neither a feminism supporter nor a male chauvinism exponential. He holds that social roles between men and women must be well defined and divided so as to maintain a healthy and natural development of the world. He defies man or woman's transgressing one's prescribed sexual roles to become one who he/she is not conventionally expected. In a letter to Katherine Mansfield in November 1918 Lawrence wrote:

I do think a woman must yield some sort of precedence to a man, and he must take this precedence. I do think men must go ahead absolutely in front of their women, without turning round to ask for permission or approval from their women. Consequently the women must follow as it were unquestioningly. (Simpson, 1982, p.66)

Obviously his ideal man-woman relationship during the wartime is still male-supremacy. In WWI, when women joined the workforce and took over the traditional roles played by males at home because of enlistment of male soldiers in the battlefront, Lawrence was worried about the reversal of sexual roles. In 1917, when he was asked to write an article on the recruitment of women into traditional male occupations, Lawrence had replied that he had not "the guts" to write it. He said:

All I can say is, that in the tearing asunder of the sexes lies the universal death, in the assuming of the male activity by the female, there takes place the horrid swallowing of her own young, by the woman... I am sure women will destroy men, intrinsically, in this country… (Simpson, 1982, p.66)

It was just against this backdrop that Lawrence wrote his short story collection *England, My England*, published in 1922. *Tickets, Please*, one story from it, finished in 1919, tells a wartime love story. In the Midlands tramline the

inspector John Thomas Raynor, a flirt with fearless young tram girls, was infatuated with another girl conductor Annie Stone, known for her sharp tongue and prudence with men. Annie went to the Statutes Fair alone where she met John, and together they played on the drizzling night with Dragons, horses, seeing films. Since then they often went out at night. But when Annie hoped to develop this courtship into a marriage John dropped her. Mixed feelings flooded in her heart for some days with anger, humiliation, sadness and even despair, until she picked up the idea of revenge. With other girls who were hurt by him they lured John one night in the waiting room at the depot, where he was asked to choose the one among them who he intended to marry. Shockingly the tomboy plan finally fell into a brutal physical confrontation: John was bruised, down and left; the girls, "anxious to be off", were puzzled and a little frightened.

The love revealed in *Tickets, Please* goes against Lawrence's "star-equilibrium" relationship. Annie, a tomboy in the tramline, is not the ideal woman in his view, neither the womanizer John an ideal man, because it was "explicitly…the overturning of traditional sexual roles and relationships as a result of the war" (Kearney, 1998, p.145). On 5 January, 1915, Lawrence wrote to his friend, Mcleod, saying that "[n]o, the war is for those who are not needed for a new life. I hate and detest the war; it is all wrong, all foolish, all a wretched mistake" (Moore, 1963, p.231). If the war is a mistake, then the wartime love will be crippled, too.

II. Bleak Wartime World

In *Tickets, Please* in the first three paragraphs Lawrence managed to lure the reader's attention into the fictionally real world of domineering mining industry, which makes one feel uncomfortable, tense, depressed and even suffocating. The opening sentence is rather lengthy, embedded with convoluted fragments.

There is in the Midlands a tramway system which boldly leaves the country town and plunges off *into* the black, industrial countryside, *up* hill and *down* dale, *through* the long ugly village of workmen's houses, *over* canals railways, *past* churches perched high and nobly over the smoke and shadows, *through* stark, grimy, cold, little market-place, tilting away in a rush *past* cinemas and shops *down to* the hollow where the colliers are, then up again, *past* a little rural church, *under* the ash-trees, on in a rush *to* the terminus, the last little ugly place of industry, the cold little town that shivers on the edge of the wild, gloomy country beyond.

The sentence moves slowly and seems drawn-out. The convoluted fragments within it begin with preposition or prepositional phrases or compound adjectives or with a reversal of adjective order. In semantic terms the preposition functions to illustrate here a spatial relationship between the object of the prepositional phrases and the other components of the sentence. By piling up the preposition, "Lawrence successfully associates the description with the movement of the tramline" (Omran, 2010, p.17) from the country town to the industrial countryside. Lawrence's excessive employment of prepositions and prepositional phrases creates an almost harum-scarum, comic or at least detached effect. Along with this, by reversing adjective order, he has painted a bleak picture of a mining town marooned by WWI and industrialization. The normal order of adjectives is as follows: adjective denoting the speaker's evaluation / adjective denoting size, shape, age / adjective denoting colour / adjective denoting nationality, origin, material / adjective denoting use or purpose (classifier) / and headword (Zhang Zhenbang, 2004, p.193), but Lawrence breaks this rule on purpose, like "the long ugly village", "cold little town", "stark, grimy cold little market-places". He repeats "little" and "cold" several times, and "ugly", "gloomy" in later parts. These deviations from the prescribed grammar rules, or technically termed "foregrounding", help to trap the reader into a long, slow and irksome journey. Later this impression is intensified or strengthened by the snaky roads, the car "desperately packed" with people, and the people waiting for the outcoming car, shivering in the cold.

In this little world of Midlands, the people were crippled by the machine civilization, and WWI. The healthy and strong boys and men were enlisted, fighting for the "Great War". Those who stayed at home were the weak, like the old, the crippled, the kids and woman—"the weak creature". Naturally in the tramline, "The drivers are men unfit for active service: cripples or hunchbacks. So they have the spirit of the devil in them." The tram-drivers as stated are devoid of masculinity. In fact to many modernist writers, the sterile western civilization after the war is reflected in the male's impotence, a physical disability to reproduce. Hemingway's young heroes are impotent by the war and indulged therefore themselves in hedonism; T·S· Eliot's Fisher king in *The Wasteland* is impotent as God's punishment, therefore waiting for redemption; so it is Lawrence's male character.

Furthermore, the wartime tramline system is sustained by tramline girls, who are "fearless young hussies". During WWI, "the number of women employed in industry in Britain increased by more than a million, with about seven hundred thousand directly replacing men" (Simpson, 1982, p.64). Women were given the chance to move into those occupations traditionally taken by males such as the tramline service. The woman, now, seemed not to be "the other", or the object whose existence was defined and interpreted by the male, who was the dominant being in society. Rather, the tram conductresses took an "adventure" each day, who daringly accepted the dangers of the tram journeys and the male passengers' advances. Working as conductress is exceptional: they were well-paid, "earning over £ 2 a week at a time when the Lawrences could rent a Cornish cottage for £ 5 a year" (Simpson, 1982, p.67). Undoubtedly the girls, shaking off their stereotyped roles, fit well in the wartime world. If the drivers are impotent so as to be feminine, the tram girls are substitutes for masculinity. "They fear nobody—and everybody fears them." But Lawrence's attitude to them is not positive. Quite the contrary he used some derogatory words to describe the girls and comment on them.

In their ugly blue uniform, skirts up to their knees, shapeless old peaked caps on their heads, they have all the

sang-froid of an old non-commissioned officer.

"Ugly", one of key words in this story, is repeated, just as it is repeated to stigmatize the industrial landscape in the tram journey in these alliterative phrases, "long ugly villages", "last little ugly place of industry". Girls wrapped in the official uniforms are devalued into transvestites, except for their "skirts up to their knees", the only marker of their femininity. In another group of sentences "…this roving life aboard the car gives them a sailor's dash and recklessness. What matter how they behave when the ship is in port? Tomorrow they will be aboard again", girl conductors are compared to sailors, audacious, authoritative, masculine and indomitable.

Neither the drivers nor girl conductors are ideal images. When the cripple and hunchback drivers took foolish risks to make up for their physical deficiencies, "the delicate young men (drivers)" who were effeminate, "creep forward in terror". They're both required of desperately "sang-froid" which characterizes the girls as if they should have exchanged their jobs: the drivers have lost manhood and the conductresses, womanhood.

Lawrence's portrayal of industrialized war-time Midlands serves as a significant premonition to the crippled love between tram inspector John and conductor Annie.

III.   The Womanizer "Coddy" and the Tomboy Annie

In *Tickets, Please*, the two names "Annie Stone" and "John Thomas Raynor" can not be taken at face value, but are endued with symbolic meanings about the changed sexual roles during WWI.

In *The Oxford Dictionary of English Christian Names*, "Annie", first name of one tram conductress, is defined as being graceful, easy to love and full of favor (Withycombe, 1977, p.25). But all the feminine attributes are what "Annie" can hardly be found as the conductress. On the contrary her surname "Stone", which is evocative of a hard, mineral substance, is quite in coincidence with her inflexible demeanor for asserting her new soldier-like authority:

"Oh, mind my corn, Miss Stone. It's my belief you've got a heart of stone, for you trod on it again. "

"You should keep it in your pocket," replies Miss Stone, and she goes sturdily upstairs in her high boots.

In this example Annie's family name is addressed by a male passenger purposely to accuse her of being too hard-hearted. In another example, instead of making an apology for her trodding on the male passenger's corn, Annie takes a contemptuous stance and goes on with her own business as usual. Annie, one representative of large female work force employed in the tramway system, speaks for all women. They are the new authority: they exercise their endowed power lawfully and refuse compromise to men.

They pounce on the youths who try to evade their ticket-machine. They push off the man at the end of their distance. They are not going to be done in the eye—not they. They fear nobody—and everybody fears them.

John looks different from the male drivers and miners in this little world of Midlands. He is neither a cripple, a hunchback, nor effeminate. And he has "clean hands". He is a lady killer, flirting with many comely young girls and then abandoning them. His name "John Thomas Raynor" has an apparent sexual innuendo. "In *Lady Chatterley's Lover*, the same "John Thomas" is used by Mellors to designate his penis" (Ellis, 1996, p.102). The sexual connotation of the name is used here to suggest that the young inspector is only a regressed predecessor of the game-keeper and his natural, blooming phallus, which is confirmed by the author's spelling out that "Coddy". The young man is "always called John Thomas, except sometimes, in malice, 'Coddy'." This nickname is a diminishing alteration of "codpiece" in order to minimize the phallic identity of the character. Again, the loss of manhood is found in the male characters other than the drivers. (Ramadier, 2000)

Thus Annie, a woman without womanhood, and "Coddy", a man without manhood, silhouette a confusing wartime world.

IV.   Love Game between Annie and John

For Lawrence, what worried him most is not the derangement of sexual roles but its result to dehumanize the balanced man-woman relationship. To him, the wartime life is rather related to "possessionship" partly attributed to women's entry into professional world, which definitely breaks his ideal "star-equilibrium" relationship.

A.   Intimacy

Coddy and Annie progress from flirtation to intimacy and finally end with a violent physical struggle. In their love affairs, Coddy, the man of impotence deems his freedom much as before while the tomboy conductor Annie switches back to the traditional female role to consider marriage as the ultimate goal.

Annie, indicated by her family name, is hard to handle, and knowing John's scandal, she keeps him "at arm's length for many months". By accident they meet each other one night at the November fun fair, where the traditional sexual relationship is re-enacted. At the fun fair Annie-the-conductor is transformed to Annie-the-girl who has a love encounter with John in a hostile environment as suggested by "drizzling ugly night" and "black, drizzling darkness". The fair is called the "Statutes Fair", by which Lawrence explicitly associates the change of scene from the tramline to the Statutes fair with the change of rules: the fun fair will re-define the relationship of men and women—women will have to conform to prescribed sexual roles dictated by laws and society whereas men will assume their traditional attitude, aggressive, self-motivated, self-assertive and domineering. (Ramadier, 2000) To illustrate this, in the first place,

Annie took off her uniform that night and "dressed up", to resume her identity as a young girl. Moreover "she expected soon to find a pal of some sort." Fortunately "she was very glad to have a 'boy'" when John greeted her because "to be at the Statutes without a fellow was no fun". Annie now is an ordinary girl with feminine impulse and expectation to have fun with a man. Apart from it Annie's doings in the fair strengthen her stereotyped role as a submissive, passive girl. In the tramline, as a conductor, Annie is handed the ticket while as a merry-go-round rider she has to hand over the ticket, thus losing her charge. By contrast John pays and hands the ticket over, thus asserting his conventional place as financial supporter. What deserves most attention is their spatial position in Dragons and Horses. Annie, riding the inner horse quietly in the center is nearer to John who "of course, sat astride on the outer horse", riding wildly "flinging one leg across her mount, and perilously tipping up and down, across the space, half lying back, laughing at her". The chasing scene is an enactment of John's wooing Annie, further emphasized by John's winning hat-pins for her as a gift of love. A romance develops between them.

"Annie liked John Thomas a good deal… And John Thomas really liked Annie, more than usual. The soft, melting way in which she could flow into a fellow, as if she melted into his very bones, was something rare and good."

Pitifully the blooming love in the merry-go-round only rehearses a love game, which enables neither of them to take it very seriously in the beginning. They know the rule of the game and play it well after the tramline service. However, Annie-the-girl, values love higher than John. Realizing her serious purpose John drops her. Seeing him go away to some other girl, she determines to trap him into a trick, which, however, could unexpectedly push their affair to destruction.

B. Physical Assault on John

The prank is conspired by girls, who during the process have grown more and more "wild" as seen in these phrases "wild creatures," "in a wild frenzy of fury," "wild blows," "their hair wild," "the wild faces of the girls". This sort of repetition aims both at stressing the young women's metamorphosis and casting a different light on the scene. (Granofsky, 2003, p.128). The girls take priority over John in force and number. John has never realized that he will be reduced to a prey, a sport: he falls into the trap. At first he keeps his over-confident air as he declared "There's no place like home, girls". He could continue to demand with official authority the girls "'…get back to your senses.' Both attempts yet are ineffectual. His previous authority as an inspector is completely torn apart; instead he is inspected, hurled at, taken off tunic, with his cap slapped away, jacket and shirt torn. "The attack on John Thomas the man is also, of course, an attack on the 'John Thomas,' the penis, and is thus a symbolic castration." (Ramadier, 2000) His muteness and half-nakedness in face of girls' brutal beating have categorized him into those young drivers who are cripples or hunchback drivers, or "delicate young men".

John, therefore, is emasculated in tram girls' ridicule and physical assault where Annie is the first to hit him. But it is not safe to say that the girls triumph over John thoroughly. Although the girls have factually broken some taboos of patriarchy in that they, by aggressing him, have poured out their anger and frustration about long-established man-woman relationship society compels them to abide by, thus claiming and proving women's status as "subjects" to act in solidarity, they including Annie have never thought about what the trick expects to accomplish or to mean as shown in the last sentence of the story. When the girls have blood up, the wild frenzy even has frightened the girls themselves and they do not know how to end it, thus subverting their status as autonomous beings. Especially for Annie, her "antagonism" does not work out satisfactorily. John names her at last by force, which only frustrates her desire ("she had been so *very* sure of holding him") and shuts her in fear and agony when John leaves.

John's love to Annie may not be the momentary impulse, while it is not so deep as Annie's love to him. With their growing intimacy Annie "prided herself that he could not leave her" and was "so very sure of holding him". Finally "The possessive female was aroused in Annie. So he left her." This "possessive love", meant to result in marriage or bond, groups Annie into the majority of conventional women with marriage as the ultimate goal of love. Her physical confrontation with John in the waiting room is an attempt, consciously or unconsciously, to realize her dream as well as to redress the balance after losing John's favor. Yet Erich Fromm (1974) has pointed out that "love is an action, the practice of human power, which can be only in freedom and never as the result of compulsion." (p.6) For John, to succumb to marriage or bond, means a surrender of his freedom; John has been and will always be a womanizer, to exercise his masculinity, his manly power, but without losing his freedom. For the girls their grievances are more about "equity", which in particular to Annie, means marriage. Much worse is the fact that WWI brought with it an inevitable decreasing number of men. John, with his "clean hands" and health becomes desirable for girls. In this context, the tramline girls need John more than he needs them in terms of marriage.

V. CONCLUSION

In this wartime love story, men are impotent while the women, the tram girls are "masculinized". The tram inspector John Thomas looks like an exception among them, but at last is castrated by the tomboys in the waiting room. On the other hand Annie, the organizer of this meeting, has failed to "hold" John but ends up with his empty promise of marriage. When using Lawrence's "star-equilibrium" relationship to assess them, it is found they both have their character flaws—Annie is too possessive and manly-like; John is too impudent and in the end effeminate—neither can represent the ideal image in a balanced sexual relationship. Frankly speaking, Lawrence's staunch attitude toward this perfect "balance" is rooted in his family background and WWI.

Lawrence's own upbringing sees his mother's possessive love, which prohibits him long to develop a natural and harmonious relationship with other women. The physical struggle in girls' waiting room in this story also refers back to his own traumatic experience as a young man at Haywood's surgical appliances factory when a gang of his female workmates coerced him suddenly, attacking him physically him and trying to take off his trousers to check his sex. (Granofsky, 2003)

Moreover, WWI has granted the weak legal rights which were once deprived of them, especially in employment market. Women were given jobs to attain equity with men, which challenged the male-dominant patriarchal system. Specifically in Lawrence's view there should be clear labor division between two sexes; when women have become more like men, men lose their manhood, the perfect sexual balance has been broken. So in this story Annie is endowed with more complexity: She is aggressively formidable as a conductor, affectionately possessive as a girl. She and her female colleagues can play their part fully while on the tram; out of it when they enter the real society, men still maintain their dominance. Similarly the effeminate men are not capable enough to undertake their supposed roles in this perfect sexual relationship. The modern world, torn into fragments by war and industrial civilization, degrades "a pure balance of two single beings" to an elusive dream.

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Transitivity Analysis of *A Rose for Emily*

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Abstract—Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) has been widely used by linguists and scholars to analyze linguistic phenomenon for many years. This paper adopts transitivity theory of SFL to study on the text of A Rose for Emily and analyze some processes in it and then explains their functions of constructing theme and shaping characters.

Index Terms—A Rose for Emily, systemic functional linguistics, transitivity, processes

I. SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS AND TRANSITIVITY

Halliday holds that language has three metafunctions: ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function. Language in its ideational function represents patterns of experience of world and it enables human beings to build a mental picture of reality, to make sense of their experience of what goes on around them and inside them. This reflective experiential aspect of meaning is called transitivity (Hu & Jiang, 2002).Transitivity is a grammatical system and it deals with different types of process which can be found in the language and the structures. Processes consist of process, participants and circumstances. There are six types of processes: (1) material processes, (2) mental processes, (3) relational processes, (4) behavioral processes, (5) verbal processes, and (6) existential processes.

Material processes are processes of doing which involves an Actor and often a Goal. The Actor means the one that does the deed, and the Goal implies directed act. Mental processes are processes of sensing which consist of two potential participants, Sensor and Phenomenon. Sensor is the conscious being that is feeling thinking or seeing. The phenomenon is what is sensed, felt, thought and seen. Mental processes can be divided into three subtypes: perception, affection and cognition. Relational processes are processes of being. There are three types of relational processes (1) intensive "x is a", (2) circumstantial "x is at a" and possessive "x has a", with the purpose to show the two kind of relationship between a and x: "a is an attribute of x" and "a is the identity of x". Behavioral processes are of physiological and psychological behavior such as breath, dream, smile, cry, cough, etc which usually have one participant, the Behavior. Verbal processes are processes of saying which consist of three participants, the Sayer, the Receiver and the Verbiage. The Sayer is the addresser, the Receiver is the addressee and the Verbiage is the content of the message. Existential processes represent that something exists or happens. It is usually realized by *there*-construction (Hu & Jiang, 2002).

TABLE1.
SIX TYPES OF PROCESSES

Processes	Participants	Circumstances
Material Processes	Actor-Process-Goal	Extent
Mental Processes	Sensor-Process-Phenomenon	Location
Relational processes	Attributive or Identifying Carrier-Process-Attribute Identified-Process-Identifier	Manner Cause Accompaniment
Behavioral processes	Behavior-process	Matter
Verbal Processes	Sayer-Process-Receiver-Verbiage	Role
Existential Processes	Process-Existence	

II. BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO *A ROSE FOR EMILY*

William Faulkner is a famous American writer and Nobel Prize winner. He is well known for his novels and short stories. Faulkner is one of the most important writers in both American literature and Southern literature. He was born into a southern family, that's why his attitude toward the southern "aristocratic" families that he wrote about is ambiguous. Alongside his censure of their injustice to the African Americans, there is some indication of pity or sympathy (Chang, 2003).

A Rose for Emily is one of William Faulkner's famous short stories. The story takes place in Jefferson, Mississippi. Faulkner described the title as an allegorical title; the meaning was, here was a woman who has had a tragedy, a tragedy and nothing could be done about it, and I pitied her and this was a salute to a woman you would hand a rose. The story starts with an account of Emily Grierson's funeral. Then it presents in a nonlinear way the narrator's memories of Emily's strange and abnormal behaviors throughout her life. After the American civil war, Emily's life changes a lot. Both she and her father are unwilling to accept the changes, so they still remain to live the same life as what they were used to. Miss Emily keeps the strange manner of the Griersons, and she doesn't want to get away from the past, so she

refuses to pay tax and successfully drives away the delegation that visits her for tax. Miss Emily seldom goes out the house or communicates with people in the town. When his father is alive, he stops all the young men pursuing his daughter because he looks down upon them since they are not aristocrats. When his father died, she spends three days to accept the fact. Two years after his father's death, she keeps a short love relationship with Homer Barron: a labor from the north comes to the town to build streets. But Homer is not a man who wants to get married, and he abandons her. The affair of smell comes into being. After that people in the town pay great attention to Emily's love with Homer and they interfere with her. Emily was found to buy the rat poison, the arsenic in a chemist store. People guess she is going to commit a suicide but in fact she goes much closer with Homer and she was seen to buy some men's living goods. When people think Emily is going to marry Homer, Homer disappears from the public sight. Emily begins to teach painting to make a living for six or seven years. As time passes by, Emily grows older and older and finally dies. When people go into her house, they find a skeleton of a man. It is Homer, and it turns out that Emily poisoned him. By using this cruel and strange way, Emily guards her love, the only love in her life.

III. TRANSITIVITY ANALYSIS OF *A ROSE FOR EMILY*

Many scholars have analyzed *A Rose for Emily* from the perspective of literary criticism. This paper will focus on the transitivity processes in the text and try to analyze some examples to present Emily's image of anti-tradition and pursuing love as well as people's emotion to Emily.

A. *Material Processes and Relational Processes*

Material processes and Relational processes are frequently found in the whole text, here only some of which are picked for deep analysis. The short story starts with the introduction to Miss Emily's death:

*WHEN Miss Emily Grierson **died**, our whole town **went** to her funeral (Qian, 2011, p.337).*

This sentence consists of two clauses. The first clause is a material process, the Actor is "*Miss Emily Grierson*" which is a polite and formal addressing, and this clause tells readers what happens at the beginning of the story. In the second clause, there is also a material process, here the Actor is our "whole town", and the Goal is "her funeral". As we all know that it is a custom to go to one's funeral after his or her death. The author uses "our whole town" as the Actor, instead of "we" or "people", so we can see Miss Emily's important status in the town. We can also infer that she must be a noble or famous person and she is respected by all the people there. The beginning sentence enables readers to go to the author's narration fast and be involved in the story as well as causes readers' curiosity about Miss Emily.

Then it follows with the description of Miss Emily's house.

*It **was** a big, squarish frame house that had once been white, decorated with cupolas and spires and scrolled balconies in the heavily lightsome style of the seventies, set on what had once been our most select street. But garages and cotton gins had encroached and obliterated even the august names of that neighborhood; only Miss Emily's house was left, lifting its stubborn and coquettish decay above the cotton wagons and the gasoline pumps-an eyesore among eyesores(Qian,2011,p.338).*

This paragraph consists of three sentences. The first sentence includes four processes: two relational processes and two material processes. Both the two Carriers are the "house", and the Attributes are "a big, squarish frame" and "white". The verb "decorate" is a transitive verb, but it is followed by a Circumstance: "cupolas and spires and scrolled balconies in the heavily lightsome style of the seventies" to present the outlook of the house and here house is the Goal of the process. The verb "set on" is followed by a Circumstance of location: "what had once been our most select street". In the past the house was beautiful and the Griersons was very rich. But in the second sentence, "garages and cotton gins" become the Actor and the focus, the "house" here is the omitted Goal, and the verbs "encroach" and "obliterate" symbolize the changes of the house. Garages and cotton gins stands for new northern industrialization which makes a sharp contrast with the old house. In the third sentence, there are two material processes. "Was left" is a passive voice, the environment of the house is changed, so the state of the house has to change accordingly. The Goal of the verb "lift" is "stubborn and coquettish decay" and "above the cotton wagons and the gasoline pumps" is the Circumstance of space. In the past, it used to be a delicate house on a select street, but now it is eyesore and surrounded by cotton wagons and the gasoline pumps. Both cotton wagons and the gasoline pumps are the outdated productive tools used in old southern agriculture which is in accordance with Emily's decayed house. This sentence presents readers the present condition of the fallen aristocrat.

*Alive, Miss Emily **had been** a tradition, a duty, and a care; a sort of hereditary obligation upon the town (Qian, 2011, P.238).*

This is a relational process, "a tradition, a duty, and a care; a sort of hereditary obligation" are the label people in this town give to Emily. In the civil war, the south is beaten by the south, so after the civil war people in the south are hard to face and adjust themselves to the great changes. They miss their old lives and they have to find a way to release their nostalgia. Since Emily is the only aristocrat in the town, it is natural for them to concern the life and behaviors of Emily. This sentence is work in concert with the sentence in the beginning "the men through a sort of respectful affection for a fallen monument, the women mostly out of curiosity to see the inside of her house". Emily is a monument because she is a representative of the past southern tradition, people show respect to her and look down upon her very much.

B. *Mental processes*

According to Halliday, perception like seeing, hearing, affection like fearing, liking and cognition like thinking, knowing, and understanding are subtypes of mental processes. The total number of mental processes in the story is 46. But there are only 11processes where Emily is the sensor, for most of the processes the sensors are people in the town. See Table.2 and Table.3.

TABLE.2
MENTAL PROCESSES

Material processes	see	believe	know	look	feel	meet	think
Number	18	7	7	10	1	1	2
Proportion	40%	15%	15%	22%	2%	2%	4%

TABLE.3
SENSORS OF MENTAL PROCESSES

Sensors	Emily	People in the town
Number	12	34
Proportion	26%	74%

The function of these mental processes can be valued through some selected processes in the whole text.

*That was when people had begun to **feel** really sorry for her. People in our town, remembering how old lady Wyatt, her great-aunt, had gone completely crazy at last, **believed** that the Griersons held themselves a little too high for what they really were. None of the young men were quite good enough for Miss Emily and such. We had long **thought** of them as a tableau, Miss Emily a slender figure in white in the background, her father a spraddled silhouette in the foreground, his back to her and clutching a horsewhip, the two of them framed by the back-flung front door. So when she got to be thirty and was still single, we were not pleased exactly, but vindicated; even with insanity in the family she wouldn't have turned down all of her chances if they had really materialized (Qian, 2011, p.341).*

In this paragraph, there are three mental processes. In the first two mental processes identified by "feel" and "believe", both the sensors are "they" which implies people in the town, but the phenomena are different and even contradictory. On one hand, people in the town have pity on Emily since she and her family "hold themselves a little too high for what they really were", on the other hand, they still respect Emily otherwise they would not think of Emily and her father as a "tableau". This can reflect people's condition after civil war, they still miss the past and traditional life and at the same time they understand the changes in the town. They are just unwilling to accept the present condition. So they have to consider Emily as the only spiritual embodiment of the past, but in fact, they do not really care Emily. In their eyes, Emily is a young lady from a tableau. She is not a fresh and lively girl in their neighborhood. She is a girl whose life is closely controlled by her father and has no choice to decide her own fate when her father was alive.

But people never stop their eyes on Emily or pay attention to what happened to her. After her father's death, Emily's life seems changes a lot.

*Now she too would **know** the old thrill and the old despair of a penny more or less (Qian, 2011, p.341).*

In this mental process, "Emily" works as the Sensor and the phenomenon is "*the old thrill and the old despair of a penny more or less.*" There is no doubt that she begins to realize how difficult the life is. She has no one to depend on and the house her father left for her becomes her only possession. Being left alone, and a pauper, she had become humanized.

People are active to observe Emily's everything which can be concluded from the following mental sentences, especially mental processes with "see". Most of the sensors are "we".

1).*SHE WAS SICK for a long time. When we **saw** her again, her hair was cut short, making her look like a girl, with a vague resemblance to those angels in colored church windows--sort of tragic and serene(Qian, 2011, p.342).*

2).*Presently we began to **see** him and Miss Emily on Sunday afternoons driving in the yellow-wheeled buggy and the matched team of bays from the livery stable (Qian, 2011, p.342).*

3).*Now and then we would **see** her at a window for a moment, as the men did that night when they sprinkled the lime, but for almost six months she did not appear on the streets (Qian, 2011, p.345).*

4).*When we next **saw** Miss Emily, she had grown fat and her hair was turning gray (Qian, 2011, p.345).*

5).*Now and then we would **see** her in one of the downstairs windows (Qian, 2011, p.346).*

In sentence 1), when "we" see Emily, she recovers from her father's death and presents a new look before people. She cuts short her hair and looks younger. As we know women usually like to change their hairstyles when they want to end the old life and begin a new one, there is no exception for Emily. It is a big step for her to change herself actively. She starts to hold her life in her own hand and manages to rebel her tragic fate. It is not easy because her behavior is highly concerned by people in the town which can be shown in her relation with Homer. In the sentence 2), Emily is seen driving in the yellow-wheeled buggy publicly. This is really a serious breaking of southern tradition. As a lady of that time, her behavior is "a disgrace to the town and a bad example to the young people". Influenced by Puritanism and hierarchy, a lady should be religious, pure and obedient. It is impossible for noble Emily to fall in love with a normal northern worker with wages. She is crazy to her love and that is why she does so. Even though she knows clearly the bad effect of her deeds, she would like to fight for her love. But Homer is not the best choice for Emily since he doesn't want to get married. After he deserts Emily, people are still curious about Emily and this is why there are so many sentences in with "see", such as sentence 3), 4), and5) , and all the sensors in the mental processes are "we".

People not only see what happens to Emily all the time, but also guess every event with their imagination. We can draw this conclusion through the following sentences in this short story.

6).*She **carried** her head high enough--even when we **believed** that she was fallen (Qian, 2011, p.343).*

7). *Then we **knew** that this was to be expected too; as if that quality of her father which had thwarted her woman's life so many times had been too virulent and too furious to die(Qian, 2011, p.345).*

In the mental process of sentence 6), the phenomenon is "that she was fallen".

The word "fallen" conveys two kinds of meaning, first it refers to Emily's falling in Love River, second it can be understood as Emily's degeneration. But according to the background of the story, the second one is more reasonable, because it shows people's attitude towards Emily's love to Homer. "We" disapprove her. Compared with the material process it follows, Emily deliberately carries her head high enough. "high enough" is the circumstance to describe the position of her head which can show Emily's efforts to keep her elegance and her determination to guard her love. In sentence 7), the verb "know" is a recognition mental process which states the fact. When Homer leaves, Emily doesn't appear on the street for a long time. People know her react is quite normal. She is just out of love, and because of her father's long constraint, her love for Homer must be fervent and crazy. People seem omniscient and everything is within their mind. But actually they are wrong, Emily has already poisoned Homer to death and live with the dead body every day. All the things they know are the subjective imagination and they are the main killer of Emily's love. But on the contrary, they blame the virulent and furious character. All the mental processes of the people in the town prove that they just want to keep the monumental image of Emily to hide their inner fear.

