Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

A Practice of Reading Assessment in a Primary Classroom

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Abstract—**Assessment is very important to monitor students' learning progress in schools. This study focuses on reading assessment in a primary classroom. This study aimed to discover the effect of the reading assessment plan on monitoring the students' learning progress. The participants were 21 primary students of mixed gender. The data gathering consisted of observation, teacher-student interactions, running records, using tests, and keeping reading profiles. Qualitative approach was used to analyse the data. The findings confirmed that careful planning was essential for effectively assessing students' study and the students' different English reading and writing abilities should be considered in deciding the difficulty of the plan. A number of recommendations have been made in relation to this study to assist primary teachers to make a reading assessment plan. The findings from this study have the potential to assist current and future pre-service teachers and primary school teachers in identifying effective and appropriate assessing strategies to enhance students' academic achievements.**

Index Terms—**assessment strategy, planning, practise, reading assessment**

I. INTRODUCTION

Assessment, according to the Curriculum Corporation (1997), is "the process through which teachers identify, gather and interpret information about student achievement and learning". It provides "information teachers need in order to improve student learning" (Curriculum Corporation, 1997, p. 1; Department of Education, Tasmania, 2005, p. 8). As assessment fulfills a range of purposes for the teacher and students, e.g., by providing information about students' progress and learning; evaluating the success of teaching approaches, and determining students' achievement (Curriculum Corporation, 1997; Weeden, Winter & Broadfoot, 2002), it should be included in the everyday primary classroom.

The learning of literacy in primary schools consists of four basic skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Campbell & Green, 2006). The reading skill is increasingly seen as one of the most important skills. It determines both performance in other subject areas, such as science and the humanities, at the primary stage and also academic achievement at a much later stage (Reynolds, 1998). Studies of Sammons, Thomas and Mortimore (1997) indeed showed correlations as high as 80% between children's performance on reading at age seven and their subsequent achievement scores. Assessing reading skill then appears very significant in primary classrooms.

Successful assessment in the classroom involves careful planning, which provides the teacher with the clear direction towards the goals that the assessment should achieve. As Badger, Dilena, Peters, Webster, and Weeks (1991) suggested, "If your approach to assessment is going to be an effective and manageable means of fostering students' learning and helping you to evaluate your literacy program then you need to plan your practices in a systematic and decisive way" (p. 3). Careful planning helps the teacher to be clear with specific procedures in assessing students' academic achievement. The plan needs to be applied to empirical practices in order to achieve its worthiness. Frequently reflecting on practices enables the teacher to find out what strategies have worked well and what areas still need to improve. This study thus follows the procedure of planning, practising and reflecting on reading assessment in a primary classroom.

This study provides a brief literature review on reading assessment; an overview of the plan of reading assessment; how and why the planned reading assessment strategies will be used; findings and discussion; reflections, and conclusions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW AND THE OVERVIEW OF THE PLAN OF READING ASSESSMENT

In literature, the importance of reading assessment has been examined by many researches (Little, 1978; Raggett, Tutt & Raggett, 1979; Rowe, 2006). Assessment has been recognized as "a crucial component of the effective teaching

of reading" by Winch, Johnston, March, Ljungdahl, and Holliday (2006, p. 135). Assessment in reading is also increasingly important in primary schools. According to Winch, Johnston, March, Ljungdahl, and Holliday (2006):

School and school systems throughout Australia are now required to report to the Federal Government about the achievement of their students in relation to nationally agreed benchmarks in literacy. Schools and school systems gather assessment evidence to assist in making judgments about the achievement of individual students and particular groups of students, the targeting of resources, and the effectiveness of program. (p. 138)

Due to the importance of reading assessment, many forms and strategies of assessing students' reading skill are made available for teachers to choose for use in the classroom. Nevertheless, what reading assessment strategies should be chosen as the most appropriate for the primary classroom? This study plans to focus on assessing students' reading accuracy, fluency, and comprehension, which have been commonly agreed by investigators as "three empirical dimensions of reading skill" (Turner, 1997, p. 50). The activity strategies will involve word recognition lists and sentence completion tests, oral reading, reading and retelling, text comprehension tests, reading self-assessment, and reading portfolios. The following organizational strategies will be used to assist in the gathering of reading assessment data: observation, teacher-student interactions, running records, using tests, and keeping reading profiles. The table below (Table 1) shows the overview of the plan of reading assessment on the dimensions of what the assessment strategies will be used, what tools will be used to assist in collecting data, and for what aims of reading assessment that these strategies will be used.

TABLE I
OVERVIEW OF READING ASSESSMENT

Assessment strategies	Tools of collecting data	Aims of reading assessment
Word recognition lists and sentence completion tests	Everyday word recognition and sentence completion Weekly word tests and sentence completion tests	Assessing reading accuracy and comprehension
Text comprehension tests	Multiple choices Matching True-false Cloze Short–answers Summarizing information	Assessing reading comprehension
Oral reading	Read aloud to the teacher	Assessing reading accuracy and fluency
Reading and retelling	Silent reading or listening to a narrative Orally retelling or commenting on it in their own words	Assessing reading accuracy, fluency, and comprehension
Text comprehension tests	Multiple choices Matching True-false Cloze Short–answers Summarizing information	Assessing reading comprehension
Reading self-assessment	Keeping records using reading logs Writing journals	Assessing reading accuracy, fluency, and comprehension

III. PLANNING READING ASSESSMENT STRATEGIES: HOW AND WHY?

This section will briefly describe how and why these reading assessment strategies will be used. As "reading is a very complex skill" (Beech & Singleton, 1997, p. 226) and each assessment strategy has its own function which cannot be taken place by any other strategies, effective reading assessment needs to cover a wide range of strategies, in order to provide the teacher and students with valid and reliable students' learning progress and academic achievements. This is supported by the Australian Educational Research Association (as cited in the Department of Education of Victoria & Early Childhood Development, 2007, p. 19), which states that "no decisions about an individual's education should be made on the basis of test scores alone; there is a need for multiple sources of evidence". The Australian Curriculum Studies Association (as cited in Brady & Kennedy, 2005, p. 23) also suggested that "assessment should use a range of strategies".

Summative assessment emphasizes on the purposes for review, transfer and certification, while formative assessment addresses on assisting learning (Weeden, Winter, & Broadfoot, 2002). As Owen (1992, p. 95) pointed out, "To improve standards rather than simply to record and report them, assessment procedures must be formative". Edwards-Groves (2003, p. 57) also noted that "assessments needs to be regular and ongoing".

The planed reading assessment will thus adopt a range of strategies in a variety of formal and informal contexts, including formative assessment and summative assessment. The informal and formative assessment can be integrated into students' everyday activities and tasks, while the formal and summative assessment can provide with specific report at the end of a learning sequence, course or unit. Most strategies employed in this plan can be conducted both informally and formally. The teacher gives formative feedback when testing students informally, and gives a specific score and comments when testing formally. Details of each strategy in this plan are demonstrated as follows:

A. Word Recognition Lists and Sentence Completion Tests

Word recognition lists and sentence completion tests can be tested regularly. Everyday, students can read word lists loud to the teacher and complete sentences by filling in the correct word. The teacher gives the immediate oral and written formative feedback. The formal word tests and sentence completion tests can be conducted weekly. A reading accuracy score will be given according to their performance. For example, the total score is 100% and there are 10 questions in total, then each question weighs 10%. However, Owen (1992, p. 96) argued that "word recognition lists and sentence completion tests are highly reliable in test-retest situations, but tell us little about the child's success on a range of everyday reading tasks". Other assessment strategies are thus required.

B. Text Comprehension Tests

As for the text comprehension tests, students read the text silently then answer questions silently in a prescribed amount of time, such as multiple choices, matching, true-false, cloze, short–answers, and summarizing information. Tests of silent reading comprehension are supported by Beech and Singleton (1997), who claimed that reading comprehension cannot be measured accurately when someone has been asked to read aloud, since the process of dealing with correct pronunciation and expression can interfere with comprehension. This test can also use a total score of 100% and each question weighs a certain percentage to measure students' performance. Tests measured by using a specific score to show correct answers can accurately show students' learning achievement. Both teachers and students will thus be more clearly aware of the teaching and learning progress.

C. Oral Reading

Oral reading allows students to read the text aloud to the teacher. It can fulfill many requirements of teachers when the test of oral reading is conducted informally, e.g., "being easy to test; providing useful information; being individualized" (Senior, 1979, p. 180). When the test is conducted formally, a reading accuracy and a reading fluency score will be derived from their reading performance. The teacher will focus on observing "students' reading omission, repetition, substitution, insertion, hesitation, and correction" (Senior, 1979, p. 180). For example, if the student misreads a word, or hesitates for longer than a prescribed amount of time, the teacher takes note and takes off a certain percentage from the total score of 100%, the teacher may also supply the correct word and give him/her the immediate oral formative feedback.