C. Verbal Processes

Verbal processes also occupies high proposition and it is necessary to study the significance of them. They are identified by verb like "say", "tell", "talk" etc. the content of each saying is called verbiage. Take verbal processes with "say" in them for example. Throughout the whole story, there are 30 verbal processes with "say", but there are only two verbal processes where "Emily" is the sayer. See Table.4.

TABLE.4
SAYERS OF VERBAL PROCESSES

Sayer	Emily	People in the town
Number	4	26
Proposition	13%	87%

Emily seldom says anything to other people. When she meets the deputation, she just stands in the door and listens more. Being asked whether she has received Sheriff's notice, she says: "*I received a paper, yes. See Colonel Sartoris. I have no taxes in Jefferson.*" No matter what they say, Emily always repeats that she has no taxes in Jefferson. It is also true when she goes to buy poison. She talks to the druggist with repeated words "I want some poison" and refuses to say tell him the actual use of the arsenic. Emily lives in her own world and she does not like to communicate with others. She keeps the shadow of past life, so she refuses to pay taxes and ignore the drug law.

The sayers of the rest processes are "we", "the druggist", "a woman" and so on. All of these sayers are people in the town and they have already formed a group.

8).*So THE NEXT day we all **said**, "She will kill herself"; and **we said** it would be the best thing. When she had first begun to be seen with Homer Barron, **we had said**, "She will marry him." Then **we said**, "She will persuade him yet," because Homer himself had remarked--he liked men, and it was known that he drank with the younger men in the Elks' Club--that he was not a marrying man. Later **we said**, "Poor Emily" (Qian, 2011, p.344).*

People concerns Emily's behaviors, guess developments and also give their opinions. Their words become big obstacle of Emily's love and their counterview flows out their words. They pity on Emily and always say "poor Emily" but they never feel that they do great harm to Emily. They keep stop Emily from loving Homer and they think it is a shame and bad example to young man. The difficulties Emily confronts with are Homer's homosexual orientation and no marriage attitude as well as people's frustration. When rumors do not function well, people ask help from the Baptist minister and Emily's relations in Alabama. To a great extent, their interference causes Emily's tragedy.

D. Behavioral Processes and Existential Processes

There are few behavioral processes and existential processes in the whole text. They are not as important as the former four processes. Sometimes they are used together with other processes.

9). *On the first of the year they mailed her a tax notice. February came, and **there was** no reply (Qian, 2011, p.339).*

10). *But **there were** still others, older people, who said that even grief could not cause a real lady to forget noblesse oblige (Qian, 2011, p.342).*

11). *She just stood in the door and **listened** quietly until the spokesman came to a stumbling halt (Qian, 2011, p.339).*

12). *So she had blood-kin under her roof again and we sat back to **watch** developments (Qian, 2011, p.344).*

Sentence 9) and 10) are two existential processes. "there be" is the identifier. Sentence 9) shows Emily's deliberation of not paying taxes. Sentence 10) reflects that older people believe Emily should keep the noblesse oblige and separate Homer. They still believe in the old tradition and want Emily to follow it. Sentence 11) and 12) are two behavioral processes. Taking "Emily" as the behavior, sentence 11) presents Emily's voiceless rebellion against the deputation for

paying taxes. Sentence 12) also delivers people's excessive attention to Emily.

IV. CONCLUSION

This paper analyzes several examples of six processes in *A Rose for Emily* and it is found that they function well to illustrate the theme. Emily, the embodiment of the past tradition in all people's eyes, tries to break the constraint and seeks for her own happiness. Her love to Homer is so fervent, especially before the strong interference of people in her town, that she kills Homer and lives with him for the rest of her life. Her behavior seems abnormal but it can be understood as her helpless struggle. The continuous rumors, excessive concerns and strong disapproval given by the people become big burden to Emily. They place their hope on Emily, which can be concluded from the numerous mental processes and verbal processes. People in the town, together with Emily's father are the real causes of Emily's tragedy. All of them obey the traditional values: Puritanism, patriarchy and inhuman doctrine of woman. When the civil war ended, they depend on Emily to reveal their fear. Faulkner gives A Rose for Emily; it is a way to memorize her passing away firstly, to pity this aristocrat's tragic life secondly and finally to solute for her brave struggle against old tradition.

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English Language Teaching (ELT) in Iranian Universities in Brief

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Abstract—In this article ELT in Iranian universities will be briefly introduced with its problems which are related mainly to lack of the most university instructors training, class settings; textbooks and more than all applied teaching approaches that usually operate theoretically rather than practically. To know a language means to use it efficiently. Since English is not used as a second language in Iranian Society, therefore, it should be taught/learnt for its application and we see this problem adequately in Iranian Language instructional system. This problematic issue can be reduced or removed from the system through a fit and suitable practiced way of teaching. Having identified and argued the problems, the authors forward some useful and applicable recommendations and finally the conclusions will end the article.

Index Terms—English language teaching, Iranian Universities

I. INTRODUCTION

Qualitative Method Planning and Procedure Implementation is one of the most important issues in university education. Therefore it is, vital to continue working on its qualitative enhancement which is the practical step. That results a better teaching method to the benefit of a higher education system for students.

It is suggested that Iranian classes can gain higher and better achievements. To achieve this, students are invited by the teacher to discuss on anecdotes that are motivating and are beneficial to the learners.

In principle, explorative questions are the main points in the syllabus of each session, which would be extracted from their available textbook materials.

Smith (2006) asserted; "One of the attributes of a profession is a body of knowledge which is not only current, but which has roots in the past." Having familiarization with the methodology of ELT professionally can change the learning level of the learners. He also reviewed Wren's noble work on the issue. Wren offered the teaching English for practical purposes and as a basis for further study. He has offered some principles for teaching which included;

a. "Teach through the senses;
b. Let the pupil learn   by doing;
c. Start from what the pupil knows and go on to what he does not know;
d. Teach inductively;
e. Encourage self-teaching;
f. Use of present continuous."

Kondo and Ying-Ling (2004) designed a study to develop strategies that students use to cope with their difficulties in English classrooms. They recommended some strategies as follows:

"Preparation {e.g. studying hard, trying to obtain good summaries of lecture notes}, Relaxation {e.g. taking a deep breath , trying to calm down}, Positive Thinking {e.g. imagining oneself giving a great performance, trying to enjoy the tension}, Peer Seeking {e.g. looking for others who are having difficulty controlling their anxiety, asking other students if they understand the class p.80.}

Sayer (2005) in identifying and organizing elements of interaction noted that;

"Rather than prescribe what the course include, I wanted the content to reflect what the students actually needed practice with. In order to isolate which aspects I would treat directly, I set an initial task, various tasks of the same basic type were used during the two weeks, and another at the end, so that the students could self-evaluate their progresses."

There is no question that a well trained teacher can teach more effectively, both theoretically and practically, than the one who has not been under any kind of training. That is why initial teacher training is designed ultimately to improve classroom learning and practice. The reason is that the theory provides the prospective teachers with knowledge and content and a broad insight into teaching, whereas practice helps these teachers exercise handling a class by selecting suitable teaching strategies and methods. English language teaching in Iran, since its origins, has not been appropriately designed, focused and targeted to meet the real and practical needs of its learners. For example, in the Iranian university setting, the main concern at the present is for reading rather than English application. Oral performance activities are neither included in English course books, nor offered by the teachers of English. As a result, students have little

opportunity to practise and use the language in classes. These students have a fairly strong background in grammar and vocabulary, but are not able to communicate in English and express their ideas.

All Iranian university students have to take a definite number of English courses (obligatory courses). While the teaching of English language to learners has been carried out for a long time, it is only in the last two decades that professional attention has focused on the target language itself. English learners are non-English speakers and require sufficient mastery of English to meet their target language needs and purposes. Issues such as the lack of teaching approach opportunity and the need to use English in real life situations is clearly an urgent issue as is acknowledged by writers such as Biria & Tahririan (1994).

Dramatic changes in the various aspects of Iranian society, such as political, cultural, and particularly educational, and advances in technology in the recent years demand new strategies for English teaching/learning process in particular at university level. At this level English should be seen as a "world language" to connect Iran to the world at large. The strategies that are important are those which make the teaching/learning atmosphere creative and provide a critical framework for re-thinking educational objectives.

Therefore, the aims of this article is first to introduce the identified problems of ELT in Iranian universities and propose some teaching strategies which is hoped to be applicable and effective in Iranian university teaching.

II. PROBLEM

The most important problem is, in fact, the teachers themselves. Because of a lack of training most of them teach not in English, but in Farsi, most of the time. One of the other reasons is the Iranian students themselves, who often prefer to be quiet and passive in class. This problem is basically related to the Iranian culture and social context which are different from the Western in many respects (Jamshidi Avanaki (1998)). So far, in all classroom interactions it is the teacher who decides what to do or what kind of activities should be performed in class and in the majority of classes the teacher is the sole speaker most of the time and also has the right to speak. As a result, students have no opportunity to practise, at the very least, what has been taught in class or to participate in speaking activities as is supported by Biria and Tahririan (1994).

Iranian university teachers have two main problems with the English textbooks: firstly, most of them find the content difficult since it is often taken from foreign books; secondly, there is no particular approach suitable for teaching the English language content. Iranian university textbooks for English courses are prepared in two periods in which different groups of writers unanimously have provided a variety of English textbooks. In the first, authors such as Bates (1978) produced a set of materials called 'The Nucleus Series'. The second period was after the Cultural Revolution in Iran in 1979-1982. In this period, a variety of textbooks were prepared for different subjects such as physics, chemistry, mathematics, biology and medicine. These textbooks are provided at two levels. At level one, the books contain a collection of relevant materials. For example, one lesson is about general principles of physics while a second is about general principles of chemistry. The level one book is for all basic science students (of physics, chemistry, maths, and biology). Level two is specific to each separate discipline and contains only that subject, such as physics or chemistry. Each lesson in these textbooks has a text as the main body of the lesson, which precedes different kinds of exercises such as comprehension questions, blank-filling exercises and short essay writing questions, but there are no communication exercises in these textbooks. The main difficulties with these textbooks are as follows:

1. English language students begin their English classes with a previously learned linguistic background known to the English teacher. Many teachers and almost all students are not fluent in English, and most of the science and technology lectures are given in Persian, containing potted information often translated from foreign textbooks or directly taken from those sources, referred as "Scaffolding" by Larsen-Freeman & Long (1991). Whereas, Flowerdew (1994) has gone further and argued that: the need for further research into second language lectures before meaningful statements can be made about lectures which will have concrete effects on pedagogy.

2. Different classes through the medium of English may use different textbooks because they are in different disciplines.

3. The traditional method of learning no doubt affected the attitudes of students towards English: they were predisposed to view it as a content subject rather than as a means of communicating and of acquiring knowledge. Students have avoided using even that small amount of language they have learned. As a result the approaches used are not communicative at all and are not planned on the basis of the English learners' needs.

4. Even students with a strong background in English cannot use the language, because of approaches in which the students do not use the target language and do not practise it.

5. English classes, like other subject classes, are conducted as if they were teacher-centred types of teaching and in fact are not suitable for learner-centred activities, so that some alterations are needed in the approach to teaching.

However, no new method was developed for the new courses; this caused English teaching to become problematic in Iranian universities, particularly in the area of oral skills. These are certain characteristics of English teaching in Iranian universities, as I have observed from my own observations. These are what I found through my research during 1994-1998 as well as experiences I already had from Iranian system.

I have been concerned with the problem of English use by the university students ever since I started my teaching at the university. In most cases the students could not even express themselves which is a key indicator of ELT failures in

Iranian universities. This led me to search for a solution to solve the problem as to what teaching/learning factors such settings, textbooks and in particular what strategies are effective and how they could be used to improve oral discourse, especially the fluency of the Iranian university students. More precisely, this is important because it will fill the gap of the oral weaknesses of the students through the opportunities which the proposed approach offers to the students. Therefore, I shall introduce some English language teaching methods in Iran which would help provide an English speaking environment through the suitable teaching strategies being introduced and applicable to the Iranian university settings.

The first point to note is that there is no standard and up-to-date teaching approach used in existing English language teaching practised by the teachers at university level. Almost all English classes are still teacher-centred in Iranian universities. Another major difficulty of English language teaching in Iranian universities is that students who can use the most complex scientific discourse in their native language often find themselves in the situation where they cannot comprehend the academic lectures given in English or interact with others in the English language. This is true particularly for students taking ESP (English for specific purposes) whose ability to communicate is minimal, and their oral expression poor. This is what I have encountered during my years of teaching in Iranian universities which is supported by the work of Iranian university teachers mentioned above. These problems are related to many factors such as lack of teacher training, cultural backgrounds, specific social context and the lack of English language as second language in Iranian society.

Since university students are to be specialized in a particular field should be enabled to use ESP. Brumfit (1981) noted that: First, it is clear that an ESP course is directly concerned with the purposes for which learners need English, purposes which are usually expressed in functional terms. ESP thus fits firmly within the general movement towards "communicative" teaching of the last decade or so. Similar definition of ESP has given by Strevens (1980) devised to meet the learners' particular needs; (2) related in themes and topics to designated occupations or areas of study (3) selective (i.e. not general) as to language content (4) when indicated, restricted as to the language skills included. But the distinctive differences between ELT and ESP are identified by many writers such as Widdowson (1978), Mackay and Mountford (1978), Crofts (1981) for 'occupational and professional' study.

Regarding settings as one of the other problems in the Iranian universities, the experiences in western teaching settings have proved that as you change the pattern of the seats to a circle, you will find more learning-taking place because people seem much more involved when addressing faces rather than the backs of heads in dense rows. Brown and Yule (1983) quoted Hymes (1972) that: A context can support a range of meanings. When a form is used in a context it eliminates the meaning's possible to that context other than those the form can be signed: the context eliminates from consideration the meaning possible to the form other that those the context can support.

Consequently, my main aim in this paper is to propose a new approach, suitable for the needs of an English language programme for Iranian English teachers and learners. Such an approach might provide a solution to this critical problem of lacking effective communication. This is critical, because apparently the main purpose of learning any language is to interact with others in that particular language, to convey information and exchange views. One important deficiency is the limited use of oral discourse analysis in the majority of English language classes.. Iranian university English learners, even after graduation, have urgent problems in the use of English language. Even though the majority of these learners know grammar and vocabulary at an advanced level, they are unable to use this knowledge orally. I found these points through my teaching experience and research. The main reason I found for this during my own teaching experience is that there are no oral practice opportunities or activities in designed course books, nor is this provided by the teachers in their teaching approaches. In fact, teaching/learning is not focused on oral performance and use of the English language. English language teachers apply their own methods to teach the students, which may incorporate a variety of teaching methods from the Grammar-Translation to the Audio-Lingual, but none are Communicative. The main purpose is to familiarise the learners with translation and reading the literature, and experiencing their native language through the grammar of the target language. Both the teacher and students focus on reading the target language and translating it into the native or L1 (mother language of the learners), using this language for most of the class time. For example, an English passage is read and translated into Farsi Language (L1) by the students. The teacher normally asks the questions and answers in Persian most of the time. This method puts more emphasis on reading and writing. Therefore, the students do not usually carry out oral performance in the target language and consequently it does not prepare the students for the use of the target language (English). Or normally the main purpose has been to use the target language in class activities with certain rules and structures. Although it is claimed that all four language skills are taught through this method, oral performance is very limited and it is insufficient for routine language use. In most cases certain aspects of language are emphasised and less attention is paid to communication. For example. in some classes a sort of rote learning through memorisation rather than internalisation and use of English is stressed. Imitating a language without understanding it may not be useful and the learners would not be able to make new speech patterns, in other words, it is a type of parrot learning. Structured learning is limited and does not help the learners to be empowered to initiate new patterns. This method provides insufficient practice to prepare learners for language expansion and use.

Therefore, these teachers obviously have difficulties in using English all the time in class, and those who have been educated in foreign countries are the sole speaker most of the time. We have seen that in the process of

teaching/learning the teacher has not been giving learners opportunities to practise what they have been involved in, but rather has actually been preventing talk. The teacher's role, then, has been simply to interfere in the learning process.

English language learners in Iran are restricted in their language use generally by their textbooks, technological aids and even more so by the language teaching approaches employed by the teachers. In my experience, it is noticeable that in Iranian universities, the majority of the university students find it almost impossible to make themselves easily understood in a face-to-face discussion in English. This is chiefly due to the fact these students have been taught without using what they have learned, which has been grammar rather than content. Thus the teachers have been teaching the form of the language, rather than encouraging its use. In this case it is better to leave the English teaching to subject specialists as McDonough (1984) argued that: Learners being taught by a scientist with some language training will definitely have greater 'face validity' than lessons with a language teach unwilling or unable to engage in scientific procedure.

Still there is another problem of not many opportunities to use English in public. Riley (1982) argued that the teacher has to provide optimum conditions for learning via modelling as Wilson (1986) also noted that not only teachers should have a sound knowledge of English but also should know how to use the tools. Wright and Bolitho (1993) proposed that to help trainee participants to ask questions about language to enable them to be effective teachers. To summarise, I have cited Schiffrin (1994) to clarify the previous discussion: Given the vastness and variety of topics and issues that fall under the label it should not be surprising that a wide range of data can be used to illustrate how to go about doing on analysis of discourse.

III. SOLUTIONS

Teachers arguably need to be trained in order to know the context, subject matter and other necessary information such as the management features related to the class they are going to teach. Once teachers possess all this information they can cope better with their prospective problems, because they know the reasons and can find suitable solutions to prevent those issues. The application of oral discourse analysis as an effective method can help ELT in Iranian universities especially for students' speaking skills. In practice, this means that the students should be provided with as many opportunities as possible during their course. These will include everything from giving a short talk and answering questions on it to taking part in a group discussion in response to an extract from their materials covered in class or any new subject. This means students will be looking at their ability to vary their use of spoken language according to the needs and demands of the participants – their teachers and peers. Students and teachers need to know that, they need to:

a. Speak clearly, taking care that everyone can hear;

b. Show enthusiasm, show that the topic is interesting;

c. Be positive and friendly, with a sense of humour, and be approachable; eye contact is important;

d. Pause after an important point in order that the point may be understood by the other students and that they can be prepared to respond to any questions.

In addition the presenter should try to deliver the topic appropriately by the use of all available materials such as pictures, diagrams, gestures and any other educational aids.

Group work is one of the effective ways as in and out of the class practice in which when students are allowed to have discussion in small groups they will find opportunities to talk about their personal interest topics by the use of learned knowledge. This situation facilitates learning and new information is exchanged which will become deeply understood. Group work can improve the speaking skills of students. In group discussions are specific features which you can never find in individual talk. I used this strategy for research teaching sessions and found it significantly effective.

Settings is still another effective element for better language learning, for example, in circular kind of setting all learners become active participants. The teacher becomes a member of the circle. In this particular setting the most learning will take place. The class may experience some silence but that silence is constructive because participants have to think and prepare themselves as to how to fill the gap. This was what I have experienced occasionally in my previous years of teaching and this is why this type of classroom seating is in common use in Western countries. However, it is interesting to note that this circular type of setting is normal in most religious schools in Iran and these schools seem to have been more successful in their studies than schools using other kind of settings.

Recently the "Japan Association for College English Teachers" dealt with some issues in E.L.T. Butler and Lee (2006) pointed that according to Oba (1994), the aforementioned association decided to revise E.L.T. First, the text books needed some change, second the method of E.L.T be based on communicative method, not to be emphasized on conversation but a set of methods that reinforce communicative ability. This case for specialized fields must be focused on that particular field that, for instance in Law, specific terms related to law are concentrated. In spite of Japanese students and graduates who are reported so weak in almost all skills, Iranian's are not such in those skills, but are weak in listening and speaking skills. This needs to be practiced as much as possible in classes operated in academic atmosphere and more than that out of class, but to be assigned and checked by the instructors. This requires an In-service teacher training particularly for the instructors with M.A. degree who have not been under any teacher-training.

Newly issued studies on text and class materials showed that pretty interested assignments and individual task presentation materials are of the most students' needs met subjects.

IV. Conclusions

English has been taught in Iranian universities according to the personal preferences of the teachers. Textbooks have been produced in a way that does not meet the real and practical needs of the university students, particularly for the use of English. These textbooks have been produced both before during the Cultural Revolution, but no particular approach has been introduced to English language teaching. Consequently, Iranian university English instructors have not been using up-to-date or currently approved methods of teaching. English teaching would arguably involve practical face-to-face interaction in the classroom and the use of audio-visual aids for independent practice out of the classroom. English language students are really concerned about their difficulties in using English in their academic fields. This is a result of the type of approach used in English classes. The thoroughness of English learners' use of the language depends largely upon the vocabulary used in the topic under discussion and can expand by the use of synonyms.

Educational aids facilitates speed; as illustrations can be used to stimulate the students to talk. Students can follow the patterns presented by a tape recorder, videotape or a movie. These technological aids may provide English learners with authentic speech from a native English speaker, which they may not otherwise encounter.

V. Reflection and Recommendations

In fact, despite the past long history of English teaching in Iran, the following may possibly influence its improvement:

a. Offer useful learning/teaching strategies.

b. Assess and provide suitable teaching materials that meet the needs of the students, as well as:

• Convince English language learners that the approach (learner-centred) works effectively and renders a maximum gain in learning such as offering them a clear opportunity for exercises in comprehension by means of listening activities, in order to utilise these as patterns for practice.

• Motivate students to learn by utilising benefits from the students' own experiences.

• Acknowledge how an open exchange views may enhance the insights of both teachers and students.

• Practise focused oral communication from the beginning in the belief that: "practice makes perfect".

The abilities, acquired as a means of expression, would enable English language students to use the English language more easily and more fluently without the need for the full mastery of grammatical structures.

1. Class initiatives: this strategy can be implemented in steps:

1) English teachers are aware of the ongoing activity in the class and make the students understand the purpose of the English classes.

2) Teachers in English classes use diverse means such as describing pictures, using students' shared knowledge to facilitate utterances.

3) Teachers/learners focus on functional communication for meaning.

4) Teachers provide students with a situation in which they will find themselves, in a confident and friendly environment; and also explain to the students the rationale of such classes.

5) Teachers assign the students to explore various ways and strategies to achieve a particular goal. They give them the opportunity of acting the roles assigned to them.

2. use of educational technology: One facilitator of good teaching is sound technology properly used. That is, the type of technology which provides the students with their real needs. Nowadays, educational technology plays a vital role in the promotion of the learning process; although these instruments are hardly available in our Iranian English classes. Nevertheless, it is recommended to use any available technology because sometimes they can be helpful in a unique way, for example, hearing an English native speaker's voice. These tools, cassettes, videos, computers and projectors, can be used both in class and/or out of class at home such as in the car or wherever possible. For example, video provides English learners with real communicative situations in which the learner can shift the role. Becoming an active participant, rather than a passive observer, promotes productive oral skills. It also helps the students to regain their emotional composure and motivation. Video is useful in enhancing vocabulary, structures, functions and paralinguistic features, that is, vocal effects which change the meaning and via discussion, register as I mentioned earlier.

3. use of effective and purposeful input: The main aim in oral discourse analysis for English classes is to enable students to speak fluently and purposefully. Speaking is a productive skill that presupposes a basic receptive skill readiness. Receptive skills such as listening and comprehending must be well practised for sense and specific information, to prepare for a sound productive skill. Therefore, the first element which influences these skills is effective input. This is together with the ability to listen because a good listener through production practice will become a good speaker. Thus, input must be clear in production and simple in structure with key vocabulary. This activates thinking about the topic and matching information. Listening faculties must be sensitive to perceive and internalise the input efficiently. Listeners are attentive and rehearse the main sounds and the key words.

4. question and answer strategy: the question and answer strategy is a strong practice technique. This practice is performed by asking for volunteer students at the very beginning, and varies between simple questions to lengthy ones. Afterwards, students may be asked various questions by the teacher, peers or visitors. Materials in textbooks may be used in the form of questions for practise. In particular, when materials are provided in a way to meet the needs of the students, they help the students to focus on suitable chosen topics. This saves students' time searching for relevant topics.

5. level of simplification use: students with low competence, would use simplification strategy to use simplified terms at the beginning and gradually substitute them for the appropriate technical terms, because specific lexis/terms conventionally signify concepts to efficient utterances within a specific context. Hence, the simplification strategy facilitates oral presentation and the use of teaching materials. This strategy suits the text of both lexical and structural formation as well as the students' needs and situations, level of knowledge and conceptualised context. Simplification enhances the development of language use. It varies according to specific context, topics, facilities, time, environment, and discipline, teaching style, and expectation. This strategy moves from analysis to synthesis, by splitting a text into simple parts. The rationale for the use of simplification is that in English programme, the allotted time is not sufficient to perform all and every individual task of the material and related activities.

6. level of synonymous use: use of the synonym is one of the other strategies that would help the learners to fill the pauses which would be caused by unfamiliar words. This strategy also enables the learners to perform continuous utterances. Learners, through the use of synonyms, would make some usage patterns, such as using a series of connectives, affixes or propositions.

7. use of group work: generally, a discussion offers the students the opportunity to demonstrate their oral skills in situations where collaboration and co-operation with other students and peers is important. Students need to be prepared and list their points, if any, they want to discuss; sit in a semi-circle; try to use facts to follow up and support others' views. Group discussion will be most fruitful and will be maximised when discussion is with attention, motivation, and purpose. The key point is that English students do their best to make a concrete statement to express specialised propositions.

The class is learner-centred; that is, everything is arranged to maximise the use of English language by the students. Use of language is segmented into fragments as functional units. When students' language skill needs have been determined by the designer/s the appropriate teaching method must be employed to meet these needs Students should attempt to follow the discussion in longer phrases without interruption. Students speak at the first possible opportunity. This means they use English language even in an informal manner. This can be done by choosing and using familiar terms and expressions. Students use contextualised speech and appropriate linguistic resources. When a discourse gap occurs, students use expressions such as 'pardon me', 'say it again please' and the like to continue their discussion.

It is hoped that these recommendations will serve as effective facilitators and a guide for ELT in Iranian universities and a stimulus to ELT teaching and research. That is why selected instructors from Iranian universities despite all the difficulties are sent abroad to search, identify and propose the workable effective research methods, teaching strategies and many more aspects of advanced work in different disciplines taken from other countries through their theoretical and research works. However, this is not the end of the story and certainly we do need more study and more research if we are to overcome all the problems which never ends.

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Wuxing Theory Reflecting in English as Foreign Language Teaching

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Abstract—The theory of five elements, the core of Chinese ancient philosophical framework is the holistic view of thinking as the simplest concept in Chinese traditional culture. Researches on this theory applied in linguistic study are still blank. This paper attempts, from the yin-yang perspective of five elements generated in foreign language teaching practice, to explain and demonstrate the correspondent relationship among five teaching elements in EFL, to explain the phenomenon of internal changing and reinforcing each other, over-restricting and point out that the construction of "five-element teaching theory", a mode of thinking, is beneficial for promoting effective Foreign language teaching.

Index Terms—Wuxing, holistic view of thinking, five-element teaching theory

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Wuxing

Wuxing, sometimes translated as five elements or five phases, is primarily an ancient perceptive device in ancient Chinese philosophy. The Five-Element Theory is the fundamental code of systems thinking of ancient Chinese, which, based on the principle of analogy, is applied to classify all phenomena of the world into five categories according to the properties and characteristics of WOOD, FIRE, EARTH, METAL and WATER. The interrelationship among them can be used to explain the movement and transformation among all material things (Zhanwen Liu, 2009). Being different from Western conceptual logic thinking, the five-element thinking brings about a whole system thinking model, a harmonious manner, which has been guiding Chinese people to percept and interpret various phenomena existing in wonderful nature, human body, empirical world and teaching field.

B. Wuxing Teaching (Five Teaching Elements)

Creating an effective classroom for Chinese English learners is challenging and time consuming for English teachers, but it is definitely worth the effort. As the classroom is composed of a variety of micro ecological environment factors, also called teaching and learning elements, which have to be maintained in dynamic balance when learners are participating in various activities (Harmer, 2000). In language classroom, there are at least five elements which should be taken into consideration when we are required to solve some problems on second language learning and language teaching: learners (learners' interest, attitude and motivation), learning strategies (approach, method), teacher (passion, professional development), teaching method (techniques, approaches) and teaching material (textbook, information source). It is worthwhile to explore the issues of EFLT (English as foreign language teaching) from the perspective of Wuxing. The system of five elements was used to describe interactions and relationships between phenomena. As a device, it was employed in many fields of early Chinese thought, like martial arts, cosmology, TCM(Traditional Chinese Medicine), music, military strategy, and language education (Wang Ningchuan and Zou Yuze, 2011) . The five elements are infinitely linked, consuming and influencing each other.

C. Why Five Elements, Not Six or More

Wuxing, the Five Elements is originated from Chinese traditional culture. Why are there five, not six or seven elements? One reason is that the number "Five" is in the middle way. The "middle way", belongs to the category of ancient Greek philosophy, Pythagoras School thinks the existing things being in "balance between each oppsite one to a proper extent". Platon started to transplant this concept of equilibrium into ethics, and Aristotle established a connection between the doctrine of the mean and the control of action and thought that everything has the middle way, such as the number "5" is in the middle of the numbers from one to ten.

The other reason lies in the fact that in Chinese traditional culture, Yin and Yang played most important part in holistic way of thinking. The Chinese are accustomed to use Yin and Yang, the two elements to represent the opposite properties in the universe, such as masculine and feminine, lower and upper, cold and hot, slow and fast, still and moving, etc. as an ancient Chinese philosophy that is represented by the Tai-Ji symbol, a circle with black and white shapes existing in equal proportion inside its outline, meaning the bright and dark sides of an object in Chinese. In EFTL (English as a foreign language teaching and learning), learners and learning strategy pertain to Yang and Yin; teacher (passion, professional development) and teaching method (techniques, approaches) also pertain to Yang and Yin. Textbook (material, context,

task) and language atmosphere (something textbooks provide) have Yang and Yin attributes. However, language atmosphere is the product of integrated effect and combination made by learners and teachers as well as their strategies and methods based on the comprehension of material, information source. Language atmosphere, as the sixth element, invisible but most important one, refers to outside margin of Five-Element Thinking Model. For the sake of simplicity and convenience, we Chinese employ the five-element modelto illustrate their inner ralationship, easy to read and easy to recognize. Most importantly, it is consistent with Wuxing Diagram of TCM. In TCM, we Chinese understand that there are natural laws and energy forces implied in the elements, which can be used to help diagnose and treat the cause of the problem, and calm our mood generated in spirit and body, unblock meridian channels and allow our energy to flow properly (Wang Aiping, 2012). So does EFT (English as Foreign Teaching). It is impossible to have full healthy educational situation if there are any mental, physical or emotional problems blocking our thinking and active practice. The five teaching elements need to be rebalanced by breaking through the key links of "meridian or meridians" (rationales, concepts, strategies, methods and designs), leading learners and teachers back into the full healthy teaching and learning situation.