D. Reading and Retelling

The strategy of reading and retelling refers to that "students silently read or listen to a narrative and then orally retell or comment on it in their own words" (Curriculum Corporation, 1997, p. 22). The following criteria can be used to test students' reading accuracy, fluency and comprehension, whether the student (Curriculum Corporation, 1997, p. 22):
- relates the information in their own words;
- identifies key events or features of the text;
- clearly and logically sequences ideas.

E. Reading Self-assessment

Reading self-assessment was suggested by the Australian Curriculum Studies Association (as cited in Brady & Kennedy, 2005) as one of the most important principles when adopting assessment strategies. Students need to monitor their own progress and move towards successful independent learning. Learning will be more effective when the learners actively engaged and make more contribution to their own learning (Bowell & Heap, 2001). Research (Kulm, 1994) suggests that "students who are able to evaluate their own thinking and learning processes have higher achievement" (p. 73). As students will not automatically have the skills to undertake self-assessment, it is important for the teacher to provide models and demonstrations of learning, e.g., samples of learning logs and journals for students to record their reading progress (see Appendix A and B).

F. Reading Portfolios

Reading portfolios keep all the reading work samples of students over time. It shows a student's development in learning reading skill on accuracy, fluency, and comprehension. The teacher gives a summative assessment and comment on students' reading progress based on the work samples collected in their reading portfolios. The greatest advantage of portfolios is the creation of the diagnostic, formative, and summative record at the same time (Kulm, 1994). Through assessing students' reading portfolios, the teacher can get a rich and comprehensive picture of students' reading abilities, and can communicate the findings with students and parents.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this study, the Year Three classroom where the planned reading assessment was applied into practice consisted of twenty-one students, eleven boys and ten girls. All of them were around ten years old. Every morning, the teacher listened to some students reading picture books aloud one by one. She gave the students immediate formative feedback. Notes were also taken in the form of comments or daily assessments as evidence of the improvement of students'

reading skill. Tests of word recognition lists, sentence completion, and text comprehension were used twice a week this term. Reading self-assessment was undertaken by students writing a journal named *Me as a reader* (see Appendix B: Guideline 1). Reading portfolios were recorded for all students to keep track their everyday learning progress. Next will report and analyze the findings in relation to the strategies used in this plan. When citing a participant, the participant will be coded as "P".

A. Tests of Word Recognition Lists, Sentence Completion, and Text Comprehension

Students were tested twice a week on word recognition lists, sentence completion, and text comprehension. The classroom teacher followed a word list book entitled *100 Magic Words* to test students' word recognition, and used a reading comprehension book to test sentence and text comprehension. In each test, students were given 10 words to read aloud to the teacher, and a reading text comprehension sheet to complete. The teacher walked from one student to another, gave the student immediate feedback and took note on his or her performance. These performances were recorded in their own portfolio. Nearly all students in this class completed tasks of the same level in the textbooks so that they could be tested at the same time in the class.

B. Oral Reading and Retelling

Students were divided into different reading levels according to their results in a reading assessment at the beginning of the year. Everyday students were given one or two picture books in their levels to read aloud to the teacher individually. If the student had read all the books in that level, he/she would then move to read picture books in the next level. Listening to students reading aloud and retelling were ongoing assessment strategies that the classroom teacher usually used. They built the context of the assessment and helped the teacher to gain a general idea on the development of students' reading skills. Most of students in this class (17 out of 21) could read well and regularly moved to read books of next level. Only 4 out of 21 students (3 boys and 1 girl) struggled to read fluently. They were even one or two levels behind others. This was because these students often missed the classes for the reasons of travelling, holiday or sickness.

C. Reading Self-assessment

During one lesson, students were required to self-assess their reading skill by writing a journal named *Me as a reader* (see Appendix B: Guideline 1). Through reflecting and answering the guided questions, students gained a better understanding on what they viewed themselves as readers and how to improve their reading skill. Most of students (15 out of 21) completed this self-assessment journal. Five students (2 boys and 3 girls) even did beautifully. One participant responded with the following statement:

I think I am a good reader. I feel like that I can read everything. But sometimes I do not understand them. I like reading funny stories, because they make me laugh. I have found that books without pictures are difficult to read, because it makes me bored by too many words. I want to read 100 books this year. I think I need my parents to explain the meaning of the books (P A).

This student has developed a high level of reading skill and she also has an ability of self-assessing her development. This can be seen from the following features in her writing:

- very neat handwriting;
- very good grammar;
- only a few spelling mistakes;
- very logical to express ideas;

However, some students (about 6 students) found it difficult to complete this assessment. They even could not complete this journal. This was shown by a response of a participant:

I think I am a reader. I like reading stories. I think I need help (P B).

This might be because they were not familiar with self-assessing reading skill in this way. Another reason might be due to their low ability in writing.

D. Reading Portfolios

Students' reading performances were recorded in their portfolio, which included notes made through reading aloud and retelling, scores from tests, and journals by writing a reading self-assessment. Students' portfolios will be presented to their parents at the end of term. Their parents could also check their child's portfolio at any time in order to know their child's learning progress. The teacher divided students into groups according to the records of their portfolio in order to work on the same problems they had. The students thus did not have to work on the areas that they had already known. This group work was done once a week.

V. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the students' performances on reading assessment in this practice, this section will make recommendations to enhance the effectiveness of assessing students' reading abilities and learning progress. They are listed as follows:

1. When planning an assessment, students' diverse backgrounds and abilities have to be considered. The difficulty of the assessment has to accord with students' abilities. It should not be so easy for students to lose interest, while it should not be too difficult for them to complete.

2. The real practice may not be as successful as what has expected. A wide range of situations should be considered as fully as possible when planning. The teacher also has to prepare to deal with many unpredictable situations.

3. One assessment strategy can never be effective in monitoring students' learning. A wide range of assessment strategies should be used in order to closely reflect students' reading ability.

4. More assessment strategies need to be further researched in order to suit students' diverse backgrounds.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study has explored the reading assessment in a primary classroom through the procedure of planning, practising and reflecting. In conclusion, this reading assessment was planned well. It covered both formative and summative assessment, and evaluated both in general and specific. It assessed students' reading accuracy, fluency, and comprehension, which were the most important dimensions of reading skills that the teacher needs to know about students' learning. Most of students performed well, and gender differences were not found obvious in the performances of this assessment. The findings confirmed that careful planning was essential for effectively assessing students' learning and the students' different English reading and writing abilities should be considered in deciding the difficulty of the plan. This study thus made many recommendations to assist primary school teachers to make a reading assessment plan.

This research could be further developed if the following two issues, which arose from this study, were explored. One is that more strategies can be planned, practised, and evaluate their effectiveness. The other is that this reading assessment plan is practised in different year level classrooms in order to see if this leads to different results. An extensive amount of research still needs to be undertaken in order to provide teachers with the most effective assessment strategy to monitor students' learning progress. This would be a worthwhile goal particularly given the long-term benefits for both students and teachers.

APPENDIX A. GUIDELINES FOR KEEPING RECORDS USING LEARNING LOGS

Guideline 1: My reading record

TABLE II
MY READING RECORD

Titles and authors of books	Read to _____ Signed _____	Completion and pages: _____ Signed _____	Genre	Rating: Excellent Good Satisfied	Feelings about the book

Guideline 2: Drop everything and read (Rhodes, 1993, p. 46)

How much time did you spend reading during DEAR time today?
a) All the time; b) Most of the time; c) Some of the time; d) Not at all
If you did not spend all the time reading, why didn't you?
What will help you so that you will spend all your time reading next time we have DEAR time?

APPENDIX B. GUIDELINES FOR REFLECTING READING JOURNALS

Guideline 1: Me as a reader (Badger, Dilena, Peters, Webster, and Weeks, 1991, p. 68)

What do you think about yourself as a reader?
What kinds of books do you enjoy? Why?
What kinds of books do you find difficult? Why?
What challenges in reading could you set yourself this year?
What help will you need to achieve them?
What will you need to do yourself to achieve them?

Guideline 2: A structure of writing journals (Brady & Kennedy, 2005, p. 68)

My plan is _____

I found difficult _____

I enjoyed _____

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Realia as Carriers of National and Historical Overtones

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Abstract—**This article considers the strategies of translating realia. In the theory of translation, realia are words and phrases that designate objects and concepts closely linked with a particular national culture. Realia are frequently used in the products of the mass media. The main features of realia are their national and historical overtones. The task of the translator is to maintain these national and historical overtones in the target text. The translator must analyze the culture-specific elements of realia in the source text and re-define their place in the target context.**

Index Terms—**realia, traductology, headlines, background information, nonequivalent vocabulary, translator, methods of translation**

I. INTRODUCTION

According to L. Barkhudarov (1975) the system of linguistic meanings, in any language, represents the outer as well as inner world of a person, i.e. encompasses practical experience of a group of people speaking the same particular language. If the practical experience of groups of people speaking different languages is the same, so are the notions expressed in these languages. The main challenge that a translator faces in the process of translation is when a reference in the source language is made to a situation absent in the experience of the group of people speaking the target language, i.e.,when the source language contains so called realia (Barkhudarov, 1975, p. 94).