The reasons seem to be subjective, but do matter objectively. Actually there are variety of elements affecting the EFL and EFT. The author just integrates those into the five, abstract, not concrete. Additionally, Wuxing Teaching Model, the Five Teaching Element Model shows, in broad sense, that there are interrelationships among any factors or elements which exist here and there, even though there is always at least one dominant element which plays an important roloe in affecting language output. When we explore any language theories and practice them, we do need to stop to think before action.

EFT through the perspective of Five-element Theory, does interest students who as well as teachers can understand the relationship amnong such five elements as learners, learning strategies, teacher, teaching methods and textbook. This article will suggest a motivating way to teach English with perceptions of relationship of "Five teaching elements", and will attempt to explore the possibility and feasibility of applying the five elements theory into foreign language teaching, in term of holistic way of thinking.

II. CLASSIFICATION AND ATTRIBUTE

By employing the method of "classifying by analogy", the ancients established extensive connections among five categories which have similar properties and appearance of WOOD, FIRE, EARTH, METAL and WATER existing in a system. Luckily, there are five corresponding five elements in EFL: learners, learning strategies, teacher, teaching methods, teaching materials (textbooks) (Xia, Songlin, 1989). It is necessary to clarify attributes of these five elements before mapping them onto language teaching system. Actually, Chinese systematic way of thinking focuses on dynamic functions and explicit effects of the five elements, which can be easily understood in terms of the basic seasonal cycles of nature (Liu, 1990). Over long-term observations of the properties of the Five Elements, the intelligent Chinese gradually formulated a more abstract conception with their own characteristics, implied with wide range of application as follows.

A. Learners (L) as WOOD

Wood means creative energy. Element WOOD is characterized by uprising, thriving, flourishing, generating, stretching, smoothing, literally springing forth of growth after long period of hibernation. WOOD, especially in spring, like the start of new life cycle, is associated with vigor, youth, and growth. It in energy is creative and expands up forward freely. In classroom activity, *language learners, who have positive cognition, intrinsic motivation for meaningful learning, self-confidence, strategic investment of time, effort and attention* (H. Douglas Brown, 1994), could be analogized as WOOD, allowing to be carved, straightened, a metaphorical expression, as they govern information flow, and are eager to grow and develop independently, and they, full of implicit creative energy, has the ability to bend, to extend, to break free, to rise and to flourish, and has guided the unformed energy of WATER (Wisdom, mentioned below) in language learning to an applicable and viable direction targeting at marketable skills and nice competence of a certain foreign language, just as the green plants growing upward from the ground. In Chinese traditional culture, learners are addressed as "one-hundred-year wood man", indicating the hard work to educate a successful talent.

B. Learning Strategies (LS) as FIRE

Fire means the one of enthusiasm. Just as spring goes naturally into summer, temperature rises and everything tends to be flourishing, changing, ascending with the warmth and vitality from the sun, symbolizing the flourishing phases of life cycle. So things that are characteristic of heat belong to FIRE, blazing upwards. For educational purposes, the *effective learning strategies, the right learning* methods and techniques*, and right amount of practice (hear after as LS)*, which learners manage to find to make things done, are like a torch, giving out light, flaming and ascending. Chosen by the intelligent learners LS seems to become FIRE that promotes their understanding of what they have learned with new ideas. Learning strategies function as satisfying students' needs, matching their desire, like the living beings flourishing under the warm and stable glow of teacher's encouragement.

Jeremy Harmer.(2000) thinks that a successful learner should have the willingness to listen, to experiment, to ask questions and to think about how to learn, which implies the essence of learning strategies; H. Douglas Brown (1994) states that a classroom learner should have strong language ego(a second language identity), and risk-taking to ask

questions. Asking question is a remarkable symbol of holding a certain learning strategies so that the specific learning strategies like autonomous learning, collaborative learning, group learning etc., could become possible. Confucius once said, classroom teachers need to continue to ignite the fire-like enthusiasm of the learners, encourage for extensive learning, intensive questioning, deliberating, and discerning in constructive way. The "fire" attribute is given to the cultural connotation of Learning strategies, which is YIN, and learner is YANG, so the integration of *Yin and Yang*, creates a whole and healthy learner.

C. Teacher (T) as EARTH

Earth symbolizes fundamental basis for gardeners. Element of EARTH is the source of everything which represents the sowing, reaping, producing and engendering transformation. Autumn is the typical season when things form and sow, characterized by storage and accumulation for use in non-productive winter. Such life phase has reached maturity and harvest, implying fruit of previous efforts. Correspondingly, in EFL or ESL classroom, teachers symbolize the source of knowledge (H. Douglas Brown, 1994) . *Teachers who have strong sense of responsibility, love and patience can be categorized as Earth.* Teachers are just like power station, functioning as activating learners' interest in learning target language, and as a farm for learners to plant and harvest, receive and bear, even to nourish. When the energy of EARTH transforms into the reaping stage of energy in golden season, METAL appears. In other words, if language teachers are well-qualified and capable enough, textbooks and productive learning materials can be written and used properly. In Chinese culture, teacher is regarded as someone *owning heavily virtuous qualities and carrying heavy objects on earth,* as the Classic of Analects mentioned. In this research, teacher refers to the professional person who has a good command of English and more elements of professional competence (Anna Craft, 2002).

D. Textbooks (TB) as METAL

Metal means reaping energy. The fall, a harvest season, is featured by convergence. As METAL is characterized by "malleability", allowing to be molded, which derives from the fuction of METAL to conform to external forces despite its strength. In EFL, textbooks *(TB), including* learning *material, any video and audio information sources, as well as right learning atmosphere,* the *teaching and learning contexts learning environment like library, classroom and dormitory could be categorized as METAL*, as it is the working force of change, a source of information, wisdom and intelligence shared, analyzed and communicated. Its core function is to work as a tool, a media, and interactive platform for teacher and learners to convey literal message and improve language competence.

E. Teaching Methods (TM) as WATER

The element WATER symbolizes the winter-like wisdom ini Chinese culture. Water possesses the characteristic of being wetting and descending, moistening downward and being condensed and conserved. The reserved harvest saved in METAL phase is for the renewal growth in WOOD season. It will be pregnant with potential energy for new life, which can be abstracted as the characteristics of WATER: moistening, moving downward, cooling, and concealing. Similarly, *the teaching methods (hereafter as TM), including practical approaches, the skills of organizing variety of classroom activities acts as WATER in the five-element model.* For students in school, teaching approaches function as intangible asset that can not realize its value until it is highly effective, tangible, close to learners' daily life or previous experience. Like the attribute of WATER, teaching approaches should be flexible, changeable and reachable. Take the students' feeling awkward when speaking English for example, the solution is to create a very warm, inviting, and risk taking atmosphere in the classroom. which is the function the teaching methods works serves. Another example to illustrate the function of teaching methods is that a language teacher should instill in his students a number of skills that are more directly related to the students' psychological attitude toward new languages than to their direct knowledge about the language they are learning (Adrian Palmer,1970) . In language history, such teaching methods as the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio lingual Method function well in a certain period (Shih-Chuan Chang, 2011). However, in this research, teaching methods include vaguely approach, techniques, even though Edward Anthony (1963), Richard, Jack and Theodore Rodger (1986) defined those terms clearly.

III. Mechanism of Reflecting the Wuxing Teaching Theory

A. Wuxing Generating Relationship

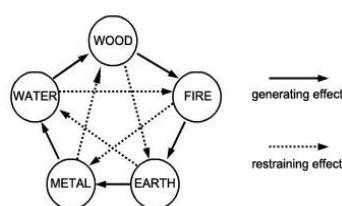**1. Generating Circle in Wuxing**

Figure 1: Five Elements Cycles

Figure 1 presents the relationships of mutual generation and mutual restraint among the Five Elements graphically.

There are two basic systemic and regulatory ways associated with Five Elements: generation and restraint. Generation and restraint are a combined fundamental principle which is applied to encompass and explain the relationships between things, and their development and changes. The concept of generation contains the ideas of production, stimulation and augmentation with a cyclic sequence of generation like this: WOOD feeds FIRE, FIRE creates EARTH, EARTH generates METAL, METAL carries WATER (as in a bucket or tap, or water condenses on metal), and WATER nourishes WOOD. There are two aspects to the relationship of generation for each element, those of "being generated" and of "generating." The former is the "child" of the generating Element and the later is the "mother" of the generated Element Hence, the generation relationship is also known as the "mother–child" relationship. Take WOOD for example. WOOD generates FIRE; thus FIRE is the child of WOOD, and WOOD is the mother of FIRE. The other four Elements follow this illustration (Zhanwen Liu, 2009).

The above mentioned classification will be evidenced by interrelationship of mutual nourishing aspects in EFL system which demonstrates that there is also a relationship of opposition and unity between the internal environment of the classroom and its external surroundings, a relation of maintaining a dynamic balance. In classroom activity, L (learners)belongs to WOOD, mixed with LS (learning strategies belonging to FIRE). L governs LS, who has conflicting ideas and different needs for personal growth, interacting with the teacher that governs teaching approaches within a context the textbook supports. The context made by teacher and learners is based on teaching energy field, as well as learning energy field, the driving forces called "Qi", a dynamic language atmosphere. It is *Qi* that makes five teaching elements moving and changing.

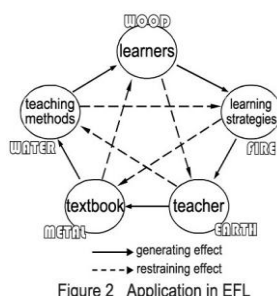**2. Reflections of the Generating Circle in EFL (L →LS→T→TB→TM→L)**

Figure 2   Application in EFL

L generating LS: Learning strategies are the actions that learners take in order to decode, process, store and retrieve language (Ernesto Macaro, 2008, p.109).

LS generating T(teacher): The necessary strategies competence needs to be trained by the teacher, so they can get that language into their mind in the give-and-take meaningful construction.(H. Douglas Brown,1994, pp.190-191).

T generating TB(textbook): As to the relationship between teacher and textbook, *a teacher should be skillful in handling the textbook. If the language, content and sequencing of the textbook are appropriate, the teacher will want to go ahead and use it. However, normally there is something wrong with the textbook, the teacher has to decide what to do next, like developing a kind of "pick and choose" approach to what is in front of them. According to Neville Grant,* Neville Grant (1987) thinks that there are four options for teachers: omiting, replacing, adding and adapting. The textbook use as one of a teacher's main skills, like Earth bearing Metal. A very nice comment about teacher's role in choosing and using a textbook, is from J. Myron Atkin (1967) who compares teaching textbooks to the craft of making metals. For centuries and continuing today, says Atkin, skilled craftsmen have been making metals. They have learned to add a little of this substance and a little of that, then heat the batch for a certain length of time until it reaches a certain color, then let it cool at a certain rate (Atkin, 1967). The effectiveness of using textbook means the teacher generates appropriate teaching methods (TE nourishing TM).

TB generating TM(teaching methods): As for the relationship between textbook and teaching methods, H. Douglas Brown(1994:151) pointed it out that "textbooks" are one type of text, a book for use in an educational curriculum, with a wide variety of types or genres of linguistic forms: spoken or written. Among written texts, the range of possibilities extends from labels and forms and charts to essays and manuals and books, which are for use in supporting techniques in the classroom (H. Douglas Brown, 1994, p.151). There are dozens of resource books that are specifically designed to provide ideas for teachers, like role play, listening and speaking techniques, and activities for children. To sum up textbook generates teaching methods naturally.

TM generating L: Teaching methods focus on the techniques that accounts for learners' needs included in learner-centered instruction, which gives some control to the student like group work or strategy training (Mattarima, Karim and Hamdan, Abdul Rahim,2011) , allows for learner creativity and innovation and enhances a learner's sense of competence and self-worth(H. Douglas Brown, 1994,p.80), that can generate more motivation (H. Douglas Brown, 1994, p.213). Another example of TM generating L is that as language teachers, they should constantly serve as models by illustrating appropriate language, demonstrating activities as well as giving instructions, and showing students how to complete assignments. In any classroom setting, teachers must show students what to mean and what to expect them to do,

so that capable students can be produced. Getting students to do various kinds of homework like written exercises, composition, essay or study is the best way to encourage student autonomy (Jeremy Harmer,2000)

B. Wuxing Restraining Relationship

1. Restraining Circle in Wuxing

The concept of restraint contains the ideas of restriction, check and inhibition with a cyclic sequence of restraint as follows:

WOOD restrains EARTH, EARTH restrains WATER,WATER extinguishes FIRE, FIRE melts METAL, and METAL chops WOOD, among which two roles as to the relationship of restraint for each Element has to be mentioned, those of "being restrained" and of "restraining." The restraining Element is the "suppressor" and the restrained Element is the "suppressed." Hence, the relationship of restraint is also known as the "suppressor–suppressed" relationship. Again, take WOOD for an example. METAL is the suppressor of WOOD, and WOOD is the suppressed of METAL. In the theory of the Five Elements, each Element has a direct relationship with all the other Elements. For example, EARTH is the mother of METAL and the child of FIRE, and at the same time it is the suppressor of WATER and the suppressed of WOOD.

It should be noted that the two relationships of generation and of restraint are inseparable. Without generation organization cannot be born and cannot develop. Without restraint, organization can grow without limit and cause harm. It is necessary to keep both generation and restraint in harmonious relationships within an organization, and to assure their normal development and change. The essence of the theory of the Five Elements is the maintenance of the normal regularity of generation and restraint among the Elements(Zhanwen Liu, 2009).

2. Reflections of the Restraining Circle in EFL (TB》L》T》TM》LS》TB)

TB restraining L: A typical illustration to prove the concept of "textbooks restraining learners" lies in the fact that the comprehensible input (TB) can not "get in " (see Krashen,1982, pp.9-32) if learners (L) has high affective filter as they are "put on the defensive"(Stevick 1989). It is normally TB restraining L. However, if L are motivated, or have self-confidence and good self-image, or his level of anxiety is low, the comprehensible input can have its effect on acquisition. This is known as "L counter-restraining TE". In language learning, counter restraint is a positive phenomenon, indicating student' role being reversed. Students need to be engaged with the content of a text, not just its language (Jeremy Harmer,1998).

L restraining T: Alan C. Mcleam (2012) stresses that the need for all the teachers to consider learners as whole and integrated human beings and respond to them as such. Teachers should see English as a means of education, relating closely to the development of the learner's cognitive ability, rather than as simply the inculcation of a specific series of linguistic skills. Alan C. Mcleam thinks the need for learner-centered teaching is destroying the teacher.

The unique needs and different motivation of each student has restrained the teaching process of teacher's same administering technique in a whole class; The desire of developing an internalized thirst of knowledge and experience is conflicting with such extrinsic motivation as tests and exams in which schools all too often teach students to play the "game" of pleasing teachers and authorities. So in essence learners restrain teacher's innovative behavior (H. Douglas Brown, 1994, p.40).

T restraining TM: As Earth dams, muddies, or absorbs Water, the teacher should update his or her teaching methods so as to nourish the learners' growth (TM generating L). However, the concept of the venerable old master teacher is difficult to sustain in an educational context of new methodologies and new syllabuses (Sudsuang yutdhana, 2005), where the raw recruit from a College of Education may be better informed than the practicing teacher, as Wallace (1991, p.6) points out. Moreover, the teacher in traditional educational institutions is that of master controller, always in charge of every moment in the classroom. Nevertheless, some control on teacher's part is actually an important element of successfully carrying out interactive techniques(Wallace,1991), with which master controllers determine what teaching methods they will use, the Grammar Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-lingual Method, TPR, the Natural Approach, and Communicative Language teaching.

TM restraining LS: Pintrich, P.R. & DeGroot, E (1990) advocates that classroom interference is an effective mean to train learning strategies. That is an evidence reflecting the effect of WATER restraining FIRE, which research has become one of the most hopeful areas of research indirectly aimed at overcoming demotivation. Oxford Rebecca (1993) provides the most comprehensive taxonomy of learning strategies currently available, which are divided into what has come to be known as direct or cognitive strategies (Rebecca Oxford,1990), which learners apply directly to the language itself, and indirect or meta-cognitive strategies in which learners manage or control their own learning process (H. Douglas Brown, 1994, p.200). Teaching methods will perhaps be specifically geared toward building strategies competence. In Rebecca Oxford's (1993) *Language Learning Strategies: What Every Teacher Ought to Know*, the author recommends many different techniques , like encouraging risk-taking, promoting cooperative learning, encouraging them to use right-brain process and getting students to make lists of their common errors and to work on them on their own. Ernesto Macaro thinks that learning strategy training like function word strategy and keyword strategy should be taught to make them more responsible for their own learning (Ernesto Macaro, 2008, p.63). One of the best of teaching methods to get learners intrinsically involved in their language learning is to offer them the opportunity to develop their own set strategies for success. (H. Douglas Brown, 1994, p.80). Teachers have to care more about their students' learning than they do about their own teaching (Jeremy Harmer,2000). Therefore, teaching methods is controlling larning strategies. That's why there

is a statement that the key to creating language classroom is the initiation of interaction by the teacher. One of the best ways to develop your role as an initiator and sustainer of interaction is to develop a repertoire of questioning strategies: knowledge questions, comprehension questions, application questions, inference questions: analysis questions, synthesis questions, evaluation (H. Douglas Brown, 1994, p.166).

LS restraining TB: Learners are hopeless when encountering textbooks with different features of genres, so their different learning strategies control the process of comprehending the text. For example, taking risk to ask question and make further exploration into the context determine them to go haw far in comprehension of the input. Learners tend to struggle in controlling the limited vocabulary and grammatical patterns within a textbook. So some learning strategies such as skimming, scanning, semantic mapping, and guessing can be encouraged to use to conquer the comprehension of the text. A few content-centered ESL textbooks are now appearing in which the content itself is the study and utilization of learning strategies(H. Douglas Brown, 1994, p.209).

IV. The Revelation of the Perceptible Five Teaching Elements

The most revelation of the perceptible five Teaching Elements in EFL can help teachers to build the awareness of Whole Language Teaching. One of the most popular terms currently sweeping through EFL profession, "whole language" has been so widely and divergently interpreted that it unfortunately is on the verge of losing the impact that it once had*(see Rigg, Pat. 1991). Rigg provides a great deal of research and background information on whole language education. The information in this article extends well beyond the whole language approach, extending into five aspects of teaching methods, learning strategies, learners, teacher, teaching materials or textbook).* Whole language is a label that has been used to describe:

A. *Cooperative and participatory learning (functioning as learning methods)*
B. *Focus on the community of learners (functioning as learners)*
C. *Focus on the social nature of language and use authentic, natural and meaning-centered language (functioning as teaching material or textbook)*
D. *Holistic assessment techniques in testing (functioning as teaching methods)*
E. *Sense of Integration of the "four skills" (functioning as teacher)*

The above five factors are involved in an integration of two human body's developments, teacher and learners' growth, along with the learning strategies and teaching methods. As Shu Dingfang (2011, pp.5-6) pointed out that the classroom teaching has five functions: to develop students' interest in learning (L-WOOD); to impart language knowledge in a systematic way (T-EARTH); to enrich language learning environment and resources (TB-METAL); to provide guidance of foreign language learning methods and strategies (LS-FIRE); to provide opportunities for students to demonstrate learning outcomes (TM-WATER). From the perspective of five elements, the classroom teaching might function in harmonious way, if w teachers find the related solutions based on their interralationship.

As for solution to deal with some disordered teaching practice, Hu Wenzhong (1984) once said that learners (wood) often have psychological or emotional obstacles, so much that language input cannot reach the part of brain where language can be absorbed. Then the solution would be through various ways that vivid interesting language material (metal) can be selected, learners can be "submerged" in authentic language for "swimming in ocean"(fire), learners can be freed from the cumbersome of analysis of dull syntax explanation(water), which need the supports from well-qualified teacher (earth), the right learning materials (metal), and practical learning strategies (water), and so on.

V. Summary

The purpose of this article is to apply the Chinese systematic way of thinking in ancient Chinese, Wuxing (the Five Elements), into EFL, even though they do not exactly follow the principle of the generating (productive effect), or the restraining (destructive effect) cycles. They really count in guiding treatment of some disorder of educational phenomena.

When teaching a language, the teacher also teach a complex system of cultural customs, values, and ways of thinking, feeling, and acting in learners' growth, their learning strategies and teacher's development. Based on the perspective of Five Teaching Elements, we might consider the dynamic balance among every element and find the right ways to deal with the troubling teaching issues, the ones addressed as "complementary pairs generating, and opposite pairs restraining". Anyway, this research opens up new paths for dynamic and effective classroom teaching in EFL field, even though some hypothetical classifications of elements and relationships could be valuable for future empirical tests and the classification form for attributes of Yin and Yang, as well as Five Teaching Elements might arise to dispute.

Acknowledgement

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A Sociolinguistic Study of English Taboo Language

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Abstract—In every society there are things which are believed to be not appropriate if spoken on public occasions. A large number of words are therefore taken as silly, vulgar or obscene when used in communication. These words are "taboos". This paper investigates all the major varieties of English taboo, i.e., bodily excretions, death and disease, sex, four-letter words, privacy and discriminatory language, which are respectively defined and provided with concrete examples. Euphemistic and roundabout ways of avoiding using taboo words are offered to deal with the situations.

Index Terms—sociolinguistic study, taboo, euphemism

I. INTRODUCTION

Taboo subjects include: body functions about sex and excretion, private parts of the body, illness and death; words believed to be blasphemy; income, salary, age of ladies, etc. Societies in different countries share this point of view, especially in English-speaking countries, but some of these are openly talked about in China.

Therefore, studies on English taboo have been an important topic under discussion in China among professionals. However, systematic and comprehensive studies on this especially in the fields of intercultural communication and sociolinguistics in China have not been easily seen yet. This paper is to explore various forms of English taboo, along which some comparisons between English and Chinese taboos are made, and euphemisms are thus introduced to relieve the harshness of taboo words. Through these, the socio-cultural values reflected by them are acquired.

II. GENERAL SURVEY OF LINGUISTIC TABOO

A. Origin of Taboo Language

Language is considered to contain special powers—be able to cure sickness, keep away evils, bring good to oneself and harm to an enemy. This belief that words control objects, people and spirits influences human activities through human history since ancient time. Such language usually has to be used with great care, and meticulous attention is paid to pronunciation and wording. People even tend to avoid mentioning them. When people have to talk about those things, they are talked about in very roundabout ways. Then we have instances of linguistic taboo and euphemism.

The word *taboo* is borrowed from Tongan, a language spoken by Polynesians in the Pacific archipelago, where any sacred or humble things are forbidden to touch or even to talk about. (Gu, 2002, p.264) "Taboo" does refer to this phenomenon, and means "holy" or "untouchable". For a long time, English and American believe that avoiding linguistic taboo is the symbol of their civilization. They refuse to talk about certain objects or actions and refuse to use the language referring to them.

B. Definition of the Word "Taboo"

According to Wardhaugh (2000, p.234), taboo is the prohibition or avoidance in any society of behavior believed to be harmful to its members in that it would cause them anxiety, embarrassment, or shame. Consequently, so far as language is concerned, certain things are not to be said or certain objects can be referred to only in certain circumstances, for example, only by certain people, or through deliberate circumlocution, i.e. euphemistically. …Tabooed subjects can vary widely: sex, death, illness, excretion, bodily functions, religious matters, the supernatural. But quite often they extend to other aspects of social life.

The New Oxford Dictionary of English (2001) says, taboo (also tabu) is a social or religious custom prohibiting or restricting a particular practice or forbidding association with a particular person, place, or thing. *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary* (Sixth edition) (2004) explains it like this, taboo is a cultural or religious custom that does not allow people to do, use or talk about a particular thing as people find it offensive or embarrassing; taboo words are words that many people consider offensive or shocking, for example because they refer to sex, the body or people's race. In *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics* (2000), taboo word is a term that is avoided for religious, political or sexual reasons and is usually replaced by a euphemism, e.g. *rest room* or *bath room* for *toilet*. In these dictionaries, the definitions of "taboo" seemingly vary but basically they are the same.

C. Significance of Linguistic Taboo Study

Most people who speak English know the rules of taboo and observe the rules. Breaking the rules may arouse considerable dissatisfaction. The use of a taboo word can lead to a variety of feedbacks, even physical violence or legal action.

When Shaw's use of *bloody* in *Pygmalion* or the use of *damn* in the movie *Gone with the Wind* a widespread public comment was aroused. The penalty for breaking a linguistic taboo can be severe, although perhaps not quite as much today as formerly, for obscenity is still a crime in many jurisdiction, but is hardly likely to cost you your life, as the violation of certain non-linguistic taboos, e.g., incest taboos, might be in certain places in the world. (Wardhaugh, 2000, p.234)

Peoples of different countries do not agree totally on what taboos are. Acts of human excretion and sexual intercourse are to be avoided in polite conversation. Age and salary should be avoided in English conversation. If they must be mentioned, they should be in a euphemistic way. In China, acts of human excretion and sexual intercourse are also taboo, but Chinese are more tolerant in talking about age and salary, which are often openly said even in serious public talk or conversation. Therefore it is important for a foreign language learner to acquaint himself with such knowledge.

III. ENGLISH TABOO OF ALL VARIETIES

A. Bodily Excretions

In any language there are certain things which must be avoided of mentioning. It applies to the words with such connotations as well. In English, the first of these that occur to people are words dealing with excretions. In fact, except tears, all the words concerning bodily excretions are believed taboo. The earliest sayings of "move the bowels" and "pass water" are considered inelegant. And "defecate" and "urinate" seem to be the words used in hospitals. Thus some euphemisms find themselves in replacing them, such as *answer the call of a nature, do one's needs.*

We ask where the "rest room" is, although we have no intention of having a rest. "Powder room" "loo", and "john" are other ways to say "toilet". Indeed, it is impossible to explain what a "rest room" is for without the use of roundabout ways or baby talk. It's "where you wash your hands" or "where you pee or poo", which are already euphemisms. Here we see a semantic change involved as the expressions used often have little to do with the referents.

B. Death and Disease

The fear of death carries into fear of words having to do with death and certain diseases. Many people believe words have great relations with what they symbolize, therefore "If anything should happen to me" means "when I die". Instead of saying "die", they use substitute expressions such as "pass away", "go to his reward", "answer the call of God", "go home", "to have a better place", "depart" and "go west". Similar words are so many, which is also the case in Chinese, like "走了", "去了", "去了极乐世界", "去见阎王了", "驾鹤西去",

Some serious diseases are also taboo topics. Cancer is said in a roundabout way as "Big C" or "terminally ill". So is it with the disease of mental disorder and intelligence deficiency. Their euphemistic sayings may be "He is not all there." "She is a little eccentric / a little confused."

C. Sex

According to Deng (1989, p.93), words having to do with anatomy and sex, and words even vaguely suggesting anatomical or sexual matters, have remarkable connotations, especially in American culture. Ladies of the nineteenth century could not bring themselves to say "breast" or "leg", not even of chicken, so that the terms "white meat" and "dark meat" were substituted. It was thought inelegant to speak of "going to bed", and "to retire" was used instead.

In the United States, the sexual revolution of the 1960s began to make it a great change. English-speaking countries tend to be freer and more tolerant on this in recent years. People, particularly younger ones, feel freer than they once did to take about sex-related subjects, masturbation, impotence, sexual activities of various kinds, and human sex organs are more likely to be talked or written about than they were 15 or 20 years ago. It is the same with China in present day. Thus *to make love, to have sex with*, etc., which are slightly "dressed-up" terms, are not all uncommon in writing now.

D. Four-letter Words

People are more tolerant with such words like *fuck, tits, damn,* the so-called "four-letter words". For instance, on the streets in London we could see the eye-catching shop name "FCUK", which in fact is the abbreviation of "French Connection United Kingdom". In spite of the sexual revolution, these words are still considered improper in most conversations, even in written form. In 1963, Eric Partridge included *fuck* in his *Dictionary of Slang and Unconventional English.* Despite his use of an asterisk for the vowel "u", the result was a storm of complaints to schools, libraries, and the police. Even today, the book is not always available on the open shelves of public libraries.

An even greater frenzy took place in 1959, when the unabridged edition of D. H. Lawrence's *Lady Chatterley's Lover* was published, which contained several instances of the word. The edition was banned because of obscenity, and court cases followed. Later, the word quickly appeared in the daily press, and it has become widespread in the literary works. Despite the development of liberal attitudes, there is still a strong antagonism to the use of four-letter words in public speech; and they are still not always to be found in dictionaries.

E. Swear Words

A remarkable variety of linguistic forms can be considered as cursing and swearing. There are the complex and sophisticated expressions that may be found in religious, legal, and other formal contexts. At the same time, there are many daily examples of taboo language that express such emotions as hatred, frustration and surprise. The most common speech comprise single words or short phrases, conveying different levels of intensity and attracting different degrees of social approval. English examples range from the mild such as *heck* and *dash*, to the most harsh one, *fuck*.

In these social contexts swearing can become a dominant linguistic feature, with sentences often containing taboo words. Sex, excretion, and supernatural power are the main sources of swear words. Half of them relate to words referring to body parts and functions that societies considered taboo, such as *merd, ball*, and other four-letter words. Another half deals with the names of gods, devils, etc. like *God, Dear Lord, By the holy sacrament, Heavens, Hell…*

F.   Privacy

One of the reasons behind taboo on questions about personal matters is that English-speaking people put a high value on *privacy*. The English has a saying "A man's home is his castle", meaning a man's home is sacred to him; no one should come in without permission. So is it also with his life, personal affairs and private concerns. To ask questions concerning one's age, weight, income, marital status, politics, religion etc. would be considered prying into individual's personal life, which is another form of invading a person's "castle". (Deng, 1989, p.96)

"It's none of your business" may also reflect their value on privacy. Basically, you should not ask following questions to an English or an American. *How old are you? What's your income? What's your religion? Are you married? Where are you going? How much did you pay for that?*

Compared with English language, privacy does not sound familiar to Chinese people. Deng (1989, p.96) summarized two reasons. One is because of the close living arrangements of the Chinese. Villagers with scores or hundreds or more families densely packed in a small area have been typical of the Chinese countryside for centuries, which is quite different from the individual houses—often with a sizeable surrounding yard or garden for each—that have been characteristic of Western countries until comparatively recent times. Another reason may be the communal spirit or spirit of brotherhood that has long prevailed among the Chinese. Close contact and certain amount of mutual dependence and mutual concern mean that one person's affairs are also very much the affairs of one family, one's neighbors, and even the larger community that one belongs to.

G.   Discriminatory Language

In recent times, many people have a growing tendency to be sensitive to what is called sexist language and racist language.

(1) Sexist language

Sexist language in its present day means language that is prejudiced against the female. Studies of sexism in the English language began by American women concerned with the effects of language on people's attitude towards women, which prejudice against women and in favor of men.

In speech and writing, for example, a person or a baby of unknown sex is referred to as *he* rather than *she;* the person (even a woman) presiding a meeting is the *chairman*. The history of our world is the history of *mankind*, not *womankind*. (Deng, 1989, p.98) Those words that are "unmarked" usually refer to the males. If referring to female, additional marks will be put before or after it, for example, waiter—wait*ress*, hero—hero*ine*, doctor—*woman* doctor.

There is a distinction between *Mrs* and *Miss* in both English and Chinese, which is not paralleled by a pair of titles showing whether or not a man is married. This implies unfairly that it is more important for a woman than for a man to show whether they are married, in spite of the introduction of *Ms*. In English, there is a tendency which involves words that are clearly restricted in one sex or the other, with female words tending to have less favorable meanings. A class pair is *master* and *mistress*, where the male meaning is "good", and the female meaning is "bad"; specifically, a mistress is a partner for extramarital sex. (Hudson, 2000, p.102) It reflects greater tolerance towards men in the sexual liberties.

(2) Racist language

Racism is the belief that some human races are inherently inferior to others. Racist language is that which shows a bias against certain racial or ethnic groups; it is the language that degrades or belittles them. (Deng, 1989, p.100)

In English language, much of the discrimination is against "black", whether black people or black color. The color *white* generally stands for innocence, purity, cleanliness, chastity—all words with positive, pleasant connotations. On the other hand, the color *black* is associated with wickedness, evil, filth; e.g., *blackguard, blacklist, black mark*. A member of a family that others are ashamed of is called a *black sheep*, not a *white sheep*. Even a lie, if it is a *white lie*, is not so bad as an ordinary lie, or *black lie*. However, it is not just blacks who are called degrading names in the U.S. There are names for other racial or ethnic groups as well: Italians are called *dagos*; Jews—*kikes*; Poles—*polacks*; Chinese—*chinks*; Japanese—*japs*; etc. All of these are insulting names, reflecting strong racial prejudice. (Deng, 1989, p.101)

Sometimes, one will hear racial remarks or "ethnic jokes"—jokes about the supposed stupidity or ignorance of certain groups. Such jokes may appear funny, but they are offensive nevertheless. In English, who are discriminated against most may be Dutch. In the seventeenth century, Britain often fought with the Netherlands, so the word "Dutch" has derogatory sense in many of its usage, e.g., *double Dutch, to go Dutch, to talk Dutch, Dutch widow*. Even swear words could not do without "Dutch", for example, *"I'm a Dutch if …"*.   Same thing also occurs to French and people of other nations. We have following saying, *to take French leave, Chinese copy, Spanish athlete, Irish bull*, etc.

Though the progress in some respects in the long river of history has been considerable, English still retains sexism and racism. You are never too careful to offend others without realizing it. What is more important is to keep up with the language and develop the sensitivity to the feelings of those who suffer from the prejudice. Understanding the social injustice is a guarantee against racist and sexist behavior.

IV. THE USE OF EUPHEMISMS

In order to erase the harshness of taboo words, people have created euphemisms, words supplanted language considered too unpleasant. Robert Burchfield (1985), the editor of *The Oxford English Dictionary*, once observed that "a language without euphemisms would be a defective instrument of communication." So is taboo without euphemisms.

It appears that among all the people of the world there is a feeling that the names of the gods are too holy, and the names of evil spirits too terrifying, and they are not supposed to be treated as other common words. Therefore, they are purposefully avoided in a roundabout way. *Gee, gosh almighty* and *gosh darn* are ways to say *Jesus, God Almighty* and *God damn*. They are the use of euphemisms.

Euphemistic words and expressions allow us to talk about unpleasant things and neutralize the unpleasantness. They find dozens of expressions especially in the words of different jobs. Euphemisms make unpleasant jobs more attractive, even the word *job* itself is called *profession*. For example, *janitor* becomes *custodian*; *sanitation engineer* replaces *garbage collector*; *gardener* is changed into *landscape architect*.

Euphemistic terms are found used in every aspect of society, and one of them is the group of words describing "poor" or "poor condition". In English, except for *poor, poverty stricken, be broke*, there are *in an awkward financial situation, badly off,* etc. During the last twenty years or so, several other words have been trying to take their place, at least among educated circles. Wang (p.124) had a humorous sentence that "I used to think I was *poor*. Then they told me I wasn't poor, I was *needy*, I was *deprived*. Then they told me *unprivileged* was overused. I was *disadvantaged*. I still don't have a dime. But I have a great vocabulary."

Very often euphemisms can be used to avoid embarrassing situation and thus to protect individual's feelings. It becomes obvious in international relations. In 1983, after the U.S. sent its armed forces into Grenada, Regan showed his irritation with reporters at their "frequent use of the word *invasion*." "This", he said, "was a *rescue mission*". Grenada is a Third World country. Most such countries are poor. The terms for these countries are first *underdeveloped nations*; later *developing nations* and *emerging nations* took its place. The United Nations calls them *less-developed countries*. (Deng, p.89)

However, the excessive use of euphemisms is not appropriate either. Suppose an occasion where there is such a line "The *departed* rests in his *casket* in a *slumber room* where friends may visit with him before the *grief therapist assists the dear one* to his *plot* in a *memoria garden*". (Gu, p.274) Too many euphemisms in one sentence made it the opposite just to what is wished.

V. CONCLUSION

Taboo and euphemism affect us all. We all probably have a few things we refuse to talk about and still others we do not talk about directly. Even though we know the words, or else we express ourselves on them very indirectly. We may have some words which are hardly ever used because they are too emotional or offensive. Each social group is different from every other in how it behaves in this way or that way, and mutual respect in the use of language is the basis of friendly mutual communication. Perhaps one linguistic universal is that no social group uses language quite at random.

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English Language Proficiency as a Predictor of Academic Achievement among Medical Students in Iran

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Abstract—In Iran, many changes have been made in English language teaching. In academic grounds it is important to know the correlation between the expertise of students in English and their scores in different scientific subjects, before applying any further curriculum reform. The present study was designed to determine the correlation between English language proficiency and the achievement of medical students in their national comprehensive basic science exam (NCBSE). One hundred and fifty six students admitted in the academic years of 2008 and 2009 (60% female and 40% male) were enrolled for the present study. The results of General English and Scientific language courses, the average marks in five consecutive semesters and the NCBSE scores were extracted from their educational files. Data was analyzed using appropriated tests such as ANOVA, Pearson's correlation and liner regression. The present data indicated that proficiency in English could significantly influence academic achievement of medical students. Furthermore, changes of policy in the students' selection or teaching styles without preparation of necessary backgrounds including increasing their English knowledge could not significantly alter the achievement of Iranian medical students.

Index Terms—English proficiency, academic achievement, correlation, national comprehensive basic science exam (NCBSE)

I. INTRODUCTION

English as a second or foreign language has gained much attention during the past decades in almost every country. In Iran English is taught as a foreign language in high-schools as well as in universities (Mirdehghan, HoseiniKargar, Navab, & Mahmoodi, 2011). Aside from different language courses presented in different levels of public academic centers, there are also private institutes that teach different levels of foreign language.

As a branch of English language teaching, English for specific purposes (ESP) has gained much attention during recent years (Johns, 2013; Sarem, Hamidi, & Mahmoudie, 2013; Zaki, 2007). Primarily ESP was divided into English for science and technology (EST), English for business and economics (EBE) and English for social sciences (ESS) by Hutchinson (1987). According to him, medical studies is a branch of English for academic purposes or a branch of EST, and students in all medical fields should learn EST as part of their academic study.

Furthermore, almost all original medical textbooks taught in universities are written in English. This should also be in mind that most communications through the Internet and scientific publications are in English too. Nevertheless, in countries such as Iran where English is not their native language, some of the scientific textbooks are or have been translated. Still English plays an important role in students' academic carriers, helping them to improve and learn at a faster pace. For the mentioned reasons, Educational Ministries in Iran made it compulsory for all students in Iranian universities to take different English courses as part of their study to improve and enhance their proficiency over their objective courses.

For the medical students under study, the English courses were presented in two different sections. The first section, called General English included 2x3 units, while in the second section students have to learn the specific language (EST) related to their objective courses. This part of their language learning was also comprised of 2x3 unites. The aim of the general English courses assigned is to teach the four general skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking, while their specific courses were administered so that students could progress further in their field of study by consulting

through foreign websites and scanning through various articles. Throughout these courses and as a result, students should learn basic vocabulary terms and grammar helping them to understand and to act in achieving respective academic success.

Considering many improvements in the field of language teaching in recent years, students in Iran are still facing many difficulties in attaining language proficiency. Investigators in this field, discussed motivational problems concerning Iranian students in universities (Sheibani, 2012; Vaezi, 2008). They also believe that lack of proficiency among undergraduate students is due to lack of time or/and insufficient practice during high school. Classes with large number of students in universities could be another cause of bad teaching and learning among students of higher education (Sheibani, 2012; Vaezi, 2008). As a solution to such problems Noora (2008) suggested a curriculum reform, in which teacher training on new methodologies and acknowledging the English language were a great source for information. Nevertheless, for the effectiveness of such reform there should be sufficient logical evidences. To our knowledge, such study has not yet been carried out among medical students.

On the other hand, there are great deals of variables among the students admitted to medical courses, which affect their success in different exams. Students' proficiency in English is one the most important factors that influences their success both in high school as well as their university entrance exam (Dixon, 2004; Esmaeili & Haghdoost, 2008; Graham, 1987). Another factor that is a predictor of students' achievement in different exams could be their gender and personal characteristics (Buddeberg-Fischer, Klaghofer, Abel, & Buddeberg, 2003). Role of gender and language proficiency, in achievement of medical student in Iran, was not thoroughly studied before and needs to be considered before any curriculum reform.

Inability of some medical students in the National Comprehensive Basic Science Exam (NCBSE), or passing such exam with low grade, was noticed by the educational authorities of Iran. To increase the achievements of medical students, educational authorities tried to change the present teaching style (teacher based) to newer methods of teaching. Problem base learning (PBL) was suggested as an alternative way of teaching to increase the achievement of students in different academic subjects. In this method the topic is divided between a group of students, so that each individual has to read less from the original textbook and then to share it with other students in the group (Bayliss & Ingram, 2006; Neville & Britt, 2008). However, teaching according to PBL requires limited students in the classroom or requires numerous teaching academic members, in each department of universities in order to be effective. In our country due to limited teaching members in universities and overcrowded classes, it is nearly impossible to teach through PBL, similar to a suggested case by Wood (2003).

New investigations showed evidence based medicine (Gongora-Ortega, Segovia-Bernal, de Jesus Valdivia-Martinez, Galaviz-deAnda, & Prado-Aguilar, 2012; Norman & Shannon, 1998) and critical reading (Yudkin, 2006) are the most suitable styles of teaching for medical related students (Hadley, Hassan, & Khan, 2008). Evidence based medicine (EBM) and related critical reading methods are now in practice in many universities in the United States (Tanenbaum, 2009), or the United Kingdom (Meats, Heneghan, Crilly, & Glasziou, 2009) were the native language is English. To increase the gain of student in medical fields, the ministry of health and medical educations tried to change the present teaching style (teacher based) to EBM, without considering that students' accomplishment is multi-factorial and a sound knowledge of general as well as scientific English language is necessary before such reform.

Finally, before changing from teacher-based style to EBM or English language teaching style in medical universities, it is necessary to carry out many surveys surrounding the English proficiency of students and their achievements in different aspects of medical courses. The Present work was designed to see the correlation between the present circumstances of language expertise of medical students and their academic success in the exams conducted every semester and the national comprehensive basic science exam. The result of this study may help the administrative bodies to know their deficiency in the present curriculum, and take necessary steps to improve the achievement of medical students.

II. METHODOLOGY

In Iran, after successful graduation in secondary schools, students are eligible in attending the university entrance exam. The Ministry of education conducts the exam, and each student can select his or her university carrier according to the score in that exam. Since medical courses have the highest demands, only competitive students with the highest marks in the university entrance exam are accepted. These students have to pass general and basic science subjects during five consecutive semesters within the medical school and achieve a prosperous score in the national comprehensive basic science exam (NCBSE) conducted by the Ministry of Health and Medical education, before beginning their clinical courses.

Kerman University of medical sciences is one of the high-grade medical universities in Iran, which has many teaching faculties such as medicine, pharmacology, dentistry, nursing, clinical laboratory courses and many other clinical related courses. Nearly one thousand students are admitted in this university every year and start their studies in different faculties.

One hundred and fifty six medical students admitted in the academic years of 2008 (51 female and 35 male) and 2009 (42 female and 28 male) were enrolled for the present study. None of the students was aware of this study, and the present data extracted from their educational files (without registering name or identification number of students), were

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provided by the head office of their department. The extracted data is the marks obtained from their English language courses that include 2x3 units of general language and 2x3 unites of scientific English. In addition to their score in the NCBSE, average marks obtained by them in five semesters before the NCBSE were also recorded.

English language dependent scientific subjects that students have to pass before attending the NCBSE are 2 units of Biochemistry, 2 units of Psychology, 2 units of Hygienic, 3 units of Anatomy and 2 units of Medical physic during the first semester. In the second semester, these subjects were four units of Biochemistry, two units of Hygienic, four units of Anatomy, and four units of Histology. Scientific subjects of the third semester include two units of Hygienic, two units of Nutrition, two units of Genetic, 4units of Physiology, 3 units of Anatomy and two units of Neuroanatomy. In the fourth semester, the medical-related courses include four units of Microbiology, five units of Physiology, 3 units of Immunology and one unit of Virology. Finally, during the fifth semester students have to pass five units of Pathology, four units of Parasitology, and one unit of Embryology.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

To analysis the data, students were primarily divided to four groups according to their gender and their year of admittance. Described statistic according to the demographic variables (gender and the admittance year) of students and their score in English language courses and averages of marks obtained during five semesters and their NCBSE scores were checked first. To determine differences between four groups, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Tukey's post-hoc test was executed. Then, the correlation of scores in different English courses and NCBSE were assessed by Pearson correlation coefficient. Finally, we modeled the score of students in NCBSE exam based on the gender, the admittance year, and scores of students in different English courses by linear regression method. We used SPSS (version 19, IBM Company, USA) for our analysis and p-value less than 0.05 was considered as significant.

Analyzed data showed 59.3% of students admitted in the year 2008 were female, whereas this figure for the students of 2009 was 6o%. Described statistics of four groups of students are presented in the table 1. Analyzed data showed distributions of score were normal in all the language subjects (minimum 10 and maximum 20), as well as average marks scored in different semester.

ANOVA analysis of different marks obtained showed while a non-significant difference exists between scores obtained for the general language 1(15.30-16.33), female students of 2008 (18.26 ± 1.63) significantly ($p < 0.01$) scored higher marks in the general language 2 than both groups of students (female=16.85 ± 2.68, male=16.35 ± 2.38) of 2009. They (18.70 ± 2.16) also significantly scored ($p < 0.01$) higher marks in the scientific language 2 than corresponding groups of students (female=17.30 ± 1.97, male=16.47 ± 2.74) admitted in the year of 2009. Furthermore, except average marks of the first semester, male students of 2009 significantly scored lower marks ($p < 0.05$-0.01) than other students of 2008 or female students admitted in the year of 2009 (figure 1). Finally, male students of 2009 scored lower marks (118.89 ± 11.48) in the NCBSE exam than other three groups, as shown in table 1.

Due to the limited number of students in different groups, we carried out two-tailed bivariate Pearson's correlations, irrespective of gender or year of admittance for all the students. These data indicated beside a significant (R=0.40-0.64, P<0.001) correlation between different language courses, both general English and scientific language courses have highly significant (R=0.29-0.70, P<0.01) correlation with different scores obtained in five semesters or the NCBSE. Summary of these correlations are present in table 2. In addition, determined correlation between the average of different English language scores and the NCBSE of all the participants showed a highly significant (R=0.50, P<0.001) correlation. Figure 2 is a summary of this correlation.

In univariate regression model, we found that sources of students in both general and scientific English courses had significant association with their scours in NCBSE. However, in multivariate analysis, only the regression coefficient of 1.76 of general language 2 was significant (P<0.01). In crude analysis, the coefficient for gender was -3.72, but the adjusted coefficient dropped to -0.96, however both coefficients were not statistically significant.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Calculated descriptive results indicated that all students scored high marks for the appropriated language courses during four consecutive semesters as presented in table 1. On the other hand, the average of marks obtained for each semester was in intermediate range (passing mark is 10 and the highest mark is 20), while they scored lower marks (passing mark 95 and the highest mark 200) in the NCBSE. Furthermore, a quick look to table 2 points out highly significant correlation (R=0.59-0.64, P<0.001) between the language courses presented in each four consecutive semesters and the average of marks obtained in that term. However, the correlation between language courses and the average of marks obtained in the fifth semester or the NCBSE reduced (R=0.29-0.48, P<0.01). Comparable results reported by Maleki and his colleagues (Maleki & Zangani, 2007) showed significant correlation between English language proficiency and achievement in English speaking and writing subjects. Equivalent results also reported by Komba and colleagues (Komba, Kafanabo, Njabili, & Kira, 2012) in Tanzania showed positive correlation between students' academic performance and their abilities in written English language skills.

Here, our data for the first time may point out that while students prepare for the appropriated language exam, they score higher marks in other scientific subjects. However, they fail to keep in mind the general or scientific English

language during the fifth semester or the NCBSE. This could be the cause of reduction in their performances in those exams. In addition, the present data clearly indicates that the magnificence of knowledge in general and scientific English is essential for a non English-speaking community in the achievement of their medical subjects throughout their academic study.

Proficiency over scientific English language among higher education is not only the problem of Iranian students. In many none English speaking such as Malaysia (Gobel, Thang, Sidhu, Oon, & Chan, 2013), Pakistan (Fikree & Marsh, 1996), Tanzania (Komba et al., 2012), Spain (Abella & Urrutia, 2013) and even in English speaking countries like Australia (Mann, Canny, Reser, & Rajan, 2013), the United Kingdom (Meats et al., 2009) and the USA (Tanenbaum, 2009), it was shown that students ability in scientific English (reading, writing and speaking) directly increases the success of medical students. That is why in most of these countries including Iran, educational authorities try to change classical teaching methods to suggested new methods in order to increase students' achievement.

As mentioned before, PBL was suggested as an alternative way of teaching to increase the achievement of students in different academic subjects. However, teaching according to PBL requires limited students in the classroom or requires numerous teaching academic members, in each department of such universities in order to be effective. Furthermore, proficiency in general as well as scientific English language is one of the necessities for the implication of PBL. In our country due to limited teaching members in most universities and overcrowded classes, it is nearly impossible to teach through the PBL method.

EBM (Gongora-Ortega et al., 2012; Norman & Shannon, 1998) and critical reading (Yudkin, 2006) were two other suggested methods of teaching for the medical related students (Hadley et al., 2008). Critical reading is the process of constantly interacting with the text while reading it, understanding more and deeper from what is just written. Though EBM and related critical reading are now in practice in many universities in the United States (Tanenbaum, 2009), or the United Kingdom (Meats et al., 2009) were the native language is English, its implantation in Iran is not suitable, due to lack of inadequate knowledge of English. Unfortunately, to increase the gain of students in medical fields, the ministry of health and medical educations in Iran tried to change the present teaching style (teacher based) to evidence based medicine, without thoroughly considering students control over English. Expertise in the English language scales is a necessity for such system as suggested by many investigators (Ahmadian & Hosseini, 2012; Al-Hattab, 2006; Al-Sawalha & Chow, 2012; Haghdoost et al., 2010; Mann et al., 2013), and results of the present study (table 2) clearly indicated lack of such expertise among our medical students.

Our data (figure 1) also indicated that male students admitted in year 2009 scored lower marks through their five semesters or their NCBSE compared to corresponding female students, while that was not the case for the student accepted in 2008. According to previous reports, (Fikree & Marsh, 1996; Shekhar & Devi, 2012) in the Asian communities it was shown female students dynamically study better than male students. This statement may be true for the ratio of students admitted to the medical universities every year, as shown in table 1. Nearly 60% of the students admitted in the two academic years of 2008 and 2009 were female; however only one group of our students showed such difference and the male students admitted in 2008 had equivalent score as their female counterparts. The only explanation for this difference could be the policy change of the authorities. In the year 2008, students were accepted in the medical school, according to their score in the university entrance exam, while in the year 2009 acceptance of students were according to the university entrance exam as well as ethnicity.

Dobel and colleagues (Gobel et al., 2013) showed students from urban places score better than their rural counterparts in different language courses. Our present data may confirm their hypothesis as well as conclusions of Fikree and March (Fikree & Marsh, 1996) or Shekhar and Devi (Shekhar & Devi, 2012). Because both groups of students admitted in the year 2008, score equal marks in their language courses and different semesters or their NCBSE, but only male students in the second group had lower marks in their scientific languages and likewise in the average marks obtained in different semesters and the NCBSE.

Finally, results of determined prediction effects (liner regression model) of students' English language score, gender, and year of admittance on the NCBSE score are shown in table 4. These results showed the highest predictor of success in the NCBSE are through knowledge of general as well as scientific language courses. The findings also indicate that the gender or the year of admittance had lower significant impact.

In conclusion, the present data indicated language proficiency in general as well as scientific use could significantly influence academic achievement of medical students. Furthermore, changes of policy in the students' selection or teaching styles without preparation of necessary backgrounds, such as having sound knowledge over the English language (reading, writing, as well as speaking), could not affect the achievement of Iranian medical students.

APPENDIX. TABLES AND FIGURES

TABLE 1:
DESCRIBED STATISTIC OF DIFFERENT MARKS OBTAINED BY MEDICAL STUDENTS (N=156) ADMITTED IN ACADEMIC YEARS OF 2008 AND 2009 IN KERMAN UNIVERSITY OF MEDICAL SCIENCES.

Admittance year	2008		2009	
Subjects	Female (n=51)	Male (n=35)	Female (n=42)	Male (n=28)
General language 1	15.59 (3.29)	15.30 (3.61)	16.55 (1.85)	16.33 (2.01)
General language 2	18.26 (1.63) □	17.16 (2.23)	16.85 (2.68)	16.35 (2.38)
Scientific language 1	17.98 (2.42)	17.57 (2.31)	18.19 (1.64)	16.80 (2.37)*
Scientific language 2	18.70 (2.16) □	18.14 (2.22)	17.30 (1.97)	16.47 (2.74)*
Average mark of semester 1	15.95 (1.66)	15.65 (1.52)	16.19 (1.30)	15.39 (0.92)*
Average mark of semester 2	15.25 (1.96)	14.61 (2.02)	14.98 (1.48)	13.99 (1.27)*
Average mark of semester 3	15.80 (1.70)	15.77 (1.58)	15.47 (1.44)	14.41 (1.27)*
Average mark of semester 4	15.28 (1.42)	15.24 (1.34)	15.37 (1.43)	13.88 (0.98)*
Average mark of semester 5	15.64 (1.50)	15.62 (1.36)	15.77 (1.67)	14.36 (1.22)*
National Basic Science Score	124.90 (17.35)	124.00 (14.12)	126.64 (13.97)	118.89 (11.48)*

Figures presented are calculated mean and the ones in the brackets are standard deviations of their respectful mean. The * marks show significant (P<0.05-0.01) differences between male and female students admitted in academic year of 2009, while □ mark presented significant (P<0.01) difference between female students of 2008 and all the students of 2009.

TABLE 2:
TWO TAILED BIVARIATE PEARSON'S CORRELATION DETERMINED FOR ALL THE MEDICAL STUDENTS (N=156), ADMITTED DURING ACADEMIC YEARS OF 2008 AND 2009 IN KERMAN UNIVERSITY OF MEDICAL SCIENCES.

Subjects	General language 1	General language 2	Scientific language 1	Scientific language 2
Average mark of semester 1	0.64*	0.49*	0.49*	0.50*
Average mark of semester 2	0.54*	0.64*	0.52*	0.60*
Average mark of semester 3	0.42*	0.62*	0.59*	0.70*
Average mark of semester 4	0.41*	0.58*	0.49*	0.59*
Average mark of semester 5	0.29*	0.48*	0.39*	0.48*
National Basic Science Score	0.38*	0.45*	0.39*	0.37*

Figures presented are the calculated correlation factor (**R**) between respective rows and columns. The * marks indicate highly significant (p<0.01) correlations between different language courses and scores obtained in particular exams.

TABLE 3:
PREDICTION EFFECT OF STUDENTS' ENGLISH LANGUAGE SCORE, GENDER, AND YEAR OF ADMITTANCE ON THE NATIONAL BASIC SCIENCE SCORE, DETERMINED BY A LINER REGRESSION MODEL.

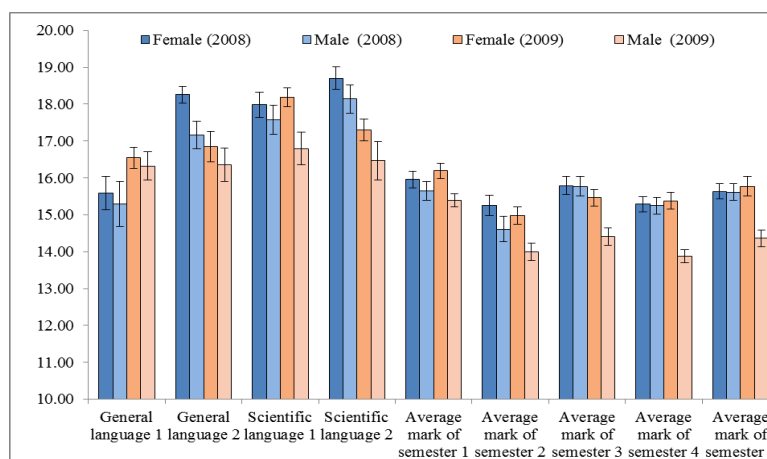| Variables	Crude Analysis		Adjusted analysis	
	Regression coefficient	P value	Regression coefficient	Predicted value
General language 1	1.94	<0.001	0.80	0.11
General language 2	3.0	<0.001	1.76	0.01
Scientific language 1	2.62	<0.001	0.71	0.30
Scientific language 2	2.42	<0.001	0.58	0.39
Gender differences	-3.72	0.13	-0.96	0.67
Year of admittance	-0.88	0.72	0.79	0.75

Figure 1: Comparison of different scores obtained by the medical students (n=156). Analyzed data showed while gender did not affect the score among students admitted in the academic year of 2008, gender significantly influenced (p<0.05-0.001) the marks obtained by the students admitted in the academic year of 2009.
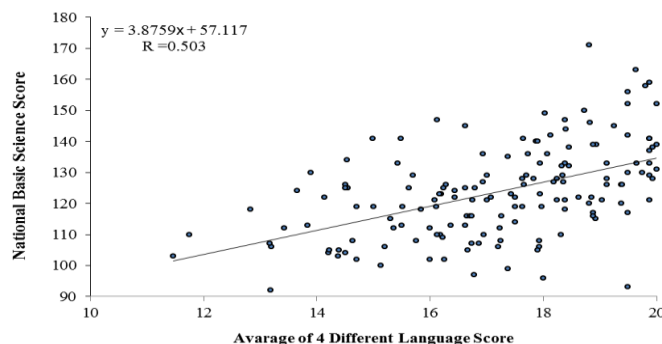
Figure 2: Correlation of National basic science score against average of marks obtained in four different language courses (general English language 1 and 2, and scientific English language course 1 and 2). Each one of the language courses was 3 units.   Regression coefficient (R=0.503) is highly significant (P<0.001).

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Cultural Awareness in Chinese-English Translation

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Abstract—There are very important cultural factors in translation practice, especially in Chinese-English translation. The learners' cultural awareness is of utmost importance in Chinese-English translation. Translation refers to the interaction between two languages, and also the communication between two cultures. However, owing to the differences between Chinese and western cultures, it is not easy for translators to convey the exact meaning of the languages without good understanding of the cultures. So, it is both important and necessary to have cultural awareness while doing Chinese-English translation.

Index Terms—cultural factors, cultural awareness, translation, consideration

I. INTRODUCTION

Culture refers to the cumulative deposit of knowledge, experience, beliefs, values, attitudes, meanings, hierarchies, religion, notions of time, roles, spatial relations, concepts of the universe, and material objects and possessions acquired by a group of people in the course of generations through individual and group striving (Dai weidong, He zhaoxiong, 2002). Culture has many different meanings. Culture is a powerful human tool for survival and communication.

Cultural awareness includes awareness of our own culture and other cultures. The awareness is gained from experiencing the culture, and according to Tomlinson (2001), it is "a gradually developing inner sense of the equality of the cultures, an increased understanding of one's own and other people's cultures, and a positive interest in how cultures both connect and differ. Such awareness can broaden the mind, increase tolerance and facilitate international communications."(cited in Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004, p. 3).

Increased cultural awareness can give us increased credibility and expertise. It can also help us to achieve cultural empathy and sensitivity (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004). Doing translation is not simply to translate the meaning of a passage from one language into another. It is really a complicated task that requires very good understanding of the cultures of both the source language and the target language. Eugene A. Nida (2001) states, "the role of language within a culture and the influence of the culture on the meanings of words and idioms are so pervasive that can scarcely any text be adequately understood without careful consideration of its cultural background." (Nida, Eugene A. 2001, P13) Richard E. Porter and Larry A. Samovar also explain: "Intercultural communication occurs whenever a message producer is a member of one culture and a message receiver is a member of another." (Porter & Samovar, 1998:15) Therefore, translation, as a cross-lingual communication, is both the transformation from one language to another and from one culture to another. Language is a part of culture, and when people do translation from one language into another, they should pay attention to the necessary knowledge of the two cultures involved.

II. CULTURE, LANGUAGE AND TRANSLATION

Culture and Language are two indispensable conceptions in the discussion of Translation. Language is the human capacity for acquiring and using complex systems of communication. Language is also a social phenomenon, and people from different cultures use different languages to communicate in daily life. Translation works make it easier for people from different cultures to understand each other more and better.

Culture, in a broad sense, is a total way of life of a people, including the patterns of people's belief, customs, techniques and language that characterize the life of the people. Language is a very important medium to express cultural notes. People read and write and communicate with each other in languages on the basis of cultural understanding. In this sense, culture and language intrinsically depend on each other in communications.

Very importantly, culture conditions the forms of languages. No language can be separated from its culture.

In translation practice, translators should be clear about the relation between culture and language, and the importance of the cultural implications in communication.