The notion of realia, in its modern sense, did not exist in times of Vinay, J. P. and Darbelnet J. In the theory that dates back to 1958, they speak of "the differences of metalinguistic character" and describe them as follows: "they represent a combination of the relations connecting social, cultural and psychological phenomena to linguistic structures". According to them, these "cultural and metalinguistic differences" enclose craft, measuring units, social life, schools and universities background information (Vinay, J. P. & Darbelnet J. 1958, p. 259).

According to the definition offered by L. Barkhudarov (1975), realia represent a part of background information, implying specific historic facts and information about the state structure, the peculiarities of the geographic environment, concepts of ethnography and folklore. In the theory of translation, the words or expressions denoting the objects of material culture and closely connected to a particular nation's culture are called realia. The peculiarities connected with the translation of these elements must be taken into consideration in the process of translation (Barkhudarov 1975, p. 94).

II. METHODOLOGY

Our paper combines interdisciplinary and comparative methodologies that will enable to show the essence of the realia. The interpretative approach to text analysis implies interaction between the text and its reader. This kind of analysis emphasizes the mental activities of the reader who is engaged in building the world of the text, which is based on his/her background knowledge of the world in general.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Realia are very common in mass media; therefore knowledge and awareness of socio-political realia is indispensible for a translator of these kinds of texts (these are concepts related to administrative-territorial arrangement of a country). This kind of realia are translated by means of transcription/transliteration, as well as by means of descriptive translation and using the method of selecting appropriate analogues: La chambre des communes - თემთა პალატა - House of Commons, Le secrétaire général - გენერალური მდივანი - Secretary General, La cour des comptes - კონტროლის პალატა - The Chamber of Control.

Realia represent the symbols carrying the overtones of national and historic distinctiveness. Rendering this very distinctiveness is the most challenging task performed by a translator. Since any element of realia is a part of the main

text, appropriate interpretation of these realia into the relevant target language is one of the prerequisites of adequate translation. For example:

• François Bayrou nomme un "shadow cabinet" (Le Point 21/09/2010) / François Bayrou forms a "shadow cabinet"/ – საფრანგეთის დემოკრატიული მოძრაობის ლიდერი "ჩრდილოვან კაბინეტს" ქმნის /The leader of French Democratic Movement forms a "shadow cabinet"/ ფრანსუა ბეირუ ალტერნატიულ მთავრობას ქმნის /François Bayrou will launch an alternative government/;

• Bartolone: "pas question que l'Assemblée recule" sur le mariage homosexuel (Le Point 02/12/2012) /Bartolone: "The Assembly will not back gay marriage"/ - საფრანგეთის სოციალისტური პარტიის თავჯდომარე აცხადებს, რომ ეროვნული ასამბლეა ჰომოსექსუალთა ქორწინების საკითხთან დაკავშირებით უკან დახევას არ აპირებს /The head of the French Socialist Party declares that the National Assembly is not going to compromise on the issue of gay marriage/.

Both titles contain political realia; British element of realia "shadow cabinet" is used in the first example, an analogue of which does not exist in the French political reality. Accordingly, the French journalist tries to preserve the peculiarity of this element of realia expressing it by means of transcription in the title of the French article. We think the Georgian reader needs some explanation of this element of realia. "Shadow Cabinet" means an alternative government, which, as a rule, is formed by the leaders of the opposition political forces and the aim of forming it is to control the government. The members of a shadow cabinet shadow or mark each individual member of the government. The idea is that shadow cabinet becomes a legitimate government if and when their party gets into government. We present two versions of translation of the title: in the first case, we try to preserve the peculiarity of the given element of realia, as long as it is present in the French title; in the second case, the generalization of the element of realia is given in the form of "alternative government". In this particular case, we prefer the second translation of the title, offering full information disclosure to the reader, even at the expense of overshadowing the overtones of the element of realia. Besides, we define who "François Bayrou" is. In the first version of the Georgian translation of the title, unlike the French title, his name is not mentioned, instead a reference is made to his position. In the second example, French element of realia "L'Assemblée" is used, which, without any further explanation, is absolutely understandable for French readers, but not for the majority of Georgian readers. The French element of realia given in the title refers to the French "National Assembly", i.e., lower house of the Parliament of France, which is expected to discuss the issue of gay marriage. Instead of the name of the person (Bartolone) the translation uses the position held by the person, as it was done in the case of the first example, making the task of understanding the text easier for Georgian readers.

It is the translator who decides on the strategy of translating realia. A single element of realia can be translated in two or three different ways and all of the translations can be correct, if they accurately convey the meaning of the word or the word-combination.

Some scholars determine realia to be a particular category of "nonequivalent expressive vocabulary". V. Kostomarov and E. Vereshagin (1990) define "nonequivalent vocabulary" as follows: "these words and word-combinations are used to denote the notions of a nation which are unfamiliar to another one. they are associated with specific cultural elements existing within a particular culture but those that cannot be found in another; They also include the words that cannot be translated into a target language using one single word, that have no equivalents in another language" (Kostomarov & Vereshagin, 1990, p. 53).

According to L. Barkhudarov (1975) "nonequivalent vocabulary" mainly includes the following groups of words:

1. Words that denote the objects, concepts and situations nonexistent in the practical experience of the groups of people speaking other languages.

2. Words that denote the objects characteristic of the material and spiritual culture of a particular nation. For example, national dishes, clothes, shoes, etc.

3. Words and set expressions, denoting the political institutions and social events characteristic of a particular nation (Barkhudarov, 1975, p. 93).

It should be noted that the term - "nonequivalent vocabulary" – is used only in the sense that no equivalent of a given lexical unit exists in the vocabulary of the other language, though V. Kostomarov and E.Vereshagin consider that it does not mean that they cannot be translated, because any concept or notion can be expressed in virtually any language (Kostomarov & Vereshagin, 1990, p. 53).

However, L. Barkhudarov (1975) believes that it is not always easy to determine in which cases a word can be considered as belonging to "nonequivalent vocabulary", because some products of translation referred to as occasional equivalents can be formed as set expressions (Barkhudarov, 1975, p. 95).

This was the case of how some words were established in the Georgian language: იმპიჩმენტი /Impeachment/, თემთა პალატა /House of Commons/, სპიკერი /speaker/, etc. As a result, the English and French vocabulary can no longer be considered as "Nonequivalent vocabulary". For example:

- *უმრავლესობა პრეზიდენტის იმპიჩმენტის საკითხის დაყენებას არ აპირებს[1] /The parliamentary majority do not intend to raise the issue of the impeachment of the president/* - G éorgie: la majorit é parlementaire n'envisage pas d'engager une proc édure de mise en accusation du Pr ésident de la R épublique /Georgia: parliamentary majority do not intend to initiate the indictment against the President of the Republic/; La majorit é parlementaire n'entend pas d éclencher la proc édure d'impeachment du Pr ésident Saakashvili /The parliamentary majority do not intend to initiate the impeachment of President Saakashvili/.

We present two versions of the translation of the title. The word "impeachment" belongs to "nonequivalent vocabulary", which was originally calqued into the Georgian Language. Impeachment is a formal procedure implied in a constitutional law and envisaging legal proceedings against a high official accused of unlawful activity. The calque of the word is not widely used in the French language and is generally expressed as "la mise en accusation"/"indictment"/, though in some cases it is calqued (la proc édure d'impeachment/impeachment/).

In L. Barkhudarov's opinion (1975) the absence of special meaning in the form of a word or a set expression in the vocabulary of a particular language does not mean that it is impossible to express the concept by linguistic means of the language. Even though a concept might be missing in the particular language system, it is always possible to convey the meaning of the contents using a range of means (Barkhudarov, 1975, p. 96).

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

According to G. Tomakhin (1997), before starting translation, it is necessary to gain awareness of an unknown element of realia included in the source text, we must determine its place in the given context, how the author tries to convey it and what methods he uses to make the semantic content and connotative meaning of the given element of realia understandable for the reader. Most often it is foreign realia describing the reality unfamiliar to the target language that need to be processed thoroughly as it is described above. As for the national realia, they do not require any kind of processing, for example, "ჩურჩხელა"/"churchkhela", for the Georgian reader does not require any explanation, as well as "mistral" – for the French reader and "Tower" – for the English reader. International realia, on the other hand, do not require as much effort to make them understandable as national realia do, because due to the range of their dissemination, the reader is supposed to have a certain idea of the realia and their national origin (Tomakhin, 1997, p. 17).

S. Vlahov and S. Florin (1986) consider that two major difficulties arise in the course of translation of realia. These are: 1. lexical vacuum, i.e., absence of the equivalent or analogue in the target language, due to the fact that there is no object (referent) denoted by the given element of realia in the reality of the reader of the target language and 2. the necessity to render the overtones of the element of realia along with its semantic meaning (Vlahov & Florin 1986, p. 89).