See the following example:

1) 周瑞家的听了笑着说道："阿弥陀佛，真真坑死人的事儿，等十年都未必这样巧的呢！" (Cao & Gao, 2000)

This is a part from one of the master pieces of Chinese classical novels —《红楼梦》(A Dream of Red mansions by Cao xueqin). It has two different English translation versions which are both widely accepted in China: one was done by famous Chinese translator Yang xianyi (杨宪益) and his wife, Gladys Yang; the other was translated by British sinologist David Hawkes. Let's compare their translations of the sentence above:

A. "Gracious Buddha!" Mrs Zhou chuckled, "How terribly chancy! You might wait for ten years without such a run of luck!" (Yang xianyi and Gladys Yang, 2012)

B. "God bless my soul!" ZhouRui's wife exclaimed, "You would certainly need some patience! Why, you might wait ten years before getting all these things at the proper times!" (David Hawkes, 1977)

These two examples clearly show that the two translators have very different cultural awareness when doing the translation. As a traditional Chinese person, Yang had a conventional understanding of the religious note mentioned in this sentence: 阿弥陀佛. In china, Buddhism is the dominating religion. So Yang translated this as: "Gracious Buddha"; while the British translator was more interested in God. This is quite accepted in different groups of readers. The translation versions are different because of the translators' different cultural awareness. But Yangs' translation makes the readers (especially the foreign readers) know more about the Chinese culture.

III.   CULTURAL FACTORS AND CULTURAL AWARENESS

There are important cultural factors in both language teaching and translation practice. Each language has its own genius, and to communicate effectively one must respect the genius of each language; To preserve the content of the message the form must be changed (Nida and Taber 1969), and translation just means to convey the genius of languages in different forms. According to Nida, a culture of a society is reflected in certain aspects of its language, but a language does not, however, reflect the culture automatically (Nida, 2002). Translators should consciously avoid close reproduction of the syntactical structures of the source language, and aim at a natural rendering in the receptor language. In translation practice, translators should also take the important cultural factors into account to get the better version of translation. In his book "Linguistics and Ethnology in Translation-Problems", Nida listed the following cultural factors that are closely related to the translation practice: the ecological culture, the material culture, the social culture, the religious culture, and the linguistic culture. (Nida: 1964) As we are considering the Chinese-English translation practice, we will see some examples and try to interpret the importance of cultural awareness in Chinese-English translation.

1. The ecological culture

The ecological-culture refers to the system established by a nationality in the process of adapting, utilizing and transforming the environment. Generally it covers the religious beliefs, modes of production, lifestyles, social organization and customs of this nationality when it interacts with the environment. The ecological culture can adjust the relationship between man and nature according to the requirement of ecological rules, actively reflect the features of eco-system working, and lead the eco-system towards harmony, stability and prosperity. In Chinese-English translation practice, we find it very significant to have eco-cultural awareness to make a better version in translation.

See the following examples:

(2) ……古人所言的梧桐一叶而天下知秋的遥想，大约也就在这些深沉的地方。(Yu Dafu, 2005)

In this sentence, the expression 梧桐 has very rich cultural contents in Chinese culture. Firstly it means nobility. That's why we Chinese say "梧桐引来金凤凰"。Sometimes it means sadness and isolation, especially in ancient poems and writings. In English, it has a widely accepted translation: Chinese Parasol tree. But in this sentence, if it is translated in this way, it delivers little cultural contents. So we have the following translation:

The same depth of implication is found in the ancient saying that a single fallen leaf from the wutong tree is more than enough to inform the world of autumn's presence. (Zhang Peiji, 2007)

Obviously the Chinese pinyin "wutong" in professor Zhang Peiji's translation gives the readers much more information about Chinese culture. Here is another example:

(3) 真愿成为诗人，把一切好听好看的字都浸在自己的心血里，像杜鹃似啼出北平的俊伟。(Lao She, 2012)

Just as the above sentence, the expression "杜鹃" in the sentence is considered as one of the symbols of Chinese culture. In ancient China, the cry of the bird (杜鹃) was considered sharp and desperate, reminding people of their sad memories. In Chinese, we use "杜鹃啼血" (cuckoo lament) to express homesickness, so professor Zhang Peiji translated it in the following way:

If only I were a poet so that, with all the sweet and beautiful words at my command, I could sing of the grandeur of Peiping in as longing a note as that of a cuckoo! (Zhang Peiji, 2007)

In nature, everything (an animal or a plant) has its own meaning and when they live harmoniously together, they all have implications cultural contents. In translation, their implications and cultural contents mean a lot to the readers.

1. 2. The material culture

The material culture includes people's eating habits and their customs and understanding in everyday life. In translation practice, we say many examples which really need careful consideration in culture.

(4)   …离开了咸菜缸却又跳进了萝卜窖. (Jiang Zilong, 2008)

In this sentence, 咸菜缸 and 萝卜窖 are culture-specific expressions in Chinese, both of which mean containers to make salted vegetables; and the intended meaning of the whole message 离开了咸菜缸又跳进了萝卜窖 has nothing to do with its literal interpretation. Here it has the implication of "from bad to worse". So an English image should be substituted for that typical Chinese image, i.e. jump out of the frying pan into the fire. According to Nida (1982), to preserve the content of the message, the form must be changed, and we can see that when it is translated in this way,

even the foreign readers will easily get its meaning. (Nida 1982)

(5) 巧媳妇做不出无米的粥来。(Cao & Gao, A 2000)

See the first translation version by David Hawkes:

Even the cleverest housewife can't make bread without flour! (David Hawkes, 1977)

David Hawkes was the British Sinologist and great translator. His most important translated work was The Story of the Stone, which was also known as The Dream of the Red Chamber, and his translation version was widely accepted in foreign world. Because of the cultural difference, there are different interpretations in certain parts of his translation.

Obviously the above translated text violates the principle of cultural equivalence. From ancient time up to now, rice prevails as the staple food of most Chinese in daily life, though bread is less uncommon in China. Therefore, the adaptation of rice to bread does not conform to the Chinese cultural background. His translation is acceptable, but not the best. Another translation version with more cultural sense by Yang xianyi would be easier to understand:

Even the cleverest housewife can't cook a meal without rice. (Yang xianyi, 2012)

3. The social culture

In a broad sense，the social culture refers to the social values, the interrelationships among people, political and economic relations, conventions and customs of a certain society. The social culture plays a very important role in Chinese-English translation. Let's see the following examples:

(6) 必须始终不渝地坚持两手抓，两手都要硬的方针，加强精神文明建设。(Deng Xiaoping, 2004)

In this sentence, "两手抓，两手都要硬" and "精神文明建设" are typical expressions in current Chinese politics. If translated literally as "grasp with two hands, and two hands should be equally tough", and"spiritual civilization construction", they will become very difficult to understand for foreign readers. In translating expressions peculiar to Chinese politics, especially metaphors like these, the translators have to pay enough respect to the social cultural and political habits of foreign readers. So "两手抓，两手都要硬" can be translated as "to attach equal importance to something" and "精神文明建设" "the development of socialist culture and ideology". We translate the sentence as:

We must unswervingly give equal importance to economic development on one hand and to the development of socialist culture and ideology on the other hand. (Deng Xiaoping, 2004)

(7) 嫁鸡随鸡，嫁狗随狗。(Chen Hongwei, 2003)

A: If a woman marries a chicken, she should act like a chicken; if she marries a dog, she should act like a dog. (Fox Butterfield Alive in the Bitter Sea p.162)

People will feel puzzled by the above version by Fox Butterfield, an American journalist, because he did not understand the real meaning of the proverb, and failed to consider its cultural implication in translation. Its figurative meaning is that once a girl has attached herself to a man, she must be faithful to him forever regardless of all circumstances—to advise a girl to be contented with the man she has married. So the following version sounds much better:

B: Marry a cock and follow a cock, marry a dog and follow a dog---- throw in one's lot with one's husband. (Chen Hongwei, 2003)

In this kind of translation, a note is so helpful for the foreign readers to interpret the cultural implications in the sentence.

(8) 阿 Q 本来也是正人，我们虽然不知道他曾蒙什么明师指授过，但它对于"男女之大防"却也历来非常严。(Lu Xun, 2012)

Chinese people were influenced deeply by the puritanical ethics of traditional Confucian morality in history, and any contact between an unrelated man and woman was considered immoral. A popular proverb decreed that "a man and woman, unless related, should not touch hands when giving or receiving things" (男女授受不亲). Chinese people can easily associate "男女之大防" with "男女授受不亲" and know their meanings. But it will be easier for foreign readers to understand the cultural contents with such a note:

Now our Ah Q started out as an upright man too. Though we don't know if this was because he had been shown the way by some enlightened teacher, we do know that he rigorously observed *the great barrier that should be 'twixt the he and she* — In China, a man and woman, unless related, should not touch hands when giving or receiving things. (William A. Lyell, 2012)

Let's see another example from the same book:

(9) "这断子绝孙的阿 Q!" 远远地听到小尼姑的带哭的声音。(Lu Xun, 2012)

In China, to say someone dies sonless is a curse intolerable to Chinese ears. Here a note is very necessary for the foreign readers because in the west, if someone died sonless, he would not be considered undutiful to ancestors. This is greatly different from what Chinese value, as we traditionally see that "no offspring is the worst one of the three ways unfilial to our ancestors" (不孝有三，无后为大)：

"Ah Q, may you die sonless!" Sounded the little nun's voice tearfully in the distance —a curse intolerable to hear in China (William A. Lyell, 2012).

From the above examples we can see that understanding of the social culture means a lot in Chinese-English translation.

4. The religious Culture

Religion is a system of beliefs concerning the cause, nature, and purpose of the universe, and people show their religious ideas in life through languages and cultures. But "religion and culture" is a broad subject. In translation, we need to understand the close relationship between religion and culture to do a good job.

Let's see the following example:

(10)他父亲心境不好，准责备儿子从前不用功急时抱佛脚，也许还有一堆"亡羊补牢，教学相长"的教训。（Qian Zhongshu,1991）

Considering Chinese people's religious awareness, the expression "急时抱佛脚" really has religious implications. It means in religion that a person should always be pious. It will be too late if he only prays for help when in trouble. In life, people now use the expression widely to mean that it is too late for people to do what they should do before. But the literary translation of the expression "抱佛脚"will make it hard to understand for the foreigners, as they have different religions, and the literary meaning has almost nothing to do with the real meaning of the sentence.

So, the sentence can be translated as:

If his father were in bad mood, he would undoubtedly rebuke him for not having studied harder before and only cramming everything in at the last minute. There might even be admonitions about "repairing the fold after the sheep are lost," or "one learns as one teaches".

(11) "谋事在人，成事在天。"咱们谋到了，靠菩萨的保佑，有些机会，也未可知。(Cao ＆Gao, 2000)

Just as we mentioned in the above paragraphs, Chinese people have different religious belief compared with the western people. So if "谋事在人，成事在天" is translated as "Man proposes, God disposes", the western people will lose the chance to understand the religious information of Chinese people. Translator Yang xianyi substituted God with heaven to help them understand both the semantic and cultural messages of the sentence:

Man proposes; heaven disposes. Work out a plan, trust to Buddha and something may come of it for all you know. (Yang xianyi and Gladys Yang, 2012)

5.The linguistic culture

Language is not only an important part of culture, but also a carrier. Languages have different features, and when people use their own languages to express their ideas, cultural features are becoming clear. In translation practice, translators have to consider carefully the linguistic features and the habits of both the languages and then it is possible to make a better version in translation.

(12) 老子煎熬了小半辈子，还让老婆跟着受委屈. (Chen Hongwei, 2003)

Many Chinese are used to expressing themselves in such a way; here in the sentence, 小半辈子 actually means the time from the birth to the time that the words were said. So some translators would do it in this way:

(A)I have endured hardships for nearly half of my life, and my wife has suffered all along with me.

When the foreign readers read this, they may think that he has not suffered for some time in his life, as they have different interpretation of the phrase "nearly half of my life"，according to their way of expression. So, the expression" for nearly half of my life" should be changed into" for all my life", just as mentioned in the above, the expression"小半辈子"actually means the time from the birth to the time that the words were said. So:

(B) I have endured hardships for all my life, and my wife has suffered all along with me.

(13) 感情深，一口闷；感情浅，舔一舔 (Wang wuxing, 2004)。

This kind of structure is very popular in Chinese, and Chinese people have no difficulty interpreting its implications. When translating it into English, literary translation will not work. So we see the following version:

If we are great friends, we should drink it all in one mouthful. If we are on speaking (nodding) terms, we can just sip it. (Wang Wuxing, 2004)

The translator added if to make his translation conform to English syntax. In this way he also made the implied meanings clear to the target language readers.

IV. CONCLUSION

The cultural factors are so important that in Chinese-English translation, if they are overlooked, the readers will fail to interpret the original meanings of the Chinese works. Thus the English translation version would mean little to them. The translators should pay more attention to both the Chinese culture and the English culture, and lay enough emphasis on the cultural factors, and improve their cultural awareness in translation practice. With good cultural awareness the translators will successfully transfer the original meaning of the source language to the target language with its rich cultural contents.

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Cognitive Mechanism for Metaphor Translation

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Abstract—This research carries out a detailed study on the cognitive mechanism for translation of metaphors, which involves dual phases of comprehension and reproduction. Recognized as the basis of appropriate rendering, a proper comprehension of the target metaphor is highly appreciated. Moreover, there are various factors in the comprehension of metaphor, namely, the semantic discrepancy, in the discerning of sense, cultural differences, individual characteristics in image conjuring, and the role of context. On the other hand, in the phase of reproduction, due consideration shall be taken to the concern of style.

Index Terms—cognitive mechanism, metaphor, translation

I. INTRODUCTION

It is no exaggeration to assert wherever there is thought, there is metaphor; wherever there is language, there are metaphors. Given the cognitive qualities of metaphor as well as the nature of translation, translation of metaphors is taken as a cognition-oriented mental process, in which the human brain unravels and delivers the cognitive information of the source metaphor. Via this way, we hold that the nature of translation of metaphors is virtually a process of cross-cultural delivery of cognitive information.

Whenever it comes to translation, we are using a metaphor, that is, to convey something (from one place) to (another place), because the word "translation"comes from Latin, "trans"(穿过) and "latus"(the past participle fero, ferri, fuli) (运送).The Greek root of metaphor parallels with the root of translation: "meta" means "穿过", "phor" means "运送". In fact "phor" and "fer" (in "transfer") are two different kinds of translation of one word.

Metaphor in one form or another is completely essential to the way language systems develop over time and are structured, as well as to the way human beings consolidate and extend their ideas about themselves, their knowledge and their relationships about the world. On Martinet's model we may regard words as the first articulation of meaning, and since all symbols are metaphors or metonyms replacing their objects, all words are therefore metaphorical.

However, as translators we know that words in context are neither things nor usually the same symbols as individual words, but components of a larger symbol which spans a collocation, a clause or a sentence, and is a different symbol than that of an isolated word, This is the second articulation of meaning and to this extent language itself is a metaphorical web. So language, in nature, is metaphorical. Translation is transfer of one language to another language and the process of translation is a thinking process. The translation process is also metaphorical process. Therefore, metaphor translation is really a challenging task.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The First Phase of Metaphor Translation: Comprehension

To probe the approaches to metaphor translation, we need two processes: one is the comprehension of metaphors, the other is reproduction of metaphors from one language to another language.

The study of the comprehension process of metaphor has been a major topic in theories of metaphor. It has been generally taken that the semantic, contextual and cultural information play an Important role in the comprehension of metaphorical expressions. Nevertheless, it remains to be viewed as to what type of information and how much amount of it is needed for the right understanding of a novel metaphor. The other important issues involved include the identification of a metaphorical expression and the working out of metaphorical meanings. "Metaphorical word functions only when it is contrasted with other non-metaphorical words; the self-contradiction of literal interpretation is necessary for the unfolding of metaphorical interpretation." (Beardsley, 1958, p.20)

Identifying chunks of language as metaphors is not always easy because we do not usually notice them as metaphors. Once they are identified, they are in the source language. The comprehension phase leads to choosing one equivalent expression from the possible ways of expressing the target language and target culture. Interpretation takes advantage of the comprehension step, and lies in relating the metaphoric expression to its conceptual metaphor.

A metaphor can be identified in the following ways: one is by the clear signal of a metaphor: "to put it metaphorically" "speaking metaphorically" or, "in a metaphorical sense" and so on. Secondly, through the anomaly both in semantics and in pragmatics with the assumption that the speaker is making sense. That is to say, the two (or more) referents of the metaphor should be logically anomalous either semantically or pragmatically. The referents of a metaphor usually belong to two different semantic domains. Metaphorical transfers of meaning are transfers from the

field of the vehicle to the field of the tenor of the relations of affinity and opposition that the vehicle terms bear to other terms in its field. More precisely, what is transferred are the relations which pertain within one semantic field to a second, distinct content domain in metaphor.

For instance, we say a basketball player that her playing is "hot" in a game, "hot" is the vehicle, and its semantic field is the field of temperature terms; the domain of the tenor is athletics. Antonyms in the temperature field, hot and cold are considered; we can describe a hot player as one who plays well and scores, when they are changed to sports, while a cold player does not. The antonym of the pair is remained. Furthermore, if a player scores only just so so, we can say "he was lukewarm in the third quarter." Because "hot" and "old" are not absolute but relative antonyms, even on the extremes we can capture all sorts of performances, for example: "Her performance on the court today is sizzling". In this way metaphor can, through a transposition of relations, structure yet unstructured conceptual domain or record another semantic field, thus changing sometimes, sometimes forever, our ways of understanding our world.

The third is to detect the violation of cooperative maxims. Grice(1965) develops his cooperative principle into nine maxims which are classified into four categories:

"1.Maxim of quantity

Make your contribution as informative as required.

Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

2.Maxim of Quality

Do not say what you believe to be false.

Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

3.Maxim of relation

Be relevant

4.Maxim of Manner

Avoid obscurity of expression

Avoid ambiguity

Be brief

Be orderly" (Grice,1965, p.37)

It is usually agreed that metaphorical statements often violate the maxim of relevance and the maxim of quality. Let's look at a few examples:

"I am as hungry for them as for food, I am thirsty for them, and my thirst is overwhelming. Your words are my food, your breath my wine. You are everything to me."

("100 World's Great Letters" Sarah Bernhardt to Victorian Sardon).

These sentences break the maxim of quality and the maxim of relevance. Since these words appear in a love letter, so the context gives the hint that we cannot understand them literally.

Another example:

In this business, we are the sheep and you are the wolves. We will preserve our character, and hope you will change yours. ("100 World's Great Letters" Joseph Priestley to His neighbors of Birmingham)

We will infer through the connotational content of "sheep" and "wolves" which might be "good, considerate people" and "fierce and violent neighbors".

III. THE SECOND PHASE OF METAPHOR TRANSLATION: REPRODUCTION

If we take metaphor translation as a process of decipherment, we have finished the first step. As a translator, he is both a receiver and a sender. He is the receiver of the message of the source, ie, he is decoding message of the source: he is the sender of the message of the source, ie, he is encoding message from the system of source linguistic symbols to the system of target linguistic symbols. In encoding the metaphors into the target linguistic symbols we must pay due attention to the cultural divergences in order not to make misunderstanding and appropriate style to achieve the same effect that the source text brings upon the native readers.

A. Avoidance of Sharp Cultural Color

Analyzing from macroscopic angle, all the human being cultures have general characteristics. But taking a microcosmic viewpoint, we can find all the national cultures are individual. This individuality exists widely from the very beginning to the very end of the whole national culture, so it is not surprising we find more metaphors in Chinese and English that do not embody the "formal likeness", "meaning likeness" and "spiritual likeness" simultaneously. A lot of such metaphors are similar in meaning, but not in form. For really successful reproduction, biculturalism is quite more important than bilingualism. As words have only meaning in cultures where they function.

How to encode the cultural image into the target linguistic symbols has always puzzled translators. In essence, it is the contradiction between the form and content of the source material. Of course, in reproducing the image of those metaphors which embody the strong cultural color, we'd better use the image of the target language that is familiar to the readers. As the communication between China and English becomes more frequent, we may directly reproduce the vehicle into the target language. For example, "He is an old screw." We may reproduce the sentence into"他吝啬得像

一枚起不动的螺丝钉". Such translation conveys the information from the source sentence, and also introduces some new image into the target language. Hence, it enriches our cultural images.

B. Awareness of Appropriate Style

Not only must translating cover the entire range of subject matter, but it is required to do so in an equally wide range of styles: easy/difficult, serious/lighthearted, fresh/dull, colorful/drab, exciting/boring. These stylistic differences are the basis for much of the text's associative meanings, which are often far more important than the designative meaning. A text which is stylistically attractive can be more challenging and personally rewarding to the translator. Style is the basic characteristic of every piece of writing, the outcome of the writer's his emotions and personality, and without revealing no single paragraph can be put together to some degree the nature of its author. The author's style determines his choice of a word, and, as has been seen, the translator is also compelled to make a choice of a word in the target language.

However, it is quite impossible to stand for some of the stylistic subtleties of the original.

C. Solving Semantic Discrepancy

In a metaphor, there might be a combination of similarity and dissimilarity between the two referents, that is to say, they must be both quite similar and dissimilar. It does not mean that similarity is metaphor. It is only a condition of metaphor, or metaphor is usually based on similarity.

One of the design features of metaphor is its semantic anomaly. A metaphor constitutes the violation of semantic selectional restrictions, because the tenor and the vehicle belong to two different domains or categories of experiences. We call the difference between the tenor and vehicle the "distance" or "semantic impertinence". Which has to be bridged to interpret the metaphorical meaning of the metaphor. The key concept in this "tension elimination" process is "resemblance". To better comprehend its nature in metaphorical statements, we shall have a broad view of the meaning of resemblance. In other words, we should take resemblance to mean similarities not only in physical appearances, but also in functions or other aspects.

Aristotle points out that to see sameness in what is different is to see similarity. Metaphor reveals the logical structure of the "similar" because, in the metaphorical statement, the "similar" is perceived despite difference, in spite of contradiction. Therefore, resemblance, is the logical category corresponding to the predicative operation in which "approximation" meets the resistance of "being distant". In other words, metaphor shows the work of resemblance since the literal contradiction keeps difference within the metaphor statement; "same" and "different" are not just mixed together, they also remain opposed. Enigma lives on in the heart of metaphor through this specific trait., "the same" operates in spite of "the difference" in metaphor.

When we say that metaphor succeeds through similarity or resemblance, we do not merely mean the resemblance that preexist between the tenor and the vehicle, but also imagined or created similarities through the juxtaposition of the two seemingly dissimilar subjects and their respective domains. Similarity-creating metaphors take up a major portion of the metaphors we usually encounter, and they are cognitively more valuable than metaphors that are based on preexisting similarities.

The production and interpretation of a metaphor are always based on human psychology, especially the two capabilities of human psychology: association and imagination. Association is a conditioned reflex. For example, we associate winter with coldness, sun with sunlight and so on. Generally speaking, concrete and familiar things are easy to be associated with, and, therefore, they are often used to describe or expose the abstract and profound things to make them easier to understand.

There is the so-called similarity-association, which refers to association of similarities in attributes or relations. This is very important for both the invention and interpretation of a metaphor. There is attribute similarity of viciousness in "The man is a wolf." and relational similarity of "father and offspring of his country." In the latter case, the relation between Washington and his country is similar to that between father and offspring. Such similarities are very important for metaphors, since metaphors are based on analogy.

Therefore, to find the preexisting or existed similarities is the key to solve semantic discrepancy. Whether a metaphor is appropriate or not depends on whether there are similarities between the involved discrete referents. The association of similarities serves as a bridge between the discrete referents.

"Let us consider more loosely what happens in the mind when we put together in a sudden and striking fashion two things belonging to very different orders of experience. The most important happenings in addition to a general confused reverberation and strain--- are the mind's efforts to connect them. The mind is a connecting organ and it can connect any two things in an infinitely large number of different ways. Which of these it chooses is settled by reference to some larger whole or aim, and though we may not discover its aim, the mind is never aimless. In all interpretation we are filling in connections" (Richards, 1936, p.124)

In trying to interpret a metaphorical statement, the hearer or reader usually tries to look for the salient aspect of the meaning or the image of the vehicle and transfer them to the tenor. Hester (1967) explained the metaphorical meaning as "seeing as". The factor of "seeing as" is exposed through reading, to the extent that this is "the mode in which such imagery is realized. (Hester, 1967, p.21) The "seeing as" is the positive link between tenor and vehicle. To explicate a metaphor is to list all the appropriate senses in which the vehicle is "seeing as" the tenor. The "seeing as" is the intuitive

relationship that makes the image and sense hold together. Often there are three major aspects of features the hearer or reader needs to "see" in a vehicle:

Physical characteristics

For example, "Sally is a block of ice." The physical characteristics of "ice" can be described as "cold". The equation of "Sally" with "ice" evokes the physical characteristics of "ice" and the imagery is vivid enough for the success of the metaphor. So the semantic discrepancy is solved. The sentence can be understood as "Sally is unemotional".

Behavioral characteristics

For example, "The woman's tears are the leaves of the autumn, keep falling." The equivalence of "tears" with "leaves" obviously is based on the behavioral characteristics of both.

Functional characteristics

For example, "Eyes are tongues of animals that cannot speak." We see things with eyes and we speak with tongues. But animals can only see with eyes, and cannot speak with tongues. Since there exists a metaphor, this metaphor must be based on the similarity of function between the two subjects, which is "ability to speak".

Some metaphors may, of course, take several aspects of characteristics of the vehicle as their ground.

D. Addressing Cultural Divergences

To those who are interested in translation, especially in literature translation, an important topic for study is the cultural value of language. In addition, what is culture? "Culture consists of all the shared product of human society" (Robertson, 1981, p.105) This means culture includes not only material things such as cities, organizations, and schools, but also nonmaterial things such as ideas, customs, family patterns, and languages. In a word, culture refers to the entire way of life of a society. What's more, culture is like an iceberg with a big part of its real substance hidden in the sea. "Culture hides much more than it reveals, and strangely enough, what it hides, it hides most effectively from its own participants". (Kaplan, 1989, p.78) Language plays an important role in it and is a part of culture. Some social scientists think it the keystone of culture. On the other hand, language is affected and shaped by culture. Culture is reflected. As the word is the most lively element of a language.

All human beings speech contains arbitrarily selected but highly conventionalized signals; meaning can never be separated from expressive form. Even the most purely ostensive, obviously neutral terms are embedded in linguistic particularity, in an intricate mold of cultural-historical habit. Since language is metaphorical, and words have meanings in terms of the cultures where they function, the comprehension of metaphors is closely connected with culture.

When defining the same object, languages in different countries are different in category, extension, and intension etc., which reflects cultural difference. Things or concepts that are represented by one or perhaps two terms in one language, but by many more terms in the other language; that is, finer distinctions exist in the other language. In the broad sense, language is the symbolic representation of a person, and it comprises their cultural and historical backgrounds or their ways of thinking and living. Language and its cultural influence are exemplified in the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, which in basic states that language is a guide to "social reality". The hypothesis implies that language is not only a way of reporting experience but also it is a way of defining experience. Terms have more or less the same basic meaning, but have secondary meanings that may differ from each other.

We have mentioned in the previous paragraphs that the words people speak refer to shared experience. They express ideas, or facts that are communicable because they refer to all kinds of knowledge about the world that other people share. Also words reflect the authors' beliefs and attitude, their points of view, which are also those of others. In both cases, language expresses cultural reality. When you are communicating with someone from your own culture, the process of using words to represent your experiences is much easier because within a culture people share many similar experiences. When communication is among people from different cultures, the process is more complicated.

It is important to be familiar with culture background of the words in linguistic translation. Take "A Dream of Red Mansion". In this famous work, there is such occasion: Wang Xifeng and Baoyu hold a funeral procession, and Wang said to Baoyu: "别学他们猴在马上." To show Wang Xifeng's shrewish and cordial vividly, David Hawkes translate this sentence into "You don't want to go clomping around the countryside like apes on horseback with those men", which reappear Wang Xifeng's tone lively.

Each country has its own culture, and each culture has its own unique characteristics. These unique characteristics reflected in the languages, therefore, result in barriers of translation, especially the translation of metaphors. One of the important features of metaphor is the imagery which is evoked through a word that describes an animate or a familiar subject. The images usually embody many unique cultural elements. It is obvious that people often connect certain qualities with some objects or creatures. Certain emotions or reactions are aroused, as there is little or no scientific base for such association. The qualities that are connected, or the emotions that are aroused, are not the same with different people.

Different nationalities exist in different living environment and different cultural tradition, so specific cultural images are constructed. These images are used to create metaphors. The most-favored animals should be the phoenix and the dragon in Chinese culture. "Dragon" has its cultural image both in English and Chinese. In our culture, dragon is the symbol of emperor, and the phoenix for the empress. In Chinese legends, "dragon" is believed to control the forces of nature, come and go unnoticed. People show both respect and fear to dragons. For this reason, "dragon" also symbolizes

stateliness and might. So many Chinese words containing "dragon" are associated with nobleness and sacredness, such as "真龙天子", "龙宫", "龙颜", "龙袍", "龙床", "望子成龙", etc.

However, to native English speakers, the dragon is often a fierce monster that destroys, a symbol of evil, so dragon is the symbol of horror and must be killed. And the phoenix is not at all the spouse of a dragon; moreover, it reminds people of rebirth and resurrection. For example, "The woman in charge of the accounts department is an absolute dragon!" In this sentence, dragon conveys the fearfulness of the woman. When we Chinese proudly say that we are the descendents of dragon, English-speaking people cannot understand Chinese pride in saying so. In the translation of metaphors, we should be aware of the divergency of the cultural image.

The English word "daffodil" is often used with the meaning of the spring or joy, (just like the "west wind"), as in Shakespeare's sonnet:

When daffodils begin to peer

With heigh, the doxy over the dale!

Why, then comes in the sweet o'the year

A deeper description of daffodils as the messenger of the spring can be found in William Wordsworth's "The Daffodils". Such an image of the daffodil being a symbol of the joyful spring time, but, is not popular in the Chinese culture. On the contrary, a lot of Chinese words with special images can not arise English-speakers any association.

The translatability of a metaphor is determined by the extent to which the cultural experience and semantic associations where it draws are common by speakers of the special target language. In order to fully and exactly understand metaphors we must keep a close eye on the cultural divergences of cultural images.

E. Comprehending Individual Empiricism

Metaphors are full of creativity. Some metaphors can be easily identified, but they are not conventional. They belong to their creators. To comprehend and translate such metaphors are more difficult than to comprehend and translate conventional metaphors. The creative metaphors don't belong to linguistic system. They may reflect the creators' psychological and cognitive process.

For example, we usually take theories as buildings. Based on this conception, we may say "His theory has a solid foundation." To comprehend this metaphor is quite easy. But if someone say "His theory has thousands of little rooms and long, windy corridors." It is difficult to understand. Although this metaphor is also based on the same conception: Theories are buildings, the creator of the metaphor emphasizes the different aspects. Such metaphor may not be invented by most people, so it actually belongs to individual rather than the linguistic system. These metaphors don't reflect certain cultural features. The creator's real purpose is to speak something vividly.

Such individual metaphors mostly appear in literary works. Because literature is art of language, the features of expression in language are of great importance, and more metaphors are created in literary works.

For example,

"1. Drive my mad thought among the universe.

Like withered leaves to quicken a new birth.

2. the trumpet of a prophecy! O Wind,

If Winter comes, can Spring be far behind?"(Ode to the West Wind)

The value of these metaphors is far greater in language, because the metaphors in literary works are more meaningful. The difficulties arise when the metaphors are so inventive. But we usually keep the metaphors in translation, to obtain the flavor of the original material.

F. Seeking Clues from Context

The contextual theory of meaning was first proposed by the English anthropologist Malinowsky and later developed by his student and successor J.R. Firth. Malinowsky and Firth distinguish two types of contexts: one is the larger social or cultural context, the other one is the smaller verbal context where a specific utterance takes place. The latter is always embedded in the former and hence determined by it.

Black pointed out that context was not only important for the comprehension of metaphor, but that in many cases, it was absolutely necessary in order to distinguish whether a phrase was literal or metaphorical in the first place.

Generally speaking, to make it easier for the hearer to comprehend a metaphor, the speaker selects a vehicle which can be understood without calling for specialized knowledge. However, to comprehend most novel or new metaphors, we need to seek clues from a variety of contextual knowledge.

1). Social context is essential for a better appreciation of this metaphor.

a. Fictional figures in classical literature

b. Historical figures or events

c. Special subject knowledge

d. Folklore or legends

e. Religions

2). Linguistic context

Linguistic context plays a key role in deciding whether a metaphor exists or not. For example, when an egg smells odorous, "臭" is not metaphor. But when we are watching a game, "臭" is used metaphorically. Another

example: …"At the expense of everything else, my health, my family, my fiancée he left me. She knew she had a rival."
If we separate the last sentence from the context, it is not a metaphor. But after we associate the last sentence with the
previous information, we know the word is used metaphorically. The tenor is "my job" and the vehicle is "a rival".

IV. Summary

A detailed study is carried out in this chapter on the mechanism of the cognitive approach to translation of metaphors,
which involves dual phases of comprehension and reproduction. Both of the two phases are realized largely through
introspection. Recognized as the bases of appropriate rendering, a proper comprehension of the target metaphor is
highly appreciated, and there are various factors in the comprehension of metaphor, namely, the semantic discrepancy,
in the discerning of sense, cultural differences, individual characteristics in image conjuring. Secondly, the phase of
reproduction includes the encoding of the cognitive message from one system of linguistic symbols to another; hence
due attention shall be paid to the concern of style.

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Strategic Reading Instruction in EFL Contexts

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Abstract—In foreign language settings, learning to read in English is one of the main goals for many students. To that end, students need to master a number of reading strategies to be able to comprehend text information. Thus, reading instruction should help students become strategic readers. Although, strategic reading instruction and its effect on students' comprehension and metacognitive abilities has recently received a lot of attention, the issue is less understood in relation to EFL (English as a foreign language) context. The present study aims to bring together the related research findings to provide a clearer picture of strategic reading instruction in EFL situations. Also, suggestions for future research are provided.

Index Terms—reading comprehension, strategic reading, strategic reading instruction, reading strategies, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

As noted by Rivers (1981), most of the students who learn English as a foreign language will never have the opportunity to converse with native speakers; but they will have access to the literature and periodicals of scientific and technical material written in English which is, in fact, what they need to assist them with further studies or in their work; or even in their leisure time. In foreign language situations, where second language input sources are limited, reading becomes a viable means of developing second language ability (Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2010) which, in turn, can facilitate or hinder academic success for many foreign language learners across educational contexts (Taylor, Stevens, & Asher, 2006). Thus, in many foreign language settings reading is given special attention, due to the fact that reading is one of the most important language learning goals for many foreign language students (Grabe, 1991).

The main goal for reading is 'comprehension', and everything else is a means to this end (Goldenberg, 2011; Loew, 1984). Comprehension is to the ability to go beyond the words, to understand the ideas in a text and the relationships that exist between those ideas (McNamara, 2007). The key variables of reading comprehension include the reader as an active information processor, the activity of reading, and the text, all of which intersect to affect how well comprehension occurs (McIntyre, Hulan, & Layne, 2011), and therefore teaching English as a foreign language can be considered a delicate job in that teachers need to understand the nature of reading and teaching methodology on the one hand, and the nature of learners and the context in which teaching of reading takes place, on the other hand (Phakiti, 2006).

Reading is, in fact, an extraordinary achievement when the number of levels and components that need to be mastered are taken into consideration (Graesser, 2007; Shang, 2010). According to Grabe (2009), "reading is a strategic process in that a number of the skills and processes are needed on the part of the reader to anticipate text information, select key information, organize and mentally summarize information, monitor comprehension, repair comprehension breakdowns, and match comprehension output to reader goals" (p.15). Thus, an important goal for reading instruction should be to help students become expert, or more strategic readers (Janzen & Stoller, 1998).

In the past three decades, the fields of pedagogy and reading have focused on strategies, and strategies have been given an important role in reading behavior discussions. Expert readers apply a wide variety of comprehension strategies, i.e., routines and procedures used to better comprehend what is read. For instance, when active readers read the title of a given text, they may bring to the mind what they already know about that particular topic. They may predict the content of the passage. They may make mental images of the text. They may summarize the important points of what they read. They may ask self-questions about what they are reading. They know when the text is understandable and when it is not making sense. Strategic readers know how to repair breakdowns in comprehension. They also skillfully coordinate these strategies, taking into account what the reading task is, what they know about text content, and what type of text they are reading. However, weaker readers make use of a small variety of strategies and use them in a limited and repetitive manner. Overall, flexible use of a range of strategies is what differentiates between proficient readers and weak readers (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1991; Graesser, 2007; Paris, Wasik, & Turner, 1991).

In recent years, the emphasis has shifted from mere identification and classification of reading strategies to their actual application in the language classroom (Aghaie & Zhang, 2012; Anderson, 2005; McNamara, 2010). Readers may

become expert readers and learners and also develop a more positive attitude towards reading if they are explicitly taught effective strategies and trained to check and monitor their comprehension while reading (e.g., Dole et al., 1991; Janzen, 2003; McNamara, 2007; Pressley, 2006).

Strategic reading instruction practices include explaining what comprehension-supporting reading strategies are, and where, when, how, and why they can be used, as well as how they can be adapted to various situations, modeling strategic reading behavior, and providing feedback on student strategy use by teachers (Carrell, 1998; Janzen, 2003; Paris, Lipson, & Wixson, 1983; Pressley, 2006). This kind of explicit instruction is intended to give students complete awareness that reading is an active process and that comprehension-fostering and monitoring activities are important (Paris et al., 1991). In strategic reading instruction, which is now fully supported by research as a means of helping students to become proficient readers, strategy use is integrated with the process of reading for meaning, and students are helped to apply strategies to increase their comprehension of text meaning (Janzen, 2003).

Closely related to the issue of strategic reading is the concept of 'metacognition' proposed by Flavell (1976). In fact, as Aksan and Kisac (2009) note, when the sources upon reading comprehension are examined, metacognition remains at the forefront. "Metacognition refers to all processes about cognition, such as sensing something about one's own thinking, thinking about one's thinking and responding to one's own thinking by monitoring and regulating it" (Papleontiou-louca, 2003, p. 12). There is a consensus among scholars that metacognition has two interacting components: knowledge of cognition, and regulation of cognition. With regard to reading comprehension, knowledge of cognition falls into three categories: (1) declarative knowledge (knowing what strategies are), (2) procedural knowledge (knowing how to apply strategies), and (3) conditional knowledge (knowing why and when to apply strategies). Regulation of cognition consists of the activities applied in order to control and regulate the reading process (Loew, 1984; Paris et al., 1983; Schraw & Moshman, 1995). As can be seen knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition are the essential elements and the focus of strategic reading comprehension.

However, it is important to note that despite the fact that the concepts of metacognition and strategic reading have received a great deal of attention from researchers in recent years, both concepts remain less understood in relation to EFL (English as a foreign language) reading comprehension. According to H. Fan (2009), metacognition and reading strategies have largely been neglected within the context of EFL reading. In the same vein, Zahedi and Dorrimanesh (2008) believe that, in general, there is little strategy training taking place at present, especially for EFL students, and the training that is taking place is blind training.

II. Theoretical Framework

Traditional views of reading assumed readers, as passive recipients of text information, possessing a large number of sub-skills which automatically apply them to comprehend all kinds of texts; that is, it was assumed that reading comprehension occurred automatically (Dole, 2000; Dole et al., 1991). Then a conceptual shift to a cognitive model of learning in the 1970's led to a different view of the reader as a result of a rethinking about the underlying processes in reading comprehension. Cognitive views of reading comprehension indicate that reading is an interactive and comprehension is a constructive process and that expert readers are distinguished from weak readers by their flexible use of a set of activities to make sense of the text and to monitor and regulate their comprehension (Baker & Brown, 1984; Dole et al., 1991). A cognitive view of reading submits that comprehension instruction should emphasize teaching students a set of strategies to use to comprehend a text with the goal of empowering students with a sense of conscious control, or metacognitive awareness, over a group of strategies so that they can use and adapt the strategies with any text they read (Pressley, Johnson, Symons, McGoldrick, & Kurita, 1989).

A. Processes Involved in L2 Reading

As Kendeou, van den Broek, White, and Lynch (2007) note, "comprehension is not a unitary phenomenon but rather a family of skills and activities" (p. 28). Given the complexity of reading and its many purposes and properties, it can reasonably be concluded that the cognitive processes operating when one reads must also be complex. Led by this very complex processing, researchers have come to investigate reading in terms of its component skills providing a clear picture of the reading process and of how these component skills interact and collaborate to build comprehension (Grabe, 2009).

In reading bottom-up (or lower-level) and top-down (or higher-level) processes combine and interact to lead to comprehension (Barnett, 1989). Bottom-up reading is the mechanical, word-driven process in which readers move from lower-level processes, (e.g., interpreting graphic symbols) to higher-level processes (e.g., assigning meaning to words) (Phakiti, 2006; Stanovich, 1980). That is, readers pay attention to individual letters and words, sound them out, and eventually grasp the structure of and assign meaning to larger syntactic units (e.g., sentences). Lower-level (i.e., bottom-up) processes are composed of a variety of complex skills (e.g., word-recognition, word-integration or syntactic parsing, and proposition formation) (Eskey, 2005). Top-down reading is the hypothesis-driven process in which readers, directed by their goals, expectations and strategic processing, actively control the comprehension process (Grabe, 2009). They generate hypotheses and use their background knowledge and experiences to make inferences. For example, they form predictions of what will come next, test their predictions and verify or adjust them. They resort to decoding symbols only when comprehension breaks down.

It is important to note that describing certain skills as lower-level does not mean that they are simple or undemanding; rather, they are those skills that have the potential to become strongly automatized that is an essential condition for fluent reading (Stanovich, 1990). Also, according to Grabe (2009), no current model of reading depicts reading as a purely top-down or bottom-up process. In fact, readers are necessarily both top-down and bottom-up readers at all times. Fluent readers are always involved in automatic word-recognition and syntactic parsing skills.

Reading is interactive in two senses. On the one hand, there is the interaction between the reader and the text, in that readers use information from their background knowledge as well as information from the text to reconstruct the text information. On the other hand, there is a second level of interaction involving the simultaneous processing interaction between many component skills ranging from rapid lower-level automatic skills to higher-level strategic, comprehension skills. It is important to note that these two levels of interaction are complementary. That is, readers engage in processes ranging from automatic to conscious strategic processing to reach optimal reading performance (Alderson, 2000; Grabe, 1991; McLeod & McLaughlin, 1986).

Automatic Processing: Automaticity is a very important issue in nearly every theory of cognitive skill acquisition in both first and second language situations. It has been argued that automaticity promotes fluency. Fluency, in turn, may increase learners' motivation to use the language and seek more L2 contact, and also may itself be a goal for learners as part of success in second language acquisition (Segalowitz, 2003).

Lower-level processing in reading includes the automatic recognition of orthographic, morphological, lexical, and syntactic patterns of the text and converting them to mental resources to support comprehension (Grabe, 2009). This automatic processing suggests that readers read without even being aware of these abilities and can decode text without thinking about them (Ashby & Rayner, 2006; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Phakiti, 2006). Since these routinized and automatized skills take up no space in readers' limited-capacity working memory, more memory space will be made available and readers will be able to better use their cognitive capacities to comprehend the text (Alderson, 2000). Thus this lower-level automatic processing makes ground for higher-level reading processes, such as using background knowledge, identifying main ideas, summarizing, paraphrasing, and predicting (Eskey, 1998). So, a main goal of second language instruction is to help learners develop automatic reading skills upon which efficient reading is greatly dependent (Alderson, 2000; Phakiti, 2006).

Strategic Processing: At some points in reading, the reader recognizes that the text is difficult (e.g., encountering unfamiliar words, syntactic structures, or topics) or that his/her goals are not being met. These cases require the reader to consciously and actively control his/her reading process through the use of appropriate strategies (e.g., assessing the situation, synthesizing and evaluating information, using contextual clues, skipping unknown words, rereading, etc.), individually or in combination, in order to improve reading achievement (Block & Pressley, 2002; Carrell, Gajdusek, & Wise, 1998; Phakiti, 2006).

Therefore, strategic processing can be defined as "conscious, deliberate, intentional and goal-directed processing individuals employ when using the target language" (Phakiti, 2006, p. 23). That is, strategic processing entails learners' awareness and what may in fact make 'strategies' distinct from skills and other processes is this component of awareness and conscious reflection rather than the nature of processes per se (Afflerbach, Pearson, & Paris, 2008; Anderson, 2005; Carrell et al., 1998).

B. Reading Strategies

In general, many second language learning strategies have been identified and classified by different researchers (see for example, Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern, & Todesco, 1978; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, & Küpper, 1985; Oxford, 1990; Rubin, 1975). Studies of language learning strategy application, which deal with the influence of strategy training for different language skills (i.e., reading, listening, writing, and speaking), and different learners, indicate that strategy instruction is effective in improving students' performance on a wide range of problem-solving tasks (O'Malley et al., 1985).

In line with this relatively recent shift of attention to effective second language learning strategies, there has been much attention to identifying what more-proficient readers do while trying to understand what they read, including what strategies they apply and how, why, and when they use those strategies (Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001). Accordingly, in the last two decades, comprehension instruction and reading-strategies instruction have converged. As noted by Pressley (2006) and Grabe (2009), comprehension instruction now includes teaching students a set of strategies to use while they are trying to comprehend the main idea of the text, and combining these two goals through scaffolded discussions as the students are reading the text. This needs the identification of effective strategies that support comprehension.

Two lines of research have led to the identification of effective reading strategies: (1) Descriptive research reporting of what expert readers do while reading difficult texts (e.g., Othman & Jaidi, 2012; Shang, 2010; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001; Yau, 2009; Zhang & Wu, 2009), and (2) Experimental research showing the effectiveness of teaching certain reading comprehension strategies to different groups of students (e.g., Aghaie & Zhang, 2012; Janzen, 2003; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Salataci & Akyel, 2002). These two research types have had, at least, two very important outcomes; first, students need to develop metacognitive awareness for text comprehension, and second, students need to learn a variety of effective reading strategies to use to comprehend texts (Grabe, 2009).

Different scholars in the field of reading comprehension, drawing upon findings of multiple research studies in both L1 and L2 contexts, have proposed different taxonomies or lists of effective reading strategies which support comprehension most (e.g., Duke & Pearson, 2002; Grabe, 2009; Graesser, 2007; Phakiti, 2006). For example, Grabe (2009) lists twenty major reading strategies (Table I).

TABLE 1.
TWENTY MAJOR READING STRATEGIES (GRABE, 2009, PP. 218,219)

A. Empirically validated reading comprehension strategies
1. Activating prior knowledge
2. Answering questions and Elaborative Interrogations
3. Constructing mental images
4. Forming questions
5. Making associations (mnemonic support)
6. Monitoring
7. Previewing
8. Summarization
9. Text-structure awareness and story grammars
10. Using graphic organizers
B. Indirectly supported reading strategies used in validated multiple-strategy instruction
11. Clarifying
12. Establishing goals for reading
13. Inferencing (using context)
14. (Mental) translating
15. Paraphrasing
16. Predicting
17. Rereading
18. Reading aloud (for modeling, for fluency)
19. Synthesizing information
20. Taking notes

C. Strategic Reading

According to Grabe (2009), researchers dealing with reading instruction all acknowledge the centrality of strategy use and the development of strategic reader for comprehension. Strategic readers are readers who know a set of effective strategies and use them without continuously needing to move to a level of conscious problem solving but still can reflect consciously on a strategy when ask to do so and also know where, when, and why to use the strategies (Grabe, 2009; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Paris et al., 1983). While expert readers are characterized by strategic reading, novice and poor readers don't exhibit such behaviors (Paris & Myers, 1981; Paris & Oka, 1986; Wagoner, 1983).

Through L2 reading strategy research we have come to understand how strategic readers interact with what they are reading and how their strategic behavior results in their comprehension of a text (e.g., Anderson, 1991; Carrell, 1991; Salataci & Akyel, 2002). Research has revealed that successful second language readers know how to apply effective strategies to better understand a text. They can read in different manners for different purposes (Arabsolghar & Elkins, 2001), often jump back and forth in text and pay more attention to some parts of the text than to others, i.e., distribute their attention unequally (Pressley & Harris, 2006). On the contrary, non-proficient poorer readers mostly read word by word in a linear way (Duke, Pressley, & Hilden, 2004; Pressley & Harris, 2006). They cannot use appropriate strategies for different goals and they generally don't possess metacognitive knowledge about and control over reading strategies and don't know how to approach reading (Baker & Brown, 1984; Palincsar & Brown, 1984; Paris et al., 1991; Yang, 2002). It is important to note that it is difficult to draw overall conclusions and generalize from research on L2 reading strategy use because of the many moderating variables (e.g., the interactive nature of L2 reading, learner characteristics, potential strategies, different contexts, differing manners and types of treatment and measurement, etc.) that potentially influence the results (Brantmeier, 2002; Grabe, 1991; Taylor et al., 2006).

D. Strategic Reading Instruction

Strategic reading instruction is instruction in the actual execution of reading strategies to reach the goal of reading comprehension (Bimmel, van den Bergh, & Oostdam, 2001). The main characteristics of this instruction include: explaining what comprehension-supporting reading strategies are, and where, when, how, and why they can be used, as well as how they can be adapted to various situations, modeling strategic reading behavior, and providing feedback on student strategy use by teachers (Anderson, 1991; Carrell et al., 1998; Duke & Pearson, 2002; Janzen, 2003; Paris & Oka, 1986).

There is consensus among many reading researchers that teaching a combination of reading strategies (usually between four to eight strategies) more than individual strategy instruction improves comprehension and recall of information from texts (Baker, 2002; Block & Pressley, 2007, 2002; Duke & Pearson, 2002). There are several multiple-strategy instruction approaches which are supported by empirical research (e.g., Direct Explanation, Reciprocal Teaching, Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR), Concept-Oriented Reading Instruction (CORI), Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CALLA), etc.) (See Grabe, 2009, pp. 230-240, for a comprehensive description).

In spite of the fact that combined-strategy instruction works better with students, there are several research studies which focus on finding the effects of individual reading strategies on students' performance. The following section deals with empirical research studies of strategic reading instruction, focusing on either individual- or multiple-strategies, in EFL contexts.

III. EMPIRICAL STRATEGIC READING RESEARCH IN EFL CONTEXTS

Soonthornmanee (2002) set out to investigate whether reciprocal teaching helps Thai university students in comprehending texts and whether both skilled and less-skilled learners could benefit from this method. Reading strategies were taught to a group of 42 students through reciprocal teaching (RT) approach while a skill-oriented instruction was used with the other group of 42 students. According to the findings of the study reciprocal teaching could significantly influence EFL readers' reading performance. Moreover, although both skilled and less-skilled learners in the experimental group could benefit from reciprocal teaching method, the skill-oriented teaching method could only help the less-skilled learners in their reading comprehension.

Salataci and Akyel (2002) studied the effects of metacognitive strategies instruction on Turkish learners' comprehension of both Turkish and English. They wanted to see whether explicit teaching of metacognitive strategies could improve reading comprehension in Turkish EFL learners. Twenty university-level EFL learners in Turkey took part in the study. Pretests and posttests of both Turkish (i.e., their first language) and English (i.e., their foreign language) reading were administered to the participants. The study also included observations, interviews, and think-aloud tasks. The students were trained in a three-hour class sessions for 4 weeks, on how to use metacognitive strategies. Results showed that the reading strategies used before and after the study were different: there was a decrease in the use of 'local strategies' (e.g., focusing on grammar or word meaning and using a dictionary) for reading in both Turkish and English after the instruction; but there was an increase in use of global strategies (e.g., skimming for main ideas, predicting, and summarizing) in reading in both languages.

Zarei (2002) conducted a quasi-experimental study with 74 Iranian university students to investigate the development and changes in students' conceptions of reading and metacognition processes and the effects these processes have on students' language proficiency and reading performance. The results of the study showed that a constructivist approach, i.e., instruction in metacognition, could help students develop a more comprehensive and sound base knowledge of the reading skill both at lower and higher levels compared with a transmission approach, i.e., traditional instruction in which no attention is paid to the students' construction of knowledge.

Taguchi and Gorsuch (2002) focused on exploring the transfer effects of Repeated Reading (RR) for silent reading rate and comprehension to new passages. The results of the study showed that the 10-week RR program was able to increase the participants' (nine EFL Japanese university learners) reading rates from a pretest to a posttest of reading comprehension. However, the students' reading rate did not change significantly from the first RR session passage to the 28th (the last) session passage. In addition, participants from control and experimental groups showed similar transfer gains from pretest to posttest which was modest but not statistically significant. The short duration of the treatment was supposed by Taguchi and Gorsuch to be the reason for the lack of clear transfer effects for reading rate and comprehension of RR group readers.

Again, Gorsuch and Taguchi (2008 & 2010) conducted two 11-week quasi-experimental RR studies with university-level students (i.e., 2008) and adult EFL learners (i.e., 2010) in Vietnam. In both of these studies Gorsuch and Taguchi offered evidence for positive effects of Repeated Reading (RR) strategy on participants' reading fluency and comprehension.

Cubukcu (2008) in his study instructed 130 third-year Turkish university students in metacognitive awareness for reading comprehension. The study aimed at determining the effectiveness of systematic explicit instruction of multiple metacognitive strategies through CALLA model on students' comprehending of texts. In an intact group, pretest-posttest, experimental design, the students took part in a 45-minute reading comprehension training session each week for 5 weeks. The students in the experimental group (n=65) wrote their reflections on their thinking processes while doing reading tasks in reading logs. Based on the results of the study, it was revealed that systematic direct instruction in metacognitive language learning strategies could develop reading comprehension. The students learned why, when, and how to use the strategies after being instructed in applying ten metacognitive language learning strategies in the training program. Also, they gradually started to think metacognitively about the strategies they could use which helped them become strategic and autonomous learners.

Akkakoson and Setobol (2009) aimed at promoting reading strategy use among tertiary level Thai students of science and technology in reading English texts. In the study, five issues were investigated: 1) the reading strategy use of Thai EFL scientific and technological students at three reading proficiency levels, i.e., high, intermediate, and low, 2) the effects of strategies-based instruction on learners' use of reading strategies to deal with English texts, 3) the extent to which the instructors help raise learners' awareness of using strategies in their reading, 4) the learners' attitudes towards using reading strategies, and 5) the problems of using strategies in learners' reading. Empirical data were collected from 207 undergraduate students, in six intact classes where the two researchers were the teachers themselves (3 classes each), by means of pre- and post-reading comprehension tests, an achievement test, as well as a questionnaire. The instruction was in the form of 3-hour lessons a week for 15 weeks during which forty four strategies were introduced.

Students received explicit instruction in what each individual strategy is (declarative knowledge), the context or situation in which the strategy is to be applied (situational knowledge), and how to implement the strategy (procedural knowledge). The findings revealed positive effects of strategies-based instruction on learners' reading proficiency. Moreover, after the intervention, positive opinions towards reading strategies and utilizing them were given by the subjects.

H. Fan (2009) set out to explore how metacognitive strategies (i.e. think-alouds, text-structure, and summarization) could be employed most effectively by Taiwanese EFL university students to improve their reading comprehension. To this end, 143 freshman students at Lung Hwa University took part in the study. A 2-by-2 analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) measure was used to determine whether metacognitive strategy training could significantly improve the participants' reading comprehension. The analysis of results indicated that the experimental group who were engaged in metacognitive strategy use had better gains in reading comprehension than the control group.

In order to investigate the effect of reciprocal teaching on Iranian students' reading comprehension in general and on their ability to answer main idea and inference questions, Hadad (2009) conducted an empirical study with 60 intermediate students studying at an English institute. The students took pre- and post-tests of reading comprehension and also answered questionnaires provided to elicit their attitudes toward this method of strategy teaching. The results indicated that reciprocal teaching improved students' ability in reading comprehension in general, and their ability in answering main idea and inference questions in specific. The students had positive views toward the method and there was an increase in using some strategies by students at the end of the study.

Khajavi (2009) investigated the influence of concept-mapping, as a reading strategy, on reading achievement, self-efficacy, and self-regulation of Iranian university students of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). The treatment lasted for ten weeks. It was found through ANCOVA that students in the concept-mapping group showed greater achievement over time in reading comprehension, self-efficacy, and self-regulation strategies than students in the traditional method group.

Y. Fan (2010) investigated the effect of Collaborative Strategic Reading (CSR) on Taiwanese university students' reading comprehension with reference to specific types of reading comprehension questions. The participants were 110 students from two intact classes who had low-intermediate to intermediate level of English. This study adopted a pretest and posttest design with a control group. The data mainly came from statistical results of One-Way analysis of variance (ANOVA), but were triangulated by multiple data sets including the questionnaire responses and transcripts of group discussions during CSR. The findings indicated that CSR had a positive effect on the Taiwanese university learners' reading comprehension particularly in relation to the comprehension questions on getting the main idea and finding the supporting details.

Karbalaei (2011) examined the effect of teaching underlining strategy, through the CALLA model in EFL and ESL (English as a second language) contexts. He selected a random group of 189 college students studying at different universities in Iran and India. The participants were divided into high, moderate, and low levels based on their performance in a proficiency test. Then, the students were taught the underlining strategy for reading during the treatment sessions. The results suggested that both Iranian and Indian students performed better in multiple-choice reading comprehension tests after they were instructed in how , when, and why to underline information in a given text; although Indian ESL students had a better performance than Iranian EFL students. There was no significant interaction between students' proficiency level and their performance in reading comprehension in EFL and ESL contexts. In addition, there was no significant difference between males and females in the two contexts.

The purpose of a quasi-experimental study by Sun (2011) was to understand the effects of reciprocal teaching, as a means of reading strategy instruction, on Taiwanese EFL junior high school students' metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy, and reading comprehension in English. The 164 eighth-grade participants were divided into experimental (i.e. reciprocal teaching) and control (traditional reading instruction) groups. The instruction went on for a 10-week period. It was revealed through ANCOVA that students who were instructed in reciprocal teaching could improve more than students receiving traditional reading methods in reading comprehension, metacognitive awareness, and self-efficacy. The findings suggested that reciprocal teaching as a practical method of reading strategy instruction could enable students to develop an awareness of strategy use, increase self-efficacy levels, and most importantly, improve English reading comprehension.

Wichadee (2011), using a one-group pretest-posttest study with 40 Thai EFL learners at a private university over 14 weeks, tried to examine the effectiveness of explicit instruction of metacognitive strategies. Based on the results of the study, after the instruction the reading score and the metacognitive strategy use of the three groups (i.e., high, moderate, and low) were significantly higher than those before the instruction, indicating that metacognitive strategies instruction might have been an effective means to improve students' reading comprehension and strategy use.

Aghaie and Zhang (2012) investigated the influence of explicit teaching of reading strategies on EFL university students' reading ability in Iran. A questionnaire adapted from Chamot and O'Malley's (1994) cognitive and metacognitive strategies framework was used to collect the required data in this study. A quasi-experimental design involving a control group and an experimental group was used to test the effects of explicit teaching of cognitive and metacognitive reading strategies on students' reading performance and strategy transfer. After four months of strateg instruction, the experimental group achieved significantly better results than the control group. Results of paired-

samples and independent-samples t-tests, effect sizes, and a Split-plot ANOVA showed that strategy instruction could lead to enhanced reading comprehension and reading strategy transfer and use. Moreover, strategy instruction could result in autonomous reading behaviors.

Jafari and Ketabi (2012) in their study investigated the effects of reading strategy instruction on enhancing reading comprehension in Iranian English-major university students. The results of the study indicated that the participants in experimental group significantly outperformed those in control group.

Mehrpour, Sadighi, and Bagheri (2012) investigated the potential of implementing reading strategy instruction in raising EFL readers' awareness of reading strategy use, increasing the number and type of strategies they employed and enhancing their reading comprehension ability. To conduct the study, 90 female pre-university students majoring in Natural Sciences were selected based on a convenient sampling procedure. A group of 53 students (experimental) was taught to employ reading comprehension strategies in reading some English texts during a period of 15 sessions while the other group of 37 students (control) was taught reading comprehension traditionally. The findings of the study revealed that reading strategy instruction was problematic in nature. Whereas strategy training was able to raise students' awareness of reading strategies and could encourage strategy use by some students, some strategies were found to be harder to be acquired. Moreover, based on the results of a reading comprehension posttest, the reading strategy instruction was not able to enhance the students' reading performance significantly.

IV. CONCLUSION

According to above-mentioned studies, most researchers point to the necessity of teaching effective reading strategies to students so that they are able to enhance their reading achievement. By getting explicit instruction in effective strategies and learning to monitor and check their comprehension while reading, readers can become expert readers and comprehenders of whole text. Thus, the development of reading comprehension for EFL students is highly dependent of learning what strategies are, how, when, and where to use particular strategies, as well as how to evaluate their use.

The view of comprehension as the fluent implementation of strategic responses indicates the close relationship among comprehension, cognitive strategies, and metacognition. What this review of research reveals is that reading comprehension involves strategic responses to texts, but also that much more is needed (e.g., a combination of automatic word recognition, a large vocabulary, background knowledge, and extensive reading practice) in addition to comprehension strategies. As Anderson (1999) states, "the goal of explicit strategy instruction is to move readers from conscious control of reading strategies to unconscious use of reading skills" (p. 77).

But some gaps of knowledge can be observed with regard to the above-discussed studies. First, as can be seen and as noted by many researchers in the field (e.g., H. Fan, 2009; Grabe, 2009; Taylor et al., 2006), the number of published studies related to EFL contexts is very limited. Second, although research mainly indicates that strategic reading instruction is useful in improving reading comprehension among different groups of students (e.g., H. Fan, 2009; Jafari & Ketabi, 2012; Sun, 2011), there are studies with results which do not corroborate this finding (e.g., Mehrpour et al., 2012; Taguchi & Gorsuch, 2002). Third, very few of the reviewed empirical studies focused on students' metacognition (just four studies, i.e., Akkakoson & Setobol, 2009; Cubukcu, 2008; Mehrpour et al., 2012; Wichadee, 2011) and therefore the relationship between applying strategic reading instruction and students' metacognition seems unclear and demands much more clarification. And third, no study included, or at least mentioned, affective strategies in its choice of reading strategies.