In V. Komisarov's opinion (1990) some of the realia have a single equivalent in the given target language, for example, "La chambre des communes" - "თემთა პალატა"/"House of Commons"/. A single equivalent means that in most cases the lexical unit given in the source text is translated as one and the same lexical unit into the target language, i.e., the difficulties of translating such an element of realia does not actually arise (Komisarov, 1990, p. 175).

There are several ways of translating realia. L. Barkhudarov (1975) suggests following methods of translating realia: transliteration/transcription, coining a new word, approximate translation, hyponymic translation, calquing, creating a semantic neologisms, replacement of the given realia and periphrastic translation.

The methods used in the process of translating the newspaper articles concerning politics, are generally confined to transcription, transliteration, calque, semi-calque, approximate translation, hyponymic translation and contextual translation. Other methods are rarely used in terms of translating political realia.

1. Transcription and transliteration mean introduction of a given element of realia into a text using graphic units of the target language through achieving maximum possible resemblance of the phonetic means of the target language to that of the source language. In case of transliteration, a word used in the source text is introduced into the target language via graphic form of the target language, whereas in case of transcription, sound form of a given word is taken into consideration. Le croissant - კრუასანი /Croissant/, le Bundestag - ბუნდესტაგი /Bundestag/, le Matignon - მატინიონი /Matignon/ (the official residence of the French Prime Minister), know-how - ნოუ-ჰაუ.

- Le Bundestag se prononce à nouveau sur l'aide à la Gr èce[2] /Bundestag repeatedly launched the issue of providing financial support to Greece/ - გერმანიის ბუნდესტაგი საბერძნეთის დახმარების საკითხს კვლავ განიხილავს /The German Bundestag still reviewing the issue of providing financial support to Greece/.In the translation of the title given above, the element of German political realia "Bundestag" is given in the form of transcription but the word "German" is added, so that the reader has no difficulties in perception of the situation.

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[1] http://news.ge/ge/news/story/37440
[2] http://eventsmonde.com

In case of a successful transcription, the translator manages to express both the content and the overtones of the given element of realia. In case the target language lacks the sound, which sounds similar to that used in the element of realia of the source language, combination of letters is used to achieve the resemblance to the corresponding sound. Translators tend to use transcription quite often; however, the use of this method depends on the recipient of the target text. The translator should take into consideration the extent of spread of the given element of realia and whether it is known to the target reader, not to throw the reader into confusion. For example, when the words "პიარი" /"PR"/ or "ლობისტები"/"lobbyists"/ are used, the concepts are generally understandable for young readers and cause almost no misunderstanding, however, if these concepts are used in the magazines or newspapers, the readers of which might be elderly people, the translator has to think about whether it is relevant to use the transcription of these concepts and choose to replace them with more neutral concepts, such as "საზოგადოებრივი ურთიერთობები" /"public relations"/ and "ზეწოლის ჯგუფები" "pressure groups".

2. Calque and calquing - allows introduction of a given element of realia into the target language through preserving its semantics as much as possible. However, preservation of the semantics of an element of realia does not mean preservation of its distinctiveness and overtones as the process involves expression of a part of the word by means of the target language. A notable example is the word "ცათამბჯენი" /"skyscraper"/ which represents a calque of the English word "skyscraper" (French: le gratte-ciel). The method of calquing is common in translating proverbs when, for different reasons, it is necessary to preserve not only their ideas, but also their semantic grounds. For example: Une hirondelle ne fait pas le printemps - ერთი მერცხლის ჭიკჭიკი გაზაფხულს ვერ მოიყვანსო /One swallow does not make a spring/.

3. Semi-calque – represents a method allowing borrowing of a part of word when the word consists of elements of both the target and source languages. For example, "მესამე რაიხი" /"Third Reich"/ - Le Troisième Reich, "რუსეთის სახელმწიფო დუმა" /"Russian State Duma"/ - La Douma d'État russe. The cases of calques and semi-calques finding a firm ground and spreading in a given language is quite frequent but they still remain as "exotic word" as their denotations remain unfamiliar to the readers of the target language texts.

4. Hyponymic translation – this method of translating realia involves replacement of a concrete concept by a general concept in the process of translating realia and is mainly used in cases when a translator's task is to render an unknown, unfamiliar element of realia to the target reader. The basis of the hyponymic translation is the method of generalization. The element of realia is expressed by a linguistic unit having a broader meaning. The method of generalization is a widely used method, which is used to avoid the application of the method of transcription and makes it possible to replace an element of realia by a concept that does not make a big difference in the given context. For example:

5. არჩევნებს პოლონეთის სეიმის სადამკვირვებლო მისიის ჯგუფი დააკვირდება[3] /The election will be overseen by a group of the monitoring mission of the Sejm of the Republic of Poland/ - Le Parlement polonais va envoyer une mission d'observation électorale en Géorgie /The Polish parliament will send an electionl observation mission to Georgia

The method used in the translation of the element of Polish realia included in the given title is hyponymic translation. "პოლონეთის სეიმი" /"the Sejm of the Republic of Poland"/ is translated as "Le Parlement polonaise"/"the Polish parliament"/, thus making the understanding of the title easier for the French reader.

6. Approximate translation – is the widely spread method. Using the functional equivalent of an element of realia, causing the same association in the reader as the original text, is quite common. The method is based on selection of a functional equivalent. For example , "Terre Sainte" "წმინდა/აღთქმული მიწა" "Sacred/ Promised Land" i.e., "პალესტინა"/"Palestine"/; "Le pays du soleil levant" – "ამომავალი მზის ქვეყანა" /the Land of the Rising Sun/ i.e. "იაპონია"/"Japan"/.

7. Contextual translation – the method is essentially similar to the approximate translation and is inconsistent with the method of translation based on the usage of a dictionary, since the translation of a word, using this method, results in a word that does not match the equivalents of the word of the source language given in any dictionary. In this case, the translator is focused on the context. This method itself implies replacement of a translation of the word given in a dictionary with a contextual, logically related word. The shortcoming of such a translation is that it completely neglects the element of realia as national overtones and distinctiveness (Barkhudarov 1975, p. 96).

• Angela Merkel, la «Tsarine» de la droite allemande/ Angela Merkel, the "Tsarina" of the German right-wing party/ - ანგელა მერკელი გერმანიის მემარჯვენე პარტიის თავჯდომარედ აირჩიეს /Angela Merkel elected as a chairperson of the German right-wing party/.

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[3] http://www.internet.ge/?l=GE&m=1&sm=0&ID=12064

In the translation of the title given above, the Russian realia "Tsarina" is replaced by a contextual equivalent "თავჯდომარე"/"chairperson" and is not translated as "დედოფალი"/"queen"/. This decision is justified, based on the content of the article.

It should be noted that one of the most common ways of translating realia is transcription. Transcription is widely used in translating common, international and local realia. The advantage of transcription is the maximum laconism that is characteristic of transcription. The product of transcription is, as a rule, followed by a footnote or explanation. Though, experienced translators and theorists often recommend being selective and moderate in using foreign-language words, since, in some cases, rendering the overtones is not the determining factor and risk obscuring semantic meaning of a given element of realia, thus failing to fulfill the communicative function of translation[4]. For example:

• Fukushima: "le gouvernement refuse d'admettre la gravité de la situation"[5] "Fukushima: the government refuses to admit the seriousness of the situation" - იაპონიის მთავრობა არ აღიარებს, რომ ფუკუშიმაზე მდგომარეობა სერიოზულია /The Japanese government does not admit that the situation is very serious at Fukushima/; იაპონიის მთავრობა არ აღიარებს, რომ ფუკუშიმას ატომურ ელექტროსადგურზე მდგომარეობა კრიტიკულია/ The Japanese government does not admit that the situation is critical at the Fukushima nuclear power plant/.

• Un membre palestinien de la Knesset israélienne dénonce la Résolution 1701 des Nations Unies[6]/A Palestinian member of the Israeli Knesset denounces the UN Resolution 1701/ -ისრაელის ქსენეთის პალესტინელი დეპუტატი გმობს გაეროს 1701 რეზოლუციას /A Palestinian member of the Israeli Knesset denounces the UN Resolution 1701/ ისრაელის პარლამენტის პალესტინელი წევრი გმობს გაეროს 1701 რეზოლუციას/A Palestinian member of the Israeli parliament denounces the UN Resolution 1701/.

In the translation of the titles given above, the realia are given in the form of transcription. We offer two versions of translation in case of each title; notwithstanding the fact that both elements of realia are more or less well known to the target reader, we think, the second versions of the translation, in which lexical additions are used, convey the essence of the titles with more accuracy.

The use of the method of transliteration in translation of realia is less frequent. Transliteration can only be used in the translation of the concepts that have to deal with social-political life or of proper nouns[7].

However, due to the similarity between the methods of transcription and transliteration, it is very difficult to distinguish them from each other. We should remember that excessive use of transcribed words denoting realia in the target text does not contribute to the preservation of national overtones, but, on the contrary, destroys them and makes the reader stumble upon redundant exotic words at every single step[8]. The use of foreign words in the text is justified only in case when an equivalent of a particular element of realia is absent is the target language.

L. Barkhudarov (1975) believes that, despite the difficulties, translation of realia is possible [...]. Any language holds the possibility of describing a new situation and this possibility is an integral part of any language. It is this very feature of a language that makes it possible to describe the specificities of the life of a nation, which have no analogue in the reality of other countries and nations, by means of the language of another nation (Barkhudarov, 1975, p. 98).

In our era of globalization, sometimes realia of one nation are easily transferred in another nation, for example, a lot of political realities were nonexistent in our country, such as Prime Minister, the Ombudsman, the House of Justice , NGOs, etc. that, nowadays, have found a firm ground in Georgian reality and are well-established in our country. Though, it should be also noted that some of the elements of the Soviet realia are established in the French language and they serve the purpose of expressing the realia that stand for the realities of the former republics of the Soviet Union. For example:

• სააკაშვილი-ჩვენი შეცდომაა, რომ ყოფილი "გაიშნიკი" მუშაობდა სისტემაში, გაყიდა ინფორმაცია და გაიქცა[9] /Saakashvili - It is our fault that the former "GAI inspector" was employed by the system, he sold the information and ran/ - SaakaShvili: c'est notre erreur d'avoir recruté un ancien gaïchnik dans le système pénitentiaire du pays, qui avait empoché de l'argent en vendant des vidéos des abus de la prison et s'était enfui / Saakashvili: it is our mistake to have hired a former Gaichnik in the prison system of the country, who had pocketed the money by selling videos of the prisoner abuse and ran/.

In the process of translation of the title given above, it becomes necessary to use lexical addition to provide the French readers with the detailed information about the content of the article. The title specifies that the matter concerns the footage depicting facts of prison torture in the prisons of Georgia that is not indicated in the Georgian title. As for

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[4] http://referat.ru/referats/view/23656
[5] http://www.humanite.fr/monde/477656
[6] http://fr.dir.groups.yahoo.com/group/islam_jeunesse_international/message/16964
[7] http://rudocs.exdat.com/docs/index-128594.html
[8] http://referat.ru/referats/view/23656
[9]   http://www.ambebi.ge/politika/61335-saakashvili-chveni-shecdomaa-rom-yofili-qgaishnikiq-mushaobda-sistemashi-gayida-informacia-da-gaiqca.html

the element of realia, "Gaichnik[10] - /GAI inspector/ we decided to use its transcription, since it proved impossible to find a French equivalent using of which would not result in the color of the given element of realia to fade.

Cultural differences influence the translator's strategy. The realia denoting political and economic structures of a particular state run the risk of misleading the reader, since the political institutions and the political-economic functions vary from country to country. For example: "L'Administration américaine" /The U.S. administration/ - in general, stands for the executive government of the USA that, unlike European states, is divided into departments. A head of each department is called a "secretary", for example : "Le secrétaire à la Défense" ("The Secretary of Defense") performs the duties of the Minister of Defense in the USA reality, so it would be a mistake to translate "Le secrétaire à la Défense"/"The Secretary of Defense" into Georgian as "თავდაცვის მინისტრი"/"Minister of Defense"/.

• Obama envisage Kerry comme secrétaire à la Défense, Rice comme secrétaire d'État[11] /Obama considering John Kerry for job of defense secretary, Rice - for job of Secretary of State/ - ობამა აპირებს სენატორ კერის თავდაცვის მდივნის პოსტი შეათავაზოს, სუზან რაისი კი საგარაუდოდ სახელმწიფო მდივნის თანამდებობას დაიკავებს / Obama is going to propose the post of the Secretary of Defense to Senator Kerry, Susan Rice is likely to be appointed US Secretary of State/.

• La garde des sceaux aurait demandé d'enquêter après une fuite dans la presse-(Le Monde 27.09.2012)/The Keeper of the Seals has asked to investigate press leak case/ - პრესაში ინფორმაციის გაჟონვის შემდეგ, საფრანგეთის იუსტიციის მინისტრმა გამოძიების დაწყება მოითხოვა /Following the leak to the press, the French Minister of Justice ordered the investigation of the case/.

The first title includes elements of American realia. We think it is necessary to preserve them in the translation. In this case, the explanations are not needed, because these elements of realia are well -known to the Georgian reader. Thus, the translation preserves the elements of realia "Secretary of State" and "Secretary of Defense" and we do not use "Prime Minister" and "The Minister of Defense" instead. The second title includes a French realia: "La Garde des Sceaux" ("The Keeper of the Seals") – a title used only in a few countries, including France. Consequently, in the process of translation it is necessary to use the method of generalization, in order to make the element of realia understandable for the Georgian reader. Naturally, in this case the overtones of the element of realia are lost, though the content is preserved.

Lack of knowledge and unawareness of the realia included in the source text is one of the essential difficulties a translator can face. Also it is difficult to translate the words the meanings of which might seem familiar at first glance, but their meanings have changed since the publication of the original text. However, the translator should not fall under the influence of a foreign world, and should not be looking for an element of realia in every single word. We must remember that using an element of realia the author does not always try to emphasize the essence of the element of realia and does not always intend to make the readers focus on it. Preservation of both the connotation and the overtones of a given text in the translation is as important as rendering the semantic meaning of a word. That is why the preference should always be given to the target readers and their pragmatic and aesthetic nature should be taken into consideration.

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[10] traffic inspector
[11] http://vigiinfos.canalblog.com/archives/2012/11/14/25576790.html

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Gender Semiotics and the 21st Century Feminist Utopia: Implications on National Security and Socio-cultural Development

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Abstract—The female gender has over the years envisioned a society where she is accorded a modicum of recognition. She has fought and continued to fight for equality between the genders. Her aspiration for a balance in power has only remained in what appears to be a utopia, rather than what is reality. And over the years, there has been a triggered-inadvertent battle between the genders, male and female. Hence, this article is intended to investigate the progress that the various feminist conjectures have undergone in an attempt to create a perfect world for the female genus. We consider the battle of the sexes the basis for global insecurity and socio-cultural underdevelopment as we launch an exploration through the history of women and women agitations from its earliest periods to the present, and thereafter conclude that in the future the ruling/heading gender will become 'the subjugated' (not in physical strength) but both in the domestic and the public spheres. We have investigated the various waves of feminism, starting from the first wave, to the second and then the third. It has been discovered that the female has moved from the domestic space to the public space, a transformation that is so drastic even in recent times. Thus, we conclude that, someday the story of "who's in charge now" will be changed to "who's subjugated then". In this article, therefore, we lay bare those semiotic proclivities that reveal the anticipated victory of the female gender in the battle of the sexes. The Feminist Standpoint Theory in addition to Semiotics is the framework used in presenting this ambition.

Index Terms—wave change, relevance, public space, domesticity, social order

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is either verbal or nonverbal. Much of the gendered language in our societies comes in form of the nonverbal. Usually we perform gendered acts unconsciously and do not regard them as gender semiotics. Semiotics, as an aspect of language study, deals with a signaling system which could be an index, an icon and/or a symbol (Essien-Eyo and Ottoh, 2011, .pp.79-80).

For Chandler (2002), semiotics "involves the study not only of what we refer to as 'signs' in everyday speech, but of anything which stands for something else" (p.1). He adds that, in semiotics, signs take the form of words, images, sounds, gestures and objects. Eco (1976) defines semiotics as being "concerned with everything that can be taken as a sign"(p. 7).

In our contemporary society, semiotics is not studied in isolation because it is the study of how meanings are made and how reality is represented. Therefore, semiotics entails meaning-making constructs and representations in any form, texts and/or media which could be found in every interactive piece (Chandler, 2002, pp. 1-2).

Gender, on the other hand, is viewed by scholars as one aspects of identity that people learn through interaction with others. Research has shown that in most societies, gender is an all important subject that is linked with the social order as it were. Gender therefore is communicated by parents first at home, then the society at large. So, children become aware of their gender at a tender age, and they are repeatedly reminded of the roles they ought to play in a society that they form.

Most often, we are confronted with situations where little girls tell other children of their age or older people, "Sit like a woman". This is a gender sign signaling roles that the girl child should play as a female. In fact, an incident occurred where a little girl of about four years told a grown man who visited them in their house to sit like a woman. In such a case, what do we make out of it? For this little girl, anybody is a 'woman', a misdirection of gender meanings. She couldn't distinguish between the male and the female genders. Consider a little girl telling an adult man, "Uncle, sit like a woman", and the man just laughs and never knows what the girl's parents and indeed society had created in the mind of the girl. The constancy of her being told to sit like a woman has made her conscious of that social behaviour and so anyone is vulnerable to her as she tries to replicate the values Mummy or Daddy has instilled in her.

However, in some cultures, the Western in particular, there is no such norm, although royalty have their way of sitting but this is not predicated upon gender as it were, but class. For the white bourgeoisie, sitting style distinguishes

them from others; therefore sitting style is classist, not gender based. Hence, it is said that different cultures communicate different gender signs and roles as what may be obtainable in one culture might not be in the another (Wood, 1999), although the kitchen is generally viewed as connected with the girl child who subsequently becomes a woman, and thus, most times we hear semiotic labels such as, "You should be in the kitchen; you are a girl".