Regarding what mentioned, much more research is needed in the area of strategic reading instruction in EFL settings before we can reach a valid conclusion about how strategy instruction may affect EFL students' reading comprehension performance and metacognitive abilities.

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A Case Study of Formal Translation of Tang Poetry

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Abstract—The beauty of Tang poetry is expressed in the combination of content and form. If the form is not well reproduced in the process of translation, the integrity of Tang poetry would be impaired to a great extent. By looking at different translations of Tang poetry, it is found that formal reproduction happens where there already exist the similar poetic forms in the target language; such forms as line length, poetic type, rhyme, rhythm and parallelism are full-reproducible; such form as tonal pattern is semi-reproducible; and some forms, such as pun, intertextuality and palindrome, are irreproducible because they are peculiar to Tang poetry and cannot exist outside language due to the differences of two languages.

Index Terms—empirical research, formal translation, Tang poetry

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper addresses formal translation of Tang poetry (*Lüshi* and *Jue ju*), with an intention to reveal what forms of Tang poetry can and/or cannot be reproduced in the target language. In attempting to understand the formal properties of Tang poetry, it is important to define the form of Tang poetry. Generally speaking, the form of Tang poetry refers to its peculiar metrical arrangements and inherent elements which distinguish Tang poetry from other literary genres, including tonal pattern, rhyme, rhythm, line length, poetic type, and some other forms, such as parallelism, pun, intertextuality and palindrome, which can be roughly classified into two forms: musical form (tonal pattern, rhyme and rhythm) and visual form (line length, poetic type, parallelism, intertextuality and palindrome).

Zhu Guangqian (2008) holds that the form of poetry should be considered as the soul of poetry. Among all the information carried by poetry, the sense or content is merely a kind of low-level information, whereas the style or form, such as sound, rhyme and rhythm, is a kind of high-level information. In translating poetry, if a translator only reproduces the low-level information, what is translated is not poetry but prose. Only when the high-level information is reproduced, can the translated poem be a poem (Yang Zijian & Liu Xueyun, 2003).

The beauty of Tang poetry is expressed in the combination of content and form. If the form is not well reproduced in the target text, the beauty of the original would be impaired to a great extent. Hence, it is significant to see how the translators have dealt with the forms of Tang poetry in their translations.

II. OVERVIEW OF THE RESEARCH

Academically, the intent of this paper is to support efforts to increase an understanding of the formal properties of Tang poetry and how to reproduce its forms in the target language. However, thus far little of research has been conducted on what forms can and/or cannot be reproduced in the target language and how to reproduce the forms of Tang poetry in the translation process.

According to the existing research on translation of Tang poetry on CNKI by June, 2013, the debates on formal translation are mainly centered on literal translation or liberal translation, translatability or untranslatability, content or form, and faithfulness or beauty, etc. For example, some scholars opt to sacrifice form for spirit (e.g. Liu Yingkai, 1989); some prefer to sacrifice content for form (e.g. Jiang Feng, 1995); some try to seek for a compromise between form and spirit (e.g. Gao Yukun, 1994); some tend to alter the source text form to cater to the target audience (e.g. Zhang Zhizhong, 2007). Some postgraduate students have also studied formal translation of Tang poetry in their theses. However, they merely lay stress on its necessity and importance without further exploration into formal translation itself (Li Hongqi, 2009; Xu Xiufeng, 2006; Guo Ying, 2006; Wu Dilong, 2010).

Besides, some translators or scholars in China study Tang poetry translation and propose important theories or methods based on their own translation practice, which are greatly influential in studying poetic translation. For example, Xu Yuanzhong (1984) puts forward his famous "three beauties" theory (beauty in sense, in sound and in form). Wu Juntao (1991) holds that a translator should find the substitute in the target language. For instance, a five-charactered line can be translated into an English poetic line of five, six or seven feet. The tonal pattern of Chinese characters can be substituted with iambic, trochaic, anapest and dactylic feet. Zhu Guangqian (2008) argues that 顿 ("caesura") in Chinese is equal to foot in English, and caesura can be substituted with foot in the process of translation. Liu Zhongde (1991) maintains that it is better to translate metrical poetry in the form of metrical poetry if the meter of the source text is preserved and the sense is not lost.

In the existing research on translation of Tang poetry, attention is more paid to translation of poetic content, image, feeling, spirit and sense than to formal translation. This paper is an attempt on its formal translation.

III. CASE STUDIES

In order to explore what forms can and/or cannot be reproduced in the target language, formal translation of Tang poetry is respectively examined from tonal pattern, line length, poetic type, rhyme, rhythm, parallelism, pun, intertextuality and palindrome.

A. Tonal Pattern

Chinese characters are characterized by the level tone and the oblique tone, whereas English words are characterized by the stressed syllable and the unstressed syllable. In English poetry, the basic metrical patterns are: iamb, trochee, anapest, dactyl, spondee and pyrrhic.

Theoretically, a level tone and an oblique tone can be substituted by iamb; an oblique tone and a level tone by trochee; two level tones and an oblique tone by anapest; an oblique tone and two level tones by dactyl. In fact, it is difficult to achieve these substitutions fully in the process of translation, but the translator can use some flexible methods to reproduce the original effect of tonal pattern in the target language. For example,

ST: 独坐敬亭山（李白）

众鸟高飞尽，孤云独去闲。

＋＋－－＋　－－＋＋－

相看两不厌，只有敬亭山。

－－＋＋＋　＋＋＋－－

Notes: "－" stands for a level tone or an unstressed syllable and "＋" for an oblique tone or an stressed syllable; ST stands for the source text and TT stands for the target text (same as below).

TT 1: Alone on the Ching-ting Hills　(Trans. Cai Tinggan)

The birds have flown away on pinions high,

－　＋　－　＋　－＋－＋－　＋

A cloud in heedless mood goes floating by.

－　＋　－　＋　－　＋　－　＋－　＋

The two that never change their fixed regard,

－　＋　－　＋　－　＋　－　＋　－　＋

Are ye, fair Ching-ting Hills, and I, your bard.

－　＋　－　＋　－　＋　－＋　－　＋

TT 2: Sitting Alone Facing Peak Jingting　(Trans. Xu Yuanzhong)

All birds have flown away, so high,

－　＋　－　＋　－＋－＋

A lonely cloud drifts on, so free.

－＋－　＋　－　＋－＋

We are not tired, the Peak and I,

－　＋－　＋　－　＋－　＋

Nor I of him, nor he of me.

－　＋－＋　－　＋－＋

The tonal pattern of the source text conforms to the metrical pattern of Tang poetry strictly and reveals its musical beauty. The two translations read natural, the tonal patterns of which also reveal their musical beauty. However, the tonal patterns of Chinese and English are two parallels that do not intersect owing to the peculiarities of the two languages and it is difficult to transplant the metrical pattern of Tang poetry into English poetry completely. TT 1 adopts an iambic pentameter and TT 2 adopts an iambic tetrameter. Both of them employ an iamb (unstressed and stressed) to reproduce the tonal pattern (level and oblique) of the source text. That is to say, the two renditions achieve the original effect of tonal pattern to a certain extent, which shows the tonal pattern of Tang poetry is semi-reproducible.

B. Line Length

In Tang poetry, each poetic line consists of five characters or seven characters. Each Chinese character is characterized by monosyllable whereas each English word can bear more than one syllable. Hence, in translating Tang poetry, one Chinese character cannot match one English word. However, one character can roughly match one foot or two English syllables.

Generally speaking, the basic types of English foot include monometer, diameter, trimeter, tetrameter, pentameter, hexameter, heptameter and octameter. In the process of translation, five-charactered lines can be translated into pentameter lines, and seven-charactered lines can be translated into heptameter lines. Thus, the line length of Tang poetry and English poetry is more or less regulated and the formal beauty of Tang poetry can be reproduced in the target text to a great extent. For example,

ST: 登鹳雀楼（王之涣）

　　白日依山尽，黄河入海流。

　　欲穷千里目，更上一层楼。

TT: An Ascent to Stork Hall (Trans. Xu Zhongjie)

　　The setting sun behind the mountains glows,

　　The muddy Yellow River seawards flow.

　　If more distant views are what you desire,

　　You simply clime up a storey higher.

Each line of the source text contains five characters. Xu Zhongjie translates it in an iambic pentameter, i.e. five feet (ten syllables) per line, to match five characters of each line in the source text. To a great extent, Xu reproduces the line length of the original and retains the regular beauty in his rendition.

ST: 闺怨（王昌龄）

　　闺中少妇不知愁，春日凝妆上翠楼。

　　忽见陌头杨柳色，悔叫夫婿觅封侯。

TT: At the Wars (Trans. H. A. Giles)

　　See the young wife whose bosom ne'er has ached with cruel pain!

　　In gay array she mounts the tower when spring comes around again.

　　Sudden she sees the willow trees their newest green put on,

　　And sighs for her husband far away in search of glory gone.

Giles takes advantage of English run-on line to translate each line of the source text into two lines. However, he does not use punctuation marks at the end of the odd lines and the first letter of each even line is not capitalized. His purpose of doing so is to try to preserve the line length of the source text and make the translation effect as a four-line poem because the source text is a four-line poem. Theoretically, Giles' translation is not an ottava rima because the line length of the ottava rima generally adopts an iambic pentameter, whereas the odd lines of Giles' rendition contain four feet and the even lines contain three feet.

It would seem to follow that Giles adopts an iambic heptameter, i.e. seven feet per line, to accord with seven characters of the source text. Obviously, Giles is greatly influenced by Tang poetry in the process of translation, but he is not bold enough to translate it in the form of four lines. That is to say, it is possible to translate the source text in the form of four lines with the line length of seven feet using the end-stopped line instead of the run-on line.

C.   Poetic Type

Tang poetry (*Jue ju* and *Lü shi*) mainly consists of four lines or eight lines. However, the poetic type of English poetry is more complicated than that of Tang poetry. The poetic types of English poetry mainly include couplet, tercet, quatrain, quintet, rhyme royal, ottava rima, Spenserian stanza and sonnet.

In translating Tang poetry into English, the poetic types of quatrain and ottava rima can be adopted because the styles of quatrain and *Jue ju* have a lot in common, and it is true of ottava rima and *Lü shi*. A quatrain refers to a four-line poem or stanza with the rhyme schemes: ABAB or AABB or ABBA or AAAA; an ottava rima refers to a stanza consisting of eight lines of iambic pentameter with the rhyme of ABAB ABCC. For example,

ST: 静夜思（李白）

　　床前明月光，疑是地上霜。

　　举头望明月，低头思故乡。

TT: A Tranquil Night (Trans. Xu Yuanzhong)

　　Before my bed I see a silver light,

　　I think the ground is covered with hoar frost.

　　Raising my head, I find the full moon bright,

　　And bowing down, in thoughts of home I'm lost.

The source text is a *Jue ju*, consisting of four lines. In the translation, the translator renders this poem in the form of quatrain in order to reproduce the poetic type of the source text. In other words, the line division of the rendition is similar to that of the source text and the poetic type of the original is well preserved in the target text.

ST: 登金陵凤凰台 （李白）

　　凤凰台上凤凰游，凤去台空江自流。

　　吴宫花草埋幽径，晋代衣冠成古丘。

　　三山半落青天外，二水中分白鹭洲。

　　总为浮云能蔽日，长安不见使人愁。

TT: On Phoenix Terrace at Jinling (Trans. Xu Yuanzhong)

　　On phoenix Terrace once phoenixes came to sing;

　　The birds are gone but still roll on the river's waves.

　　The ruined palace's buried 'neath the weeds in spring;

　　The ancient sages in caps and gowns all lie in graves.

The three-peak'd mountain is half lost in azure sky;
The two-fork'd stream by Egret Isle is kept apart.
As floating clouds can vail the bright sun from the eye;
Imperial Court, now out of sight, saddens my heart.

The source text is a *Lü shi*, consisting of eight lines. Xu Yuanzhong renders it into an English metrical poem. Xu adopts the pattern of eight lines in his translation in order to preserve the poetic type of the source text. In this way, the original poetic type is greatly reproduced in the target text.

The above two examples are about the translation of poetic type. In a word, the poetic type of Tang poetry can be fully transplanted into English owing to many similarities shared by English quatrain and *Jue ju*, as well as ottava rima and *Lü shi*.

D. Rhyme

The rhyme scheme refers to any fixed pattern of rhymes characterizing a whole poem or its stanzas. The rhyme scheme of English poetry is closely connected with the poetic type. In other words, the choice of rhyme scheme is greatly determined by the poetic type. Each poetic type has its own conventional rhyme schemes. Although the poetic types of English poetry (quatrain and ottava rima) and Tang poetry (*Jue ju* and *Lü shi*) have much in common, the rhyme schemes of them are different. Generally speaking, the basic rhyme scheme of *Jue ju* includes AABA or ABCB, and *Lü shi* includes AABACADA or ABCBDBEB, while the rhyme scheme of quatrain is ABAB, or AABB, or ABBA, or AAAA, etc., and ottava rima is ABABABCC. For example,

ST: 春怨（金昌绪）

打起黄莺儿，A   莫教枝上啼。B
啼时惊妾梦，C   不得到辽西。B

TT 1: A Lover's Dream   (Trans. W. Fletcher)
    Oh, drive the golden orioles   A
    From off our garden tree!   B
    Their warbling broke the dream wherein   C
    My lover smiled to me.   B

TT 2: A Complaint in Spring   (Trans. Xu Yuanzhong)
    Drive orioles off the tree,   A
    For their songs awake me.   A
    From dreaming of my dear,   B
    Far off on the frontier.   B

TT 3: Spring Lament   (Trans. Zhang Tingchen & B. Wilson)
    Shoo that oriole away!   A
    Don't let him sing!   B
    If from these dreams I wake   A
    I'll never reach Liaoning.   B

Notes: Liaoning — Far northern border outpost where the speaker's husband has been sent to fight.

The source text is a *Jue ju* with the rhyme scheme of ABCB. In TT 1, the translator adopts the rhyme scheme of ABCB, which is the same as the source text. This rendition was highly praised by Lü Shuxiang, and he said, "The original is rimed, and so is the translation, e.g. tree and me. The English translation of the poem has a rhythm pattern in the form of weak and strong stresses corresponding to that of the Chinese original in the form of level and oblique tones." (Liu Zhongde, 1991, p. 110)

In TT 2, Xu Yuanzhong employs the rhyme scheme of AABB, which is one of the rhyme schemes of English quatrain. In TT 3, Zhang Tingchen and B. Wilson use the rhyme scheme of ABAB, which is also one of the rhyme schemes of English quatrain. The rhyme scheme of the original is full-reproducible in TT 1, but lost in both TT 2 and TT 3.

The following is the translation of *Lü shi*.

ST: 春夜喜雨（杜甫）

好雨知时节，A   当春乃发生。B
随风潜入夜，C   润物细无声。B
野径云俱黑，D   江船火独明。B
晓看红湿处，E   花重锦官城。B

TT: Glad at Raining in a Spring Night   (Trans. Sun Dayu)
    Gracious raining knoweth its timely season;   A
    Down it cometh promptly during springtide.   B
    Following breezes it slinketh by at nightfall,   C
    Things to soothe, minutely, mutely to bide.   B
    Topping with paths, clouds amass the loom black,   D
    Lights on a river barque alone do shine bright.   B
    Look ye by dawn wherever red and moistened: E

Flowers blow the Brocade-robed Officials' Town with delight.   B

The source text is written by Du Fu, each line of which paints a picture of "spring," "night" and "rain" to depict the poet's joy. The rhyme scheme of the original is ABCBDBEB, with the even lines rhyming BBBB. The rhyme scheme of the translation is also ABCBDBEB, which is identical with that of the source text.

The above two examples show that rhyme is shared by both Tang poetry and English poetry and it can be fully transplanted into the target language.

E.   Rhythm

As for English poetry, the rhythm pattern is mostly often established by a fairly regular number of syllables with a relatively fixed sequence of stressed and unstressed syllables. The basic unit of Tang poetry is a caesura, and English poetry is a foot. It is possible to make the number of feet equal to that of caesuras. When Tang poetry is translated into English, a caesura can be substituted by a foot. For example,

ST: 静夜思（李白）
     床前/明月/光，疑是/地上/霜。
     举头/望/明月，低头/思/故乡。
TT: Still Night Thoughts   (Trans. Zhao Zhentao)
     Moonlight /before /my bed,
     Could it /be frost /instead?
     Head up, /I watch /the moon;
     Head down, /I think /of home.

Generally speaking, each line of a five-charactered Tang poem contains three caesuras with the rhythm pattern of 2/2/1 or 2/1/2. Zhao Zhentao adopts a tetrameter (i.e. three feet per line) to translate the source text because each line of the source text contains three caesuras. The number of rhythms per line of the target text is identical with that of the source text. The rhythm of the source text is fully reproduced in the target language.

ST: 金缕衣（无名氏）
     劝君/莫惜/金缕/衣，劝君/惜取/少年/时。
     花开/堪折/直/须折，莫待/无花/空/折枝。
TT: The Golden Dress   (Trans. Xu Yuanzhong)
     Love not /your gold/en dress, /I pay,
     More than /your youth/ful gold/en hours.
     Gather /sweet blo/ssoms while /you may,
     And not /the twig /devoid /of flowers!

The source text is a seven-charactered Tang poem with the rhythm patterns of 2/2/2/1 and 2/2/1/2. This poem has a strong rhythm which reveals the rhythmic beauty of Tang poetry.

The target text contains four feet per line, and the source text contains four caesuras each line, both of which have a strong rhythm. The rhythm of the target text is equivalent to that of the source text. In other words, the rhythm of the target text achieves the similar effect as that of the source text. The rhythmic beauty of the source text is full-reproducible in the target language.

F.   Other Forms

The above discussion is generality shared by both Tang poetry and English poetry. The following is about the translation of some other forms of Tang poetry, such as parallelism, pun, intertextuality and palindrome.

1. Parallelism

Parallelism is an inherent and essential feature of Tang poetry, especially of *Lü shi*. Generally speaking, parallel structure is called for in the middle (second and third) couplets of *Lü shi*. Of course, parallelism is also very common in English poetry. Although it is difficult to deal with parallelism in the translation process, there still exist some successful translations that fully reproduce the formal effect of parallelism in the target language. For instance,

ST: 登高（杜甫）
     无边落木萧萧下，不尽长江滚滚来。
TT: On the Heights   (Trans. Xu Yuanzhong)
     The boundless forest sheds its leaves shower by shower;
     The endless river rolls its waves hour by hour.

The source text is the second couplet of Du Fu's poem 登高, which is thoroughly parallel. The rendition of this couplet is very typical and successful. For example, the adjective "boundless" is parallel to the adjective "endless"; the noun "forest" is balanced with the noun "river", and so are the nouns "leaves" and "waves"; the verb "shed" is paired with the verb "roll"; and the phrase "shower by shower" is matched with the phrase "hour by hour". Obviously, the formal effect of parallelism is reproduced to a maximum degree in the target language.

2. Pun

Generally speaking, pun refers to a clever or humorous use of a word that has more than one meaning, or words that have different meanings but sound the same. In translating Tang poetry, it is difficult to retain the formal effect of pun in

the target language. For instance,

ST: 无题（李商隐）

春蚕到死丝方尽，蜡炬成灰泪始干。

TT: To One Unnamed　(Trans. Xu Yuanzhong)

The silkworm till its death spins silk from love-sick heart;

The candle but when burnt out has no tears to shed.

The source text is selected from Li Shangyin's poem 无题. It is a love poem which epitomizes and concretizes lovesickness. In the source text, the Chinese character 丝 is a pun, with the surface meaning "silk". Besides, the homonym of 丝 in Chinese is 思, which means "miss". Xu Yuanzhong translates the meaning of 丝 into "silk" and "love-sick". The words "sick" and "silk" not only share the same sound but also bear the similar form to some degree. Compared with the source text, Xu's translation merely reproduces the original meaning, but loses the formal effect of the source text.

3. Intertextuality

In Tang poetry, intertextuality means that in order to achieve some effect, the words that should be put together are to be divided into two parts in the same line or in two lines, but the meanings of the separated parts should be understood as a whole because the two separated parts are complementary to each other. In translating Tang poetry, it is almost impossible to reproduce the effect of intertextuality in the target language. For example,

ST: 出塞（王昌龄）

秦时明月汉时关，万里长征人未还。

TT 1: Going to the Frontier (Trans. W. Bynner)

The moon goes back to the time of Qin, the wall to the time of Han;

And the road our troops are traveling goes back three hundred miles.

TT 2: On the Frontier (Trans. Xu Yuanzhong)

The age-moon still shines o'er the ancient Great Wall;

But our frontier guardsmen have not come back at all.

The source text is the first couplet of Wang Changling's poem 出塞. The first line in the source text is a typical example of intertextuality, which means the moon in the period of the Qin and Han Dynasties shines over the Great Wall of the Qin and Han Dynasties. It expresses the concept of a very long time, but it is often misunderstood as the moon of the Qin Dynasty shines over the Great Wall of the Han Dynasty.

Bynner's translation does not convey the original meaning correctly and the effect of intertextuality is also lost in his rendition. Xu Yuanzhong's translation merely conveys the original meaning but does not reproduce the original effect in the target text, either.

4. Palindrome

Palindrome means that a word, a phrase, a line, a poem or other sequence of units can be read in the same way in either direction. There are various palindromic verses in Chinese, which can be read in different ways: from left to right, from right to left, from beginning to end, from end to beginning, from top to bottom and from bottom to top, etc. For example,

ST: 春游回文诗（王融）

池莲照晓月，幔锦拂朝风。

TT 1: A Palindromic Verse of Spring Outing (in proper order)

The lotus in the pond is being shone upon by the dawn moon,

And the curtains of silk stirred by the early morn breeze.

If read from the right to the left, the source text becomes:

风朝拂锦幔，月晓照莲池。

The resultant two lines make the same sense as the source text in proper order. The following is the translation of the resultant two lines in inverted order.

TT 2: A Palindromic Verse of Spring Outing (in inverted order)

The breeze is stirring the silk curtains at dawn,

And the moon shining upon the lotus pond in the early morn.

The source text is chosen from Wang Rong's poem 春游回文诗, which is a typical example of palindrome. The effect of palindrome is not retained in both TT 1 and TT 2. The two renditions only convey the original meaning, but lose the formal effect of the source text. Just as Liu Zhongde (1991, p.137) argues, "Even the Chinese palindromic verse is still possible to translate in meaning, but its form can't be retained as it stands."

IV.　CONCLUSION

In this paper, the similarities and differences of poetic forms between Tang poetry (*Jue ju* and *Lü shi*) and English poetry (quatrain and ottava rima) are compared to see how the translators have dealt with the forms of Tang poetry in their translations. By comparing different translations of Tang poetry, it is found that such forms as line length, poetic

type, rhyme, rhythm and parallelism shared by Tang poetry and English poetry can be fully reproduced in the target language. Such form as tonal pattern can be reproduced to a certain extent. However, the forms, such as pun, intertextuality and palindrome that are peculiar to Tang poetry, are difficult to be translated or untranslatable because they cannot exist outside language due to the differences of two languages.

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The Reflections on the General Teaching Strategies in *New Standard College English* Intensive Reading Classroom

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Abstract—**Based on the concepts of education reform, this paper elaborates the specific process of strategic performance in different language skill areas in *New Standard College English* intensive reading classroom. By concluding the reflections such as the "triple action" in metacognitive strategies and the grasp of the relationship between "supply" and "demand" in classroom teaching, we aim to explore some effective teaching strategies in College English teaching classroom.**

Index Terms—**teaching strategies, metacognitive strategies**

I. SPECIFIC PROCESS OF STRATEGIC PERFORMANCE IN DIFFERENT LANGUAGE SKILL AREAS IN *NEW STANDARD COLLEGE ENGLISH* INTENSIVE READING CLASSROOM

A. Listening

According to a large–scale study conducted by O'Malley et al.(1985), whether students can be successful listeners in class depends on their selection of effective strategies, such as selective attention, self-monitoring, elaboration by using background knowledge, and inferring the meaning of words or phrases from context. They also found that the more effective listeners used a more top-down approach, favoring inference and coherence detection strategies, instead of focusing on a word by word approach by using a bottom-up approach.

Take a part of listening passage from *New Standard English* book for example. This listening material is about an introduction to Oxford University and Cambridge University. Due to the fluent speed of the British speaker, it is obviously hard to grasp every word of the passage. So effective strategies are used by conducting students to focus on the key words such as location, dispute, boat race mentioned in questions. Meanwhile, students' attention span is limited. While listening, their self-monitoring ability will also be exercised by ignoring the so-called invalid information such as the time information, classification, differences of the two universities. Thus, the selective attention can be successfully achieved simultaneously. In this way, student's confidence in listening will be greatly boosted owing to their having no trouble at the seemly lengthy material.

B. Speaking

Oxford (1990) showed that the whole range of learning strategies may include memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. All of these will influence a learner's speaking skill development. In the process of oral English practice, no matter which strategies are adopted, to maximize the extension of time of students' staying in the conversation and provide the opportunity for their further communication is our basic concern.

1. Inviting strategy

As a teacher, we all dream one day that students' initiative can be developed fully and gone are the days that students are invited, asked, persuaded or begged to ask questions. It is the usual occurrence that after the teacher asks: "Is there a volunteer?" or "Who would like to say something?" Usually we will meet the situation that students are silent or respond with heads lowered. But there does exist some situation a few nervous students will glance at teachers, then lower their heads or sit up straight or murmur something to themselves. For experienced teachers, it is sign that they would like to express their ideas, but what they need is just a little encouragement. On this occasion, teachers should cultivate the quality of observation, that is to say, to be an observant person and keep watch for even the slightest response showed by students. So the questions such as "Maggie, would you like to say anything?" "Tony, do you agree with Maggie?" or "Susan, which answer do you agree more?" will be more welcomed than a simple, mechanic, flexible one to one asking pattern "What's your answer?" "How about you?". Because during the whole procedure of answering, the students are not only involved in the procedure of their understanding of the teacher's questions, but also the classroom activity of their focus on their classmates' performance. Thus their thinking scope is greatly widened and the answering material is enriched as well. This also has a "menacing" effect to the extent that the students will be more active in the classroom activity due to the fact they want to be the one nominated. Of course, we shouldn't ignore the volunteers' role, since the active and brave one's initiative can't be ruined by nominating shyer ones all the time. So it is also a good strategy to balance the frequency of asking for volunteers and nominating students since more students will

be invited to the interactive classroom activity.

2. The tact strategy.

Oral English classroom is full of interactions of different sorts including student- student in English and Chinese. It is a common feeling shared by English learners that speaking in English creates a tension in them all the time due to cultural factors, linguistic factors and psychological or affective factors.

Sometimes during group work, when an activity is assigned and directions are explained, the students often do not start their discussion. It is a sign for the teachers that may be the students don't understand the directions clearly or they don't know where to start their speech. Naturally, teachers may make great efforts to explain the direction and procedure and they may usually ask simply "Do you understand?" to the whole class. More often, some students will feel too shy or shamed to say "I don't understand" in front of the whole class, so teachers generally can't receive an exact feedback from the students. To avoid this, the confirmative question "Is everything clear?" will be raised for individuals instead of the whole class. It is always better to go to each discussion group and ask them whether they have any problems or if anything is clear.

Another occasion often occurs in oral English classroom is that the students' mother tongue is used instead of the target language. For example, some students use their mother tongue to gossip, talking about things that are not related to the topic assigned. Some use their mother tongue as a communication strategy because they do not know how to express their ideas or a certain item in English, or when they cannot make themselves understood while using the target language. It is generally accepted to use limited mother tongue both by students and teachers. For example, when school begins after vacation, teachers tend to ask questions concerning vacation such as "How was your winter vacation going?" Answers from students may involve different feelings of what they experienced in the vacation. We should bear a tolerant idea towards the answer such as "I feel *yumen* during the winter vacation." Since there does exist some students who can't find an exact equivalence to express their true feeling in English, it is the teacher's task to guide the students to think in English, explain in English and finally introduce the most exact equivalence in English "depressed" or "morose". It is a process for students, especially poor spoken English students to correct their thinking and speaking habit and also a process for teachers to permit the limited use of mother tongue in order to reduce low level students' speaking tension and shyness.

3. The micro-skill training strategy.

In our oral English teaching practice, we usually pay much attention to the fulfillment of oral materials and the quantity of imparting instead of the real communication skills. It is generally understandable that students mainly focus on the understanding of oral materials, say, whether the words they know, the sentences they understand. It inevitably becomes an obstacle to the cultivation of students' spoken ability since they bear the idea in mind that they understand then they fulfill the teaching assignment. That is to say, what they understand is enough. In fact, teachers should input the idea of usage in class, that is no matter how simple the oral material is , even if all the words students are familiar with , if they can use it inflexibly, it means the failure of their mastery of oral practice.

Take *Catching crabs* in *New Standard English* for example. The theme of this unit is to discover yourself. So the questions such as When was your earliest memory? When was your happiest moment? which do you respect most: your character or your appearance? What's the nicest thing anyone has ever said to you? can be asked by students role playing as interviewers and interviewees in their mini-interviews. During the interview, ask-answer pattern can be employed and for the interviewers, they have to notice their partners' answers and spark more effective questions. Through such kind of classroom activity, students can be better informed that they needn't attend much to grammar nor pronunciation and without the use of correct words, students of similar linguistic background, a high degree of agreement can still be reached perfectly. Oral English practice aims at opening their mouths and sharing their thoughts freely.

C. Reading

A study conducted by Fischer and Mandl (2007) found that "good" readers were more flexible and adaptive who can clarify the task criteria and identify obstacles and difficulties more precisely, while "poor" readers were more oriented to text features than task requirements and use no concrete planning. Thus, the following strategies appeared to have positive effects on reading comprehension: summarizing in writing, underlining important parts, self-generated questions, checking to see if you can remember what you have read, asking questions about the bits you do not understand, taking notes, and imagining the story in your mind. In contrast, the following strategies were associated with negative results: thinking about something else while reading, writing down every word, skipping parts you do not understand, reading as fast as possible, saying words over and over, looking up words in a dictionary.

The passages in *New Standard College English* can be viewed as a series of reading materials in intensive reading classroom. Generally speaking, students tend to preview each unit by looking up new words in dictionaries instead of viewing them as a piece of comprehension materials to fulfill. Classroom reading are equal to their daily reading practice, since more skills are encouraged to be employed. If every passage we are going to learn is prepared as the source of our information, naturally, reading comprehension will not be our obstacle in English learning.