In this article moreover, by going through all the epochs, from the time when women were not allowed to function in the public to the present where they are already functioning and gradually taking over, we suppose that the female species has undergone transformations by leaving domesticity and 'invading' and consequently occupying the public sphere which was averred to be for the males. This has made us envisage a future that would be the other way round, which is woman-controlled- a society where the male begs for relevance in both the private (domestic) and the public spaces. We hereby submit our supposition as premised on the female past, present and the future as we take a tour through the eras.

II. THEORETICAL ORIENTATION

According to Wood (1999), the standpoint theory focuses on how gender, class, and race influence or manipulate the circumstances of individuals' lives, especially their positions in the society and the kind of experiences those positions foster. Wood believes that, the standpoint theory views the common social world as consisting of very different positions within social hierarchies, which invariably portends that, the standpoint an individual occupies in a society guides his or her knowledge, feelings and/or social life (p.58).

In addition, this theory became the basis for the feminist movement theory known as the feminist standpoint theory which is our theoretical consideration in this paper. Feminist standpoint theory makes a contribution to epistemology, methodological debates in the social and natural sciences, philosophy of science, and political activism. The theory emerged in the 1970s, in the first instance, from Marxist feminist and feminist critical theoretical approaches within a range of social scientific disciplines. It has been one of the most influential and debated theories to emerge from second-wave feminist thinking.

The feminist standpoint theory, from its emergence, draws the attention of women to the powerlessness of the female gender. The theory focuses on the re-enactment of the female gender as well as debunking her besmirched place in the society. On the one hand, the feminist standpoint theory sees language as a way of fighting back at the hegemonic tendencies and on the other as positioning the female on the peak of the social order. To clarify this, therefore, the history of the waves in feminists' agitation is summarized in the following section.

III. WAVE CHANGE IN FEMINIST STANDPOINTS

Like every other theory or ideology, feminism has undergone different point of views since its emergence. We consider this according to the various waves and the changes that ensued. Firstly, we attempt the first wave and all the agitations it brought.

A. First Wave Feminists' Perspective

The African, American and indeed most European societies have experienced inequality epochs between the genders, especially before 1925, and in 1960 feminists' agitation (second wave) began again after a 25year hiatus. Feminist ideology had started long before this period. In fact, Wood (1999) claims that the first wave of women's movements started in the 1800s, actually in 1845 with the liberal activists such as Lucretia Coffin Mott, Martha Coffin Wright, Mary Anne McClintock, and Elizabeth Cady Stanton. These women wrote a keynote address collaboratively entitled, 'Declaration of Sentiments', which is modeled after the 'Declaration of Independence' speech to fight for women's right to vote and be represented in the public space. Women of this wave anticipated leaving domesticity to occupying the liberty their male counterparts enjoy out there.

More so, the feminist movement became an academic theory in 1919 with the publication of the British scholar, teacher and early feminist, Virginia Woolf's work, *A room of one's own*, which laid the foundation for the feminist conjecture and in it she declares that "Men have treated women, and continued to treat them as inferior". It is the male, Woolf continues, that defines what it means to be female and who controls the political, economic, social, and literary structures (Bressler, 1994, p.104).

In addition, with the publication of the French writer, Simone de Beauvoir's *The second sex* in 1949, interest in feminist concerns began to increase. Beauvoir declares that the French and Western societies are patriarchal. And like Woolf before her, Beauvoir believes that the male defines what it means to be human. Since the female is not male Beauvoir asserts, she becomes the 'Other', an object whose existence is defined by the male— the dominant being in the society. Beauvoir therefore urges, the woman to break the bonds of patriarchal society and define herself if she wishes to become a significant human being in her own right and to defy male classification as the 'Other' (Bressler, 1994).

Subsequent upon this, the feminists of this era gradually moved from being hushed and inconsequential females, to being assuming and significant women in the society controlled by males. However, this period did not mark the total

transformation of the female; it only signaled the beginning of her change, which also brings about a wave change- the second wave feminism in the 1960.

B. Second Wave Feminists' Standpoint on Gender Inequality

The second wave of the feminist movement started as we mentioned earlier with feminist shakeups between the 1960 and the 1990s. In its emergence, feminist perspective took a different turn as women radically presented and redefined themselves, their roles and rights in the society. This period was characteristic of self reconstruction and assertion. Women got involved in the public sphere and brought traditions into feminism. Although, the first wave accommodated the coexistence between the various sects- liberal and cultural - which are in the wave, the second wave was resistant to accommodation, where it sometimes exists there is tension. The strategies for these feminists were quite different. There was the radical sect which grew out of a social movement called New Left politics. Their perspective, as members in confronting female degradation, was primarily to protest against the Vietnam War, racial discrimination and governmental abuses (Wood, 1999, p. 70).

On and on emerged many sects such as the Student Nonviolent Coordinating Committee (SNCC) in 1964 and the Students for a Democratic Society which materialized in 1965. The radical feminism attained heights and achieved remarkably. There was also the Separatist sect, who, according to Wood (1999), removed themselves from the mainstream culture but foreclosed opportunities to alter dominant social values. These types of feminists do not assume public voice; in fact, that for them was an invasion of the males' space.

The structural feminists, who have almost the same ideologies as the Separatist, sprang up, only that they are less extreme. Lesbian feminists also came up, and their definition was woman-identified. Revalorists emerged later focusing on how to reconstruct, recover, and reenact the female story from *history* to *herstory*. For instance, Karlyn Campbell's book entitled *Man cannot speak for her* (1989a & b) is revalorist because in it the female species is reevaluated and reconstructed.

Also, the womanist faction emerged as an escapist route for most African feminists in order to ameliorate the tensions other sects had created. Many African American feminists have themselves assumed this womanist position in a bid to accommodate their racial and gender identities.

As it is, there is a Power feminism which started in the 90s, this wing of feminism negates or antagonizes the feminist conjecture. In their perspective, women are the ones victimizing themselves, that while the emphasis has been on women victimization and oppression, the woman is not exonerated in her oppression. A well-known scholar of this particular type is Naomi Wolf.

Many other male feminists' movements were in operation, in particular, Profeminists movements, and on the part of the females, we had the female Bra Burning rumour, Ecofeminism, the Backlash etc. Now the question Wood asks is, "Is there a third wave yet?" The next section explores to ascertain whether there is a third wave or not.

C. Third Wave Feminists: Is There a Third Wave Yet?

The question above stems from Julia Wood's (1999) feminist document, *Gendered lives: communication, gender and culture.* For Wood, there wasn't a third wave of the feminist movement as at when she wrote her book in 1999. And although, many gender scholars have written to answer her question on whether there is a third wave, we still feel it is appropriate to do a review of to the agenda of the proposed third wave feminism which we suppose had existed before Wood's book. Subsequent to that, we rather ask, "Is there a fourth wave yet? But to proffer an answer to Wood, we can say that there has been a third wave feminism in practice before the 1999.

The third wave of the feminists' movement which actually started in the 1990s is more radical in their ideologies and it seeks to broaden the parameters of feminism. Rebecca Walker and Amy Richards are two well known third wave feminists whose activism has attracted a lot of attention. The movement has reinforced and reengineered the inclusion of some groups of women who have previously been excluded as a result of race, class, and sexual orientation and prejudice, etc.

In Krista Jacob's commentary on analyzing the third wave feminism, published on "The feminist eZine", "the third wave feminism provides a forum for illuminating the multifaceted experiences of young women - a group that is consistently misrepresented by older generations, the mainstream media, and other avenues". This wave, unlike the first and second, wants the woman to occupy the leading positions as Presidents of countries, Executive Directors of companies, Principal Officers at government and private establishments, Governors of states, Mayors, Senators, Law makers and so on. The quest of this wave is to institute the woman as a force to reckon with, and as a human made by God to have 'dominion' on the earth. The woman in this school sees nothing as impossible and the society today mostly terms the power such women possess as 'bottom power'.

Bottom power is a Nigerian coinage used to describe a woman's ability to control the man and/or situations by satisfying man's sexual urge. With this, there is a belief that man can be fooled and controlled. Thus, most times, when a woman wields authority or is in power and even politics, she seemed to be using the so called bottom power to sustain it; this allegation most often than not scares and wards off women's participation in politics and power control. It definitely makes women who want to maintain their dignity, shy away from occupying the public space, talk less of invading it. Moreover, 'bottom power' is a situation where the man (society) believes the woman gives what she has (her body) to achieve her goals.

As it is, the woman is gradually moving upward unperturbed by those ascriptions and hegemonic stereotypes. This is where we conclude that while the man is busy accusing the woman of sexual impropriety, the man is not innocent and therefore cannot claim ignorance as the game of sex is two-sided. However, society is experiencing a turnaround between the sexes and we ask this time, is there a fourth wave already? What might be the agenda of this wave? Will the feminists in this school see the female as the lord of the male? What really will be on their "To do" list this time? While pondering on this question, the concepts of gender and sexuality should also be considered.

IV. Gender Identity vs. Sexual Identity

According to Ehrlich (2004), debates over the nature of gender identity and its social construction in recent years informed research in sociolinguistics generally and feminist linguistics more specifically (p.323). Gender identity, being quite different from biological sex, refers to how a particular culture differentiates between masculine and feminine social roles, whereas sexual identity is what makes a person either male or female at birth. Sexual identity is complex because of the way different cultures view it. For Ting-Toomey, gender identity refers to "the meanings and interpretations we hold concerning our self-image and expected other-images of 'femaleness' and 'maleness" (Samovar, Porter and McDaniel, 2007).

The controversy over equality has created tension among the sexes. Gender roles as defined by the society are of no help at all so more often than not, people, especially the females, contemplate whether they fit the designation of their culture as 'inferior' and the male 'as superior'. Different sexual orientations make people think differently. This is why a five year old boy sees himself as superior to a seven year old girl – an orientation that is very predominant in Africa. This is not to say that other parts of the world do not experiment sexuality. The society we find ourselves constructs inequality by assigning certain roles and values to males and to the females.

V. The Woman in the Public Space: Past, Present and the Future

The term *public* has been used differently to mean different things. There are diverse connotations to it. It meant different things according to the context in which it appeared. For the males, it was constructive but for the females it was a destructive term. Moreover, any woman found occupying any public position was doing so to attract men to sleep with her and she was called a "public woman". As a result, in the recent past, husbands forbade their wives from participating in the public space. This went on for a long period of time before the emergence of the first wave of the feminist movement in the 1840s (Matthew, 1992; Wood, 1999).

Arthur M. Schlesinger Sr., in 1920, was one of the earliest historians that questioned the exclusion of women from history texts. By this time, any woman who was seen operating in the affairs of the society was doing so to her own detriment. And she was described as the 'public woman' (as we pointed out earlier) with a derogatory connotation of prostitution, that is, a woman who has sold out her reputation, one who shares her private with the public – men, thus the term 'public woman'. Conversely, a public man did not have the same connotation; rather, it carried positive associations - an important personality in the society who has contributed productively to the affairs of the state.

Gradually, that view is grinding down. Women all over the world are now nation builders. They are involved in decision-making and taking, adjudication of justice, administration of government policies etc. They even rule as presidents of countries- the example of Julia Gillard, the 27th Prime Minister of Australia and the leader of the Australian Labour Party since 2010. She is the first woman to hold either office. Another example is Ellen Johnson Sirleaf of Liberia, who is the 24th and present president of Liberia. Sirleaf had served as a Minister of Finance, from 1979-80, under William Tolbert. Also, Ngozi Okonjo-Iweala, a globally renowned economist who is well known for her twin-tenure as the Nigeria's Finance Minister and economic coordinator, and one of the World Bank directors for several years, and many other females who made their stories out of 'his-story'.

Increasingly, femininity is facing out as that term is connected with frailty, unassertiveness, and unintelligence. Today, women in leadership are patriotic and assuming. They have completely defaced gender role ascription and have dared to do anything in the public space. This we can also see in the literatures of female writers generally.

According to Martin and Nakayama (2005), "feminist scholars have long insisted that the history of the women has been obliterated, marginalized, or erased"(pp.66-67). Thus, there should be histories of the female past, as gender histories emphasize the importance of gender in understanding the past, particularly the role of women in the society. Traditionally, many women were made to focus mostly on the home and domestic concerns. But today they feel tremendous pressure to do the bulk of the housework, reflecting the influence of the past on the present. Therefore, women are constantly reminding themselves of the need to emancipate and participate in the state affairs. To achieve this, they have left home-building in the hands of maids which brings about a new generation of youths with no good home training. In sum, this explains vividly why gender roles assignment has impeded global security and socio-cultural development.

VI. Gender Inequality and Socio-cultural Insecurity

For many years, the social formation in which most societies operate has been a male-dominated one, a patriarchal society where the powerful dominates the powerless, even in the use of language. Language, characteristically,

enunciates gender and this shows that gender is not just a natural and inevitable consequence of one's sex; that it is, rather, a part of the routine, ongoing work of everyday life, mundane and social interaction that is the product of social practice (Eckert & McConnell-Ginet, 2003, p. 5 cited in Paltridge, 2006, p. 32).

It is believed that society has set standards for the sexes; it also has a set of different gender roles from which it wants both the females and the males to operate. The implication is that, when one gender functions as the other, there is a stigma or a tag for that behaviour. Stigmas or stereotypes like *woman wrapper*, a term that also describes a man that is unmanly, that behaves womanly, an effeminate, and on the other hand, a woman or girl who could perform roles averred to men is given a name such as tomboy, hoyden, or romp and even the Nigerian ascription, *man-woman* and so on. Gender roles have defined the identities of individuals over the years. In fact, there are usually Biblical allusions and cultural values/mores to the notion that every sex has its role defined.

Hence, most gender scholars, the male chauvinist, in particular, would want to draw our attention to the Biblical reference that *the man is the head of the home*. We are not unaware of this principle and therefore are not here to debunk the fact; we can only add that as the head, the man's responsibility is that of a lead servant, so that there are no activities, whether domestic or public, that the male should not perform. In addition, a male child should be as responsible to the kitchen as any female and a female, of any age, should be as responsible to any duty as the male.

According to Wood (1999), gender is a social, symbolic creation. It is learned and socially endorsed (p. 22). From childhood, infants have been encouraged to conform to gender roles. In many instances, we hear a parent tell a child 'Sit like a woman', or things like 'Why are you talking like a woman?', or 'Why are climbing a tree?' 'Are you a boy?' etc. depending on the sex of the child. Many instances of these *do not's* are overburdening.

Gender for many may refer to how an individual sees himself or herself in respect to masculinity and/or femininity. In fact, as far as Wood (1999), is concerned, the practice of gender may have been first identified by Mary Wollstonecraft in 1972 as a social character when she declared that most differences between the sexes are socially created, not natural.

Gender, in broad terms, refers to the sex-role identity used by people to emphasize the distinctions between males and females. Although the words "gender" and "sex" are often used interchangeably, sex relates specifically to the biological and physical characteristics which make a person male or female at birth, whereas gender refers to the behaviours associated with members of that sex.

Gender, in recent years, has become a synonym for women rather than a form of shorthand for gender difference and gender conflict. It refers to the meanings that are attached to those differences within culture. In other words, sex is a physical phenomenon, and gender, a cultural and social one.

For many years, scholars have misconstrued sex and gender as synonymous terms, and some scholars maintain that gender reveals how language functions as a symbolic resource to create, and manage personal, social and cultural meanings as well as identities. They also opine that, while sex is the biological, physical, and a functional individual difference between the man and the woman, gender, is a social and cultural construct.

However, gender, understood as the social construct of sex, is the key concept for the feminist. The campaign launched by feminists is based primarily on self-celebration. Hence, gender identity issues emerged as a protest against sexism in the male-dominated societies that we live in. The battle between the two sexes portends great threats and makes a nation vulnerable to danger and socio-cultural insecurity. For the male chauvinists and their sympathizers, females are traditionally defined to occupy the domestic sphere, whereas, the third wave feminists and the supporters of their thought, are more radical as we earlier pointed out, and are advocating and agitating a public space take-on, which means injecting the woman into all public sectors to include private establishments too.

The feminists' agitation and advocacy is a possible threat to socio-cultural and even political development. Their aim is to establish gender equality, but the society which is man-controlled is saying no, as such, both sexes are threatened and have taken up defensive positions which invariably hamper safety and security in the society.

VII. DEATH OF FEMININITY

Very importantly, women the world over and indeed in Africa are the most victimized; yet, they are the same instruments their oppressor, the man, is using to persecute the other woman. Our point in this paper is that, although gender roles are said to be socially ascribed, their ascription is not without the acquiescence of the players (the social actors), female or male. Every actor in a play is usually given a role to perform, yet the actor's ability to assimilate the character's role is pertinent. Therefore, where a role is not adequately handled by the character, in literature, there is said to be a miscast, which means that such a character is ineffective in the role assigned.

To emphasize our position, we want to state that character-role in a play is like the gender roles a society prescribes. Thus, for any character to perform it such must study the script to do as it is written. Roles are not imposed on actors, they are free to choose to play the character or otherwise. This is our focus in this paper. Our argument is that, while the female is an actor performing a script written by the society - which of course is made up of individuals, the males and the females, the role so ascribed can thereby be refuted or debunked if it is a *miscast*. We use *miscast* here to mean any flaccid or wilting role ascribed to the feminine gender which the female sees as not suitable. Everybody is free to do whatever s/he likes. There are no rules or exemptions.