D. Writing

Writing is a highly complex thinking process which puts forward higher demands for one's cognitive ability, mind

ability, language ability, organizing ability as well as self-monitor ability. Due to the complexity in language learning, the approach to writing practice should be attached much importance to.

When given a topic, it is customary for students to fulfill the task quickly without mulling over the frame of their writing, the phrasing of their languages. For all the various topics they practiced, little progress can they make. Ultimately, the problem lies in the regular thinking pattern. No matter how many times they practice, the sentences they use are still the simple active voice and the words they choose are still the one we learned in senior middle school or earlier. May be they have some creative ideas to express, but when thinking about the equivalent English words and phrases, still, they quit. Their failed attempts guide us to reconsider effective teaching strategies in English classroom. Thus, the strategy of targeted writing practice shows its particular superiority. If the writing assignment is required to include at least three new words and phrases we learned in class, one non-restrictive attributive clause, one sentence with passive voice, one word with different part of speech transformation, students' attention will be shifted correspondingly to the specific targets instead of aimless practice which indirectly enforces the professional skills of language uses.

Besides, other factors improving students' writing skills should also be considered:

1. Basic and advanced level writing teaching

As students' ability varies differently, when we are teaching in class, we will meet the challenges of making different standards for students inevitably. Following the requirement of syllabus, teachers' attention is mainly laid to train basic writing skills and cultivate language abilities as well.

According to students' language level, when setting the writing task, the teacher may bear the idea of tolerant measurement in mind. That is to say, for the low-level students, his writing aim is to define the specific writing field, apply the basic sentence structure to his writing and normalize his language usage. When it comes to the teacher's guidance, the standardized English writing pattern may be emphasized. May be it lacks critical thinking in the writing, but the basic mastery of language skills seems to be more important for the students at this level. Accordingly, teachers' measurement may ignore the critical thinking partially, and teacher may score it based on language standardization. Of course, it is just a matter of time. Not long after, students' awareness of language standardization will be promoted. Then the vocabulary and sentences in specific field may be given to apply to his writing. Soon after, they will get rid of the patterned writing and receive advanced level writing learning.

Whereas, for the high-level students, critical thinking will be widely welcomed. That is to say, different from the standard of low-level students, teachers should pay their attention to the writing content instead of its form such as whether the students can better integrate the elite words and sentences into his writing, whether the students can produce their creative and persuasive ideas, whether the specific vocabulary and sentences can be used properly in his writing. Thus, teachers' measurement should differ from the former. Their focus on content and process of writing should be laid at the first place owing to its features. They should hold a tolerant attitude towards students' minor mistakes. The most import thing is to judge the category of falseness and figure out the universal primary ones. It is unnecessary to tick every falseness on the paper, just group them into certain types and mark the name of falseness at the bottom of its paper. Thus, the students' initiative can be better improved and they will be cautious of the application of words and sentences.

2. The "model" effect

Model plays an essential role in writing teaching practice. Here, model doesn't only refer to the material, also the familiar individual among students. As we all know, Everyone needs certain degree of encouragement, especially students. If teachers use mild words to praise a student who behaves well in class, others may be positively influenced by their classmates' behavior. But in writing class, praise out of teachers' mouth is too mild compared with a copy of students' good writing paper. Among the writing papers handed in by students, we can select an excellent paper according to our teaching aim. The measurement of excellence is not limited to its quality, say, a high score writing paper. It depends on the writing skills we will impart in current class. That is to say, if today's writing skill is about coherence, students' writing papers with better cohesive devices will be picked as the model and the copy will be handed to the class. This will greatly encourage students' confidence in writing and stimulate their peers to create high level writing. Simultaneously, the model of writing papers can't be ignored. For the sake of a well formed organization, before starting a composition, teachers usually conduct the whole class to begin the writing procedures such as outlining, brainstorming, clustering as well. Through rounds of composition, students may practice their writing under their organization. Therefore, to present the writing sample is necessary in teaching procedure. As the limits of students' writing ability, their papers may not be perfect as the writing sample at most time. Via the comparison with the writing sample, the application of cohesive devices will be further enhanced and the excellent usage can be attempted in their own writing practice.

3. The situational writing practice

As the most effective English learning lies in learning in actual language situation which guarantees a large amount of receptive language information. English writing is no exception. While we set the writing task, we unavoidably are trapped in constructing writing simply with the type of argumentation forever. The ignorance of applied writing type and situational writing practice certainly ruins students' writing interest and categorizes directly English writing into the field of course instead of practice. Due to the test-oriented education, writing teaching mainly fails to meet the demand

of language communication.

Situational writing practice originates from diary, the real things happen in everyone's life. It more concentrates on the description and narration of daily things such as doing chores. Just as a primary school student's writing paper, it demands the description of chores, working feeling, etc. Since it is a common practice every student experienced, it involves the students' mind activity of chores, such as preparing breakfast, washing dishes, cleaning up the house, doing laundry etc. The aim is to cultivate a good habit of writing, even though it is simply a procedure of recording. After all, it makes the students know the link between English usage and daily life. By using the vocabulary and phrases in specific situation, students can consolidate their language usage and cultivate a kind of awareness that when they are doing the usual things in life, they can connect the occasion with the proper English expressions.

4. The awareness of students' participation

No matter what taught by teachers, it is the students who fulfill the writing assignment. But the procedure can be designed as a mutual learning pattern which involves the lateral learning of students.

While writing papers with teachers' correcting returned to students, what arouse their interest is only score. This attitude prohibits the development of reception of writing skills. My practice is to divide students into several groups, and hand out papers written by students from group 1to group 2, group 2 to group 3 and so on until each group receives different papers written by others. This is group work, and surely each group deals with only one students' writing paper following the standards of writing assessment such as grammatical control, coherence, cohesion, organization of ideas, fluency of expression, mechanical skills, awareness of audience and use of vocabulary on the blackboard. After discussion, each group modifies the writing paper based on the standards above, and gives their possible suggestions on the paper. If time allowed, they may score each standard and give their own marks on others' paper. This practice indirectly helps students aware what they should notice while writing, motivates their initiative and facilitates obtaining more information and modification on their writing skills.

II. THE REFLECTIONS ON THE GENERAL TEACHING STRATEGIES IN NEW STANDARD COLLEGE ENGLISH INTENSIVE READING CLASSROOM

My teaching experience in *New Standard College English* Intensive Reading Classroom inspires me with great imminency of the practice of students' participation and the subjective consciousness, what's more, the difficulty in transformation between teaching and learning, active and passive relationship. What we should often think, confer and research is the "eternal theme"--to make a better combination of the new text book and effective teaching strategies, to improve the quality of teaching based on the concept of teaching reform.

A. The Embodiment of the "Triple Action" Principle in Metacognitive Strategies

The cultivation of self-learning ability, via the way of metacognitive strategy training, can be achieved in the three principles of "initiative stimulation", "full-time interactive", "learning and practice linkage".

1. To stimulate students' initiatives and cultivate their personalized self-learning ability.

In the process of learning English, due to the differences between the students' individual knowledge structure, cognitive ability, learning level, it's liable to produce two extreme psychological tendencies of "contempt" and "awe": The former has a good mastery of language ability, confined to the stylized understanding of classroom content and neglecting the consolidation and learning expansion after class learning. Over time, the contemptuous psychology of "there is nothing to learn about College English" arises, resulting in the stagnant situation in English; the latter has relatively weak foundation in English and excludes input process in English learning. The way of passive learning leads to the pile up of language points in English knowledge, and gradually form the psychology of "fear of difficulty", finally, give up totally.

Both of the psychology is universal. To overcome it, it's teachers' responsibility to understand individual differences among students in language learning and help students set up their personalized self-planning and self-management card with daily learning drips roughly recorded. For better attention, they can be attached to the textbook to achieve the virtuous circle of self-monitor, self-assessment and self-incentive. Meanwhile, the implementation of a hierarchical teaching, say, the setting of graded quiz, in-class questions and homework, is also feasible for the independent choice of appropriate graded questions, which meets students' learning accomplishment to great extend.

2. Full-time interaction provides mutual platform in English learning.

Language learning has its own specificity. Restrictive of the factors such as text book, attending number, and lessons, it is unable to meet the different needs of students' learning, let alone to provide timely tracking counseling. Today, Prevailing in information technology, the network provides the best interactive platform for communication and expanding learning. It's a common practice for teachers to set up discussion groups on the net in the unit of classes. To help students develop their autonomy and sense of participation, students are encouraged to take turns regularly to screen, optimize network resources. During the whole process, teachers are acted as the role of background guidance, specifying different students to upload learning materials, exchange ideas regularly.

3. To create English "question- and- answer time" in bedroom by making the linkage between learning and practice.

Learning for practice is the purpose of English learning, but it is a prevailing truth that what we have learned is

divorced from our application. The dumb English situation is going on for the disuse of the already learned vocabulary, grammar, sentence pattern.

It has become a habit for roommates to chat on bed before drifting to sleep and the topics involved are varied. For this phenomenon, the English "question-and-answer" time can be created. As we all know, learning needs atmosphere. The power of collectivism is unlimited. The leisurely air while chatting inevitably releases the rigid learning pattern, thus sets up a better way of learning. While one asking, the remaining answer, then the joint evaluation mode can be formed.

B.   The Grasp of "Supply And Demand" in Classroom Teaching

The relationship between "supply and demand" in teaching and learning is reflected in two aspects: quantity and content. College English series courses have the common features of wide knowledge and cultural points coverage. Obviously, it is impossible for teachers to impart all-embracing knowledge mentioned in text books with the limited time. Then it comes to the question of adoption and discard. Strategic trade-off is a rational choice made by teachers based on students' practical needs. After all, the more knowledge teachers impart is not equal to the better their students learn. To guide students to learn more, to see more and think more is what the teachers should do, since the students are grown-ups. Therefore, in the actual teaching, more attention should be paid to the balance between language knowledge explanation, skills training and the allocation proportion of other imparted knowledge. Besides, to strengthen the penetration of cultural awareness and cultivation of diverse mindset, to set more real-life scenarios for students' language practice and language skills training with cognitive and emotional characteristics is also a feasible attempt in teaching practice in the future.

III.   CONCLUSION

Through elaborating the specific process of strategic performance in different language skill areas in *New Standard College English* intensive reading classroom, we make some reflections on classroom teaching practice. By exploring the effective strategies characterized both by textbook and university in classroom teaching, we aim to master the accumulation of first-hand experience in teaching for better grasping the textbook content and adaption to the education reform trends.

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Investigating the Effect of Levels of Proficiency on Iranian Male and Female EFL Learners' Critical Thinking and Self-efficacy

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Abstract—This study explored relationship between Self-Efficacy and Critical thinking across different levels among Iranian EFL learners. The purpose of this study was twofold. This study attempted to expand our understanding of the relationship between psychologically rich variables like self-efficacy and critical thinking and language proficiency. Second, this research examined these psychological variables among genders. The study sample consisted of 120 students from some institutes in Tehran. Three measurements were used for data collection: firstly Nelson Test in order to define level of proficiency and homogeneity, then Self-Efficacy Scale (SES), and Critical Thinking Questionnaire (CTQ) were administered to measure their self-efficacy and critical thinking of Iranian EFL learners. In conclusion, according to statistical analysis, the findings are indicated that there is significant relationship between critical thinking and self-efficacy and levels of proficiency. Gender has significant effect on critical thinking and self-efficacy.

Index Terms—self-efficacy, critical thinking, gender, levels of proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

Research on learners' beliefs has increased particularly by focusing on learners' affective and cognitive factors playing role in the language learning process. While affective factors are crucial for learning a second language (Schumann, 1998), metacognitive awareness and beliefs of learners have been had a great ipmact their learning, way of thinking, reasoning and solving the problems (Kardash & Scholes, 1996). Additionally, belief arrangements, social cognitions and metacognition of learners consider a powerful trigger for knowledgeable performance (Schoenfeld, 1983), like learning foreign languages.

In addition, according to cognitive researches, cognitive processing is important because it determines the quality of student learning and strategies that students use in their learning like practice, explanation, organization, and critical thinking. For becoming proficient for example in learning a second language, every person requires clustering, outlining, and separating the main idea from supporting ideas. Critical thinking is how students use their former knowledge to new circumstances to solve the problems, make choices, or construct evaluations critically.

According to (Clark, 1988), he has been used 'implicit theories', 'self-constructed abstract systems as definition for beliefs (Rust, 1994, cited in Bernat & Lloyd, 2007), and "overall assumptions that students have about themselves as learners, factors affecting learning, and also the nature of learning and teaching" (Victori & Lockheart, 1995, p. 224). Students with positive beliefs about their own abilities would lead to effective learning strategies. On the other hand, students with negative beliefs would lead to less operative tactics that reduce their positive approach towards autonomy in learning (Victori & Lockhart, 1995), that cause classroom anxiety (Hortwitz, et al., 1986), and lessen their cognitive in performance (Reid & Hresko, 1981).

Bandura (1995) studied four ways for supposed self-efficacy relates to cognitive improvement. Students' self-efficacy beliefs control their own learning to become proficient in their academic activities, and become more motivated and successful person in such activities. Personal efficacy beliefs of teachers motivate and encourage learning and create learning environment to achieve academic development. Beliefs that faculties hold about their instructional efficacy to enrich their academic accomplishment. In general, we can regard self-efficacy as a motivational cause in the improvement of critical thinking ability.

By considering motivations and interests of learners as vital features in their critical thinking (Myers, 1992, cited in Dehghani et al, 2011), students' positive beliefs in their abilities comes to motivation that faster critical thinking and negative or non-motivation ones would be a difficulty to critical thinking. As a result, self-efficacy beliefs can successfully predict critical thinking abilities (Sang, Valcke, Braak & Tondeur, 2010). Bandura and Lock (2003) believe that self-efficacy give rise to motivation and expands performance and critical thinking skills.

Self-efficacy beliefs originated from Bandura's (1977) social learning theory that the name of theory was modified to social cognitive theory in 1986. One of the most important theories that Bandura applied in his theory was self-efficacy.

Bandura (1995) made a difference in how people feel, think, behave, and motivate themselves regarding self-efficacy presented in his theory. Concerning feeling, a low sense of self-efficacy causes stress, anxiety, depression, and helplessness.

Regarding thinking, better sense of efficacy facilitates cognitive processes and consequently performance, including academic accomplishments and decision making. And regarding behaving, self-efficacy can affect choice of activities that people choose. Self-efficacy levels would measure peoples' degree of motivation. People that have higher self-efficacy choose more demanding tasks to challenge and try to achieve it. "People's level of motivation would be determined by self-efficacy beliefs, as reflected in how much effort they will put forth and how long they will persevere when they face obstacles" (Bandura, 1982, p. 11). To sum up, the higher the sense of efficacy, the greater the effort, persistence and resiliency will be (Parajes, 1996, p. 544).

We could look at critical thinking form two points of view; philosophical view and psychological one. From philosophical point of view, origins of critical thinking can be traced back to Socrates and the Socratic Method. It is a philosophy that helps people to repair vague meanings, contradictory beliefs, inadequate evidence and empty expression (Paul, Elder & Bartell, 1997). In this method, it is important to search for evidence, examine reasoning and suppositions, analyze conceptions, and trace out inferences. The philosophy proposed by Socrates was persuaded by Plato and the Greek skeptics, they highlighted that things are often unlike what they appear to be and the skilled mind is just equipped to see what actually they are (Paul, Elder & Bartell, 1997, cited in Duron, Limbach & Waugh, 2006).

From psychological point of view, critical thinking is the ability to examine and assess information. Critical thinkers raise essential questions, formulate those questions, collect relevant information and then assess them, think open-mindedly, and communicate efficiently. In contrast, passive thinkers undergo a restricted view; their responses are yes or no and think their perspectives are the only reasonable and relevant viewpoint. Critical thinking is an important and necessary to deal with mental questions, and it can be used to assess people, policies, and institutions that avoid facing social problems (Hatcher and Spencer, 2005).

Halpern (1996) defined critical thinking as "thinking that is purposeful, reasoned, and goal directed. It is the way of thinking that is involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions" (p. 5) and he like most cognitive-based theorists preferred to use "thinking skills" specifically not as a broad term for the movement (Lewis & Smith, 1993; Sternberg, 1987). As a result, critical thinking and self-efficacy are two major student characteristics need to be investigated in more details in educational settings. In this study, the researcher plans to have a precise look and examine these two cognitive situations in three level of proficiency along with considering gender differences. This may affect enrolment for college courses, career choices, and even in their social settings.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In most school classes and institutes in Iran, learners feel bored and tired because there are some missing points from psychological point of view that make them biased towards their learning and classrooms. Most of the time, these missing points like critical thinking and self-efficacy have a great effect on language teaching and learning in classroom and ignoring them would lead to ineffective teaching strategies and wasting time. Taking the importance of language teaching and learning in today's world into consideration, and undeniable role of psychological matters, this study aimed to determine the most important factors including critical thinking, self-efficacy across different levels of proficiency among different genders. As a result, understanding students' needs and knowing psychological attitudes have always been one of the obsessing issues among language teaching experts.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Based on the purpose of the study, the researcher raised the following questions:
1. Is there any significant difference between critical thinking and self-efficacy of Iranian EFL learners at lower intermediate, intermediate and upper intermediate levels of proficiency?
2. Does gender have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking ability?
3. Does gender have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy beliefs?

IV. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

On the basis of the aforementioned research questions the following hypothesis are stated:
1. There is no significant difference between critical thinking and self-efficacy among EFL learners' lower intermediate, intermediate and upper intermediate levels.
2. There is no significant difference between genders of EFL learners in terms of critical thinking ability.
3. There is no significant difference between genders of EFL learners and their self-efficacy beliefs.

V. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 120 students from some institutes in Tehran. The participants were mostly selected from adults at three different levels of proficiency and divided into three groups of lower intermediate, intermediate and upper intermediate. The reason why the participants should be from adults is that thinking and answering to psychological questionnaires needs some degree of maturity so the researcher selected them from adult learners. To secure the reliable homogeneity of the selected participants, the researcher used Nelson quick check test. Among 120 subjects who took the test and based on the obtained mean and standard deviation, only 96 participants were selected and then the participants were divided into three groups accordingly.

B. Materials

In the current study, one standard test as pre-test and two questionnaires were used to collect required data. The pre-test, Nelson's Quick Check Test was administered to determine the participants' level of proficiency. One of the questionnaires was on self-efficacy (The General Self-Efficacy Scale written by Ralf Schwarzer & Matthias Jerusalem, 1979) and another was a critical thinking questionnaire adopted from Ballarat University.

Nelson Test

In order to fulfill the aim of this research, test of Nelson by Fowler and Coe (1978) was selected and the researcher gave it to all participants to determine level of proficiency and secure homogeneity. This test includes 100 items arranged from easy to difficult including grammar and vocabulary. The maximum time required for this test is 60 minutes. This test was chosen because it is one of the most reliable tests used to determine the level of proficiency.

General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE)

The General Self-Efficacy Scale (GSE) by Ralf Schwarzer and Matthias Jerusalem (1979) was selected for assessing participants' self-efficacy due to the fact that it is the most popular and reliable questionnaire in this area. The German version developed in 1979 and revised and adapted to 26 other languages later. This questionnaire was made to evaluate an overall sense of perceived self-efficacy to see how people deal with their daily difficulties and adaptation after experiencing stressful life events. The scale is designed for the general adult population includes totally 10 items and is a series of statements about participants' personal attitudes and traits. The time allocated is 4 minutes on average and each statement has 4 options to answer. Regarding the reliability of this scale, it should be notified that samples were chosen from 23 nations, Cronbach's alphas ranged from .76 to .90, with the majority in the high .80s.

Critical Thinking Questionnaire

The Critical Thinking questionnaire was included 20 items that measures students' skills at analyzing, evaluating, and extending arguments. This questionnaire was adopted from The University of Ballarat (UB) website that is an Australia's multi-sector university. There were five answers for each item (Likert scale) from strongly agree to strongly disagree. It is designed to permit test-takers to demonstrate how much the participants are critical thinker in settings where solving problems and making decisions are important. Since there was no access to the information of reliability of the questionnaire, the test was piloted to get sure about the reliability. Consequently, the questionnaire was given to volunteer participants other than those involved in this study. Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficient for Likert-Type Scales was used and equalled to 0.70 that is acceptable and could be considered a standard test.

C. Procedures

A survey study was conducted to collect quantitative data from 96 selected students as participants. Data collection was in the form of paper-and-pencil testing administered in two sessions. Firstly, the pre-test have been administered to determine the participants' level of proficiency. For this purpose and to save time Nelson's quick check test was given to all participants. In order to secure the homogeneity, the mean and standard deviation of the obtained scores were calculated. After homogenizing and defining the participants, the researcher gave questionnaires to them. Since some words would be difficult to understand specifically for beginner and in some cases for intermediate participants, the researcher translated questionnaires in order to avoid any misunderstanding. The participants were also asked to answer the questions honestly and carefully.

The pre-test and questionnaires were done in two separate sessions. However, because the New Year holidays were close to the time of data collection, the pretest was given before the holidays and the questionnaires were given after the holidays.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS

Nelson was administered to 120 EFL learners. The descriptive analysis of the data obtained through Nelson test is presented in table 1.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE OBTAINED SCORES ON NELSON TEST

	N Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness Statistic	Std. Error	Kurtosis Statistic	Std. Error
Proficiency Test	120	23	78	41.13	13.728	.943	.221	.264	.438

In order to guarantee the homogeneity of the participants, the students whose scores did not fall within a range of one standard deviation above and below the mean were eliminated from the main study. Regarding this study, 40 students were excluded. The descriptive statistics of the homogeneous participants are provided in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE HOMOGENOUS PARTICIPANTS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Proficiency Test	80	28	60	40.21	9.000	.502	.254	-.866	.503

Regarding the purpose of study that is to investigate different levels of language proficiency of learners, the participants of the study were then divided into three levels of language proficiency. To do this, one standard deviation below the mean was identified as lower level, one standard deviation above the mean as intermediate level and two standard deviations as upper level learners. The learners who were not scored within these ranges were excluded from the study. The descriptive statistics of three groups of the language proficiency is provided in Table 3. The number of the participants in lower, intermediate and upper level groups is 37, 28 and 15 respectively.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THREE LEVELS OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Lower	37	31	39	34.02	4.065
Intermediate	28	40	49	50.52	4.999
Upper	15	50	59	65.59	4.345
Total	80				

In order to see whether there is any significant difference between critical thinking and self-efficacy among EFL learners of lower intermediate, intermediate and upper intermediate, the following steps were taken. The descriptive statistics of critical thinking ability and self-efficacy of each level is provided in Table 4. It provides useful information on mean and standard deviation of self-efficacy and critical thinking ability among three groups of the study.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THREE LEVELS ON SELF-EFFICACY AND CRITICAL THINKING

	Groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Self-Efficacy	Lower	26.80	1.494	37
	Intermediate	31.13	2.052	28
	Upper	36.35	1.618	15
	Total	27.15	5.995	80
Critical Thinking	Lower	36.63	7.598	37
	Intermediate	66.04	10.585	28
	Upper	75.88	7.296	15
	Total	50.63	18.857	80

A one-way Multiple Analysis of Variances (MANOVA) was performed in order to see whether there are significant differences between different levels of language proficiency and their self-efficacy and critical thinking ability. The results are provided in Tables 5 and 6.

TABLES 5.
MANOVA

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.993	6.540E3a	2.000	92.000	.000	.993
	Wilks' Lambda	.007	6.540E3a	2.000	92.000	.000	.993
	Hotelling's Trace	142.183	6.540E3a	2.000	92.000	.000	.993
	Roy's Largest Root	142.183	6.540E3a	2.000	92.000	.000	.993
Levels	Pillai's Trace	.932	40.559	4.000	186.000	.000	.466
	Wilks' Lambda	.111	92.263a	4.000	184.000	.000	.667
	Hotelling's Trace	7.651	174.058	4.000	182.000	.000	.793
	Roy's Largest Root	7.600	3.534E2b	2.000	93.000	.000	.884

a. Exact statistic
b. The statistic is an upper bound on F that yields a lower bound on the significance level.
c. Design: Intercept + Levels

The results are provided in tables 5. and 6. showed that ($p = 0$). So, pvalue is lower than the assumed level of significance (i.e., 0.05) and therefore there are significant differences among different levels of proficiency.

Using Wilks' Lambda test, it was found that there are significant differences (Wilk's = .11, $F_{4, 184} = 92.26$, $p < .05$), among different levels of language proficiency in their critical thinking and self-efficacy. Multivariate ($\eta^2 = .66$)

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indicates that 66 percent of multivariate variance of critical thinking and self-efficacy are associated with the different groups.

TABLE 6.
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Self-Efficacy	2906.039[a]	2	1453.019	266.048	.000	.851
	Critical Thinking	27288.654[b]	2	13644.327	195.464	.000	.808
Intercept	Self-Efficacy	67707.144	1	67707.144	1.240E4	.000	.993
	Critical Thinking	265318.595	1	265318.595	3.801E3	.000	.976
Levels	Self-Efficacy	2906.039	2	1453.019	266.048	.000	.851
	Critical Thinking	27288.654	2	13644.327	195.464	.000	.808
Error	Self-Efficacy	507.920	77	5.462			
	Critical Thinking	6491.846	77	69.805			
Total	Self-Efficacy	74156.000	80				
	Critical Thinking	279818.000	80				
Corrected Total	Self-Efficacy	3413.958	79				
	Critical Thinking	33780.500	79				

a. R Squared = .851 (Adjusted R Squared = .848)
b. R Squared = .808 (Adjusted R Squared = .804)

As can be seen, both ANOVAs ($F = 266.04$, $p < .05$), ($F = 195.46$, $p < .05$) are significant at the level of .05. It means that both critical thinking and self-efficacy were separately showed significantly different results among three levels of language proficiency. Therefore, the first null hypothesis of the study saying "there is not any significant difference between critical thinking and self-efficacy among EFL learners' lower intermediate, intermediate and upper intermediate levels" is not accepted.

In order to investigate the second null hypothesis of the study to see whether gender has any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' critical thinking ability, an independent sample t-test was performed. The results, as can be seen in Table 7. indicated that there is not any statistical significant difference between male and female EFL learners regarding their critical thinking ability ($t = .93$, $p > .05$). Thus, the second null hypothesis of the study is accepted.

TABLE 7.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF MALE AND FEMALE LEARNERS ON CRITICAL THINKING

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Critical Thinking	Equal variances assumed	4.788	.032	.934	78	.353	3.353	3.589	-3.793	10.499

In order to investigate the third null hypothesis of the study to see whether gender has any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' self-efficacy, an independent sample t-test was performed. The results, as can be seen in Table 8. indicated that there is not any statistical significant difference between male and female EFL learners regarding their self-efficacy ($t = .89$, $p > .05$). Thus, the third null hypothesis of the study is accepted.

TABLE 8.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST OF MALE AND FEMALE LEARNERS ON SELF-EFFICACY

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Self-Efficacy	Equal variances assumed	.952	.332	.891	78	.376	.520	.583	-.642	1.681

VII. DISCUSSION

The results obtained showed that both ANOVAs were significant at the accepted level. It means that both critical thinking and self-efficacy were both significant among three levels of language proficiency. On the basis of the results, the answer to first question is yes, so there is relationship between these variables and levels of language proficiency. Considering critical thinking, these results is in line with Rosyati and Rosna (2008) research in Malaysia that significant correlations were found between critical thinking ability and their English language proficiency. After conducting Scheffe post-hoc multiple range tests, the researcher could find that all types of contrasts among different variables of the study showed a significant difference.

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The present study also suggested the importance of improving the learners' English language proficiency. As discovered by the results, proficiency in English is positively related to critical thinking ability and self-efficacy, it means that if the learners are proficient in English, their critical thinking ability and self-efficacy will also be intensified. Of course, it should be noticed that these competencies can be developed independently of each other; that is, there are learners who are proficient in English and yet poor in critical thinking and self- efficacy.

Although in this study the difference between three levels of proficiency in critical thinking and self-efficacy is significant, it should be considered that language is not exclusively responsible for determining learners' thought but it could be helpful to shape their thought.

In this part, the second research question is dealing with the relationship between critical thinking, self-efficacy, and gender. So, this research question aimed to see whether there is significant difference between female and male learners in critical thinking ability and self-efficacy beliefs. According to the result of paired-sample t-tests, there is significant difference between female and male learners in critical thinking ability and self-efficacy beliefs.

These results are in contrast to what Dehghani et al. (2011) found, in that there was a significant difference between learners' self-efficacy by gender. The findings are in line with those of critical thinking and they found that there is no significant difference between learners' critical thinking by gender. It also supports those of Curtis et al. (2008) in that there is no significant difference between learners' critical thinking by gender. However, findings of this study are the same as what Murris (2002, cited in Dehghani et al., 2011) found in his study. He found that there is no significant difference between students' self-efficacy by gender.

VIII. IMPLICATIONS

From theoretical point of view, successful language performance requires higher ability in critical thinking and better beliefs in self-efficacy. This study presented critical thinking and self-efficacy as potential factors for language learning achievement.

From pedagogical point of view, EFL teachers by considering cognitive and affective factors like critical thinking and self-efficacy in their language teaching methodology and employing proper strategies and tasks could help learners to overcome difficulties in language learning process. For example, they could employ tasks that provide opportunities for learners to increase their critical thinking ability.

English institutes, schools, and colleges could benefit from the findings of the present study and they could put such beneficial factors into practice and design their curriculum and material on the basis of the learners' affective and cognitive factors. Additionally, learners are more willing to enroll in institutes and colleges that pay attention to their feelings and at the same time help them to increase their abilities in learning process.

IX. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

According to the findings of this study, level of proficiency in English has a significant relationship with critical thinking ability and self-efficacy beliefs, but as I mentioned earlier, language is not the only responsible item for determining learners' thought and it could just help to shape their thought. There are other factors affects these two variables like entering social life and being educated. As people enter social life, they gain more experience and success so they improve their self-efficacy on the basis of those successes and the more successful experience they gain the more self-efficient they become.

It is also true when it comes to education, when people continue their education to higher level; they get more success that leads to being more self-efficient and better critical thinker. As their level of education develops, they start using skills or approaches of cognition that surge the possibility of a required outcome. They start thinking that is goal directed and it is better to state more directed thinking.

As a result of the mentioned issues, further researches is recommended in investigating the above factors in the relation with critical thinking and self-efficacy that the researcher had to skip for the sake of time. Also, the researchers could consider subcategories of critical thinking and self-efficacy is highly recommended for further studies.

A need is also felt to investigate critical thinking and self-efficacy of the teachers that play key role in the field of English language teaching in language classes and learn how to improve them that affect their teaching drastically. A study in this case would be helpful for both teachers and students. If the teachers could improve their critical thinking and self-efficacy, they would be able to teach more effectively and at the same time they could help students to improve their psychological issues better.

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TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 10 to 15 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  - Submission of extended version
  - Notification of acceptance
  - Final submission due
  - Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublisher.com/tpls/.

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