Before now, women were denied most privileges such as assuming any public office as well as showing up in public occasions and/or talking in formal gatherings as these were termed acts of prostitution. In fact, women who walked the street alone were presumed prostitutes or likened to **Jezebel,** the wife of King Ahab in The Bible (Wood 1999). Instances have been where ladies are battered for taking a stroll unaccompanied by a man. And the question remains, why are women these vulnerable? A man could go out any time without any intimidation or molestation yet the woman is not as free. Wood (1999), asserts in addition that, there is usually a space invasion where the female is forced to tolerate unwelcomed sexual conducts.

Matthews (1992), tells us a story of Lizzie Schauer, a young working class woman, "who has been looking for the house of her aunt and had stopped to ask directions of two men. This behaviour as well as the fact that an unaccompanied woman was out at night was presumptive evidence that she was soliciting prostitution in the eyes of the arresting police officers and of course the judge who sent her to the work house"(p. 3). The assumption in the story and indeed other such situations is that, no respectable woman would walk the street at night unescorted by a man. And this assertion is drawn from the fact that the woman is a sex toy/object, or from the fact that the man is the "head" of the home (and the street too?).

Also Matthews (1992), argues that the Anglo-American common law tradition restricted the woman in so many ways. A married woman was legally made invincible. Her identity was usually subsumed under her husband, and she could only assume control over her property or dispose of her income when she obtains a *feme sole* status- a legal right that allows the woman to assume authority over HER OWN property or income. Otherwise, she remains under her husband who takes complete charge of her and everything she owns. A woman was not in any way permitted to serve on a jury. In addition, her ability to write a will was severely delineated or circumscribed (pp. 6-7).

Another example occurred in June 1907, when Harriet Stanton Blatch, a well known feminist, was refused service in a restaurant in New York for the reason that she was unescorted by a man. The explanation she later got from the manager was that a policy had been instituted to protect 'respectable' women, whatever that means. The list goes on and on.

In a bid to satisfy patriarchal tendencies, domesticity was upheld by the woman. More so, to gratify the presupposition of the like of the restaurant manager discussed above, a good number of women resolved to occupy the domestic sphere rather than be seen in the public place as they could be called "public women". Public activism as the Separatists believed was a taboo for the woman. Any woman involved in it was seen as a disorderly woman, hence, the emergence of the cult of domesticity which emphasizes that the woman's place is the domestic sphere. This sect of women was determined to stay at home and not defy the man or struggle/ invade his space in the public. Thus, many women were not found outside the home. They were "private" humans. But today the story is different. The woman is virtually everywhere occupying public positions as well as taking charge of her home and gradually femininity is becoming a past experience for the female gender as the gender scale is balancing up. There are many females now operating in the public spaces than was obtainable in the past.

VIII. THE SEXIST BATTLE AND THE NEAREST FUTURE

In response to patriarchal idiosyncrasies, the woman deployed writing as a weapon to fight back, hence, the sexist struggle for relevance, and the battle of the sexes. The concept of feminism emerged as a result of this struggle for recognition. And as an ideology, feminism has been appraised by many scholars to be a movement against male hegemony and particularly patriarchy. One of the many scholars who evaluate this movement is Umoren (2002), and she submits that: "feminism at its birth bordered only on the notion of equal rights and privileges for the sexes, since it has to do with [the] sensitive issue of identity based on gender. Feminism in modern times has gone beyond the promotional stance (of equal rights and privileges)". This means that, the female recognizes her degraded position and has over the years fought for her relevance in the society (pp. 3-4).

The man, on the other hand, has isolated himself, glorified himself and evidently imposed himself on the woman, believing that he is superior to the woman, hence subjugating the woman to cruel treatment through the instrument of tradition (Ottoh and Agede, 2009). In the attempt to assert herself, the woman also has isolated herself by engaging in a fight for equality. The female has continued to assert herself and in the process resolves to lesbianism which entails that the male is irrelevant, hence, the woman to woman marriage. The man, in opposition, engages in man to man marriage as part of the payback at the woman.

The battle between the sexes had long started, and the woman now finds outlets in writing to debunk male hegemony. In fact, Mey (2001), suggests that "being aware of oppression does not make it go away, but forcing ourselves to bring the problem out into the open, wording it, is one major way to deal with it in practical perspective, through the use of language" (pp. 313-4). Therefore, for many decades now, linguists have waged a war on sexism in language use, and many literary writers, the females in particular, are making recognizable effort through their use of language to assert themselves against the other, the males.

The language of most female writers, in recent times, is hauntingly sympathetic. Gender issues remained the recurrent motifs of their literatures. This is based on the fact that, the early male writers had portrayed the woman as a witch, and this same male who had started the war is gradually losing out. The female writers assumed writing long

after the males and have progressively fought for relevance in the society through writing, and have asserted self, and more so assumed equality and now are gradually advocating for superiority which is not farfetched.

For example, femaleness which was associated with frailty, limitation and vulnerability is increasingly waning, and again femininity which was linked to domesticity is also steadily declining. In recent times, we see some women being the breadwinners in their homes. Some are even more educated than their husbands or brothers. The woman whose education was forbidden years back has nowadays become the more educated in some families and even societies. This is a corroboration of the cry-off of the female genus.

By this, we envisage a society, in the nearest future, where femaleness or femininity will disappear and all we will have is a society the other way round. A society where matriarchy would be ubiquitous, ever-present and by that time the males will see the injustices they have meted to the females over time.

IX. SIGNIFYING GENDER: ITS IMPLICATIONS ON GLOBAL SECURITY AND SOCIO-CULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

The idea of the signified and its signifier is got from Ferdinand de Saussure's conceptualization of objects and their linguistic items that signify (not represent) them. Saussure posits that the signifier is the linguistic object that signifies the signified- object. Signification implies that something means something else in some respect; not something instead of another as some may interpret it (Chandler, 2002).

Meaning can be conventional and anything that is generally accepted by a particular group of people to mean anything remains as that so that whenever that object is mentioned using its linguistic item, it registers in the mind of the hearer as such. But there has been a heated argument among scholars on the fact that the relationship between signifiers and signified is arbitrary; which means that there is no clear cut relation between what is said and what is thought of; therefore, we can conclude that the meaning of a referent is unrelated to the reference used for it.

Following this argument, it is also important to make reference to the logical relation between smoke and fire, which in itself is not arbitrary; unlike the word and the object, smoke and fire do have a correlation, which is why we would prefer to draw our analogy of gender semiotics in this sense. Very importantly, dwelling on gender implies the tendency for one gender to imagine supremacy and superiority. Therefore, the proclivity for insecurity emanates from male hegemony, patriarchal idiosyncrasies and the subsequent fight for equality by the feminist movements as we pointed out earlier. Insecurity is the sign and the battle for in[equality] is the fire that brought the smoke. This goes well with the popular saying that there is no smoke without fire.

The male chauvinist is of the opinion that the feminist had asked for too much, by fighting for gender equality or balance of power. The fear of patriarchy, and its sympathizers, is that sooner than later the item on the feminists' agenda, sequel to gender equality will be the female fighting for superiority over the male. However, since the battle is still on, and patriarchy has not conceded equality to the feminists, there is a tendency that the female gender will not only succeed in the equality fight but it may result in a situation where the woman should actually take a "superior" position in the social strata where she takes charge of the environment and the social order. If, in the bid to fight for relevance, the female has engaged in lesbianism, which sees the man as unimportant, then, there is a possibility that the woman will want superiority as patriarchy has envisioned.

In recent times, there has been a global upheaval as a result of which countries and nations of the world are kept on their toes. There have been disruptions in global economy with economic downturns and meltdowns, insecurity issues, such as genocides and terrorist attacks and wars within/between nations all of which affect global development. An assessment of these phenomena could make one argue that they could result in underdevelopment and may also hamper peaceful co-existence among citizens. Before now, however, females had suspected the males as those fighting against their social mobility and the male, with their patriarchal idiosyncrasies, had also made various attempts to keep the female at home, as home builders and not public contributors. This state of affairs is what we see as being contributory to global disturbances.

Consequently, global gender struggle for relevance has been a distraction and thereby serves as a helping measure to terrorists' activities. The contemporary society has shown that male hegemony has diverted peoples' attention from pertinent issues to flimsy concerns such as feminist advocacy for gender equality. Mothers, on the other hand, have left the domestic sphere to their housemaids who can only do little of what they can do for their children. Female-mothers are on the struggle for recognition and so the home is run by their unknown maids. Morals and values have lost their significance. Children find succour in home videos and computer games that contribute to the mayhem we find in the society today. Youths want to practice what they have learnt from movies, computer games and other thrillers which we see as signals to global insecurity and socio-cultural underdevelopment in recent times.

X. CONCLUSION

The female species is endangered; the patriarchal society, within which they operate, over the years, has seen to it that femininity is gradually dying. Today, there is an aberration of what the society termed femaleness. Now a days, women are so assertive that there is barely anything they do not assume or attempt and some of these they do even better than their male counterparts. That is the reason we foresee a future where the woman controls the means of living.

Steadily, the female gender has left domesticity where she first operated and has assumed a public significance which has progressively empowered her to lead and act in different capacities. Instances are where women were assaulted for walking the street or being unattended to in restaurants because they are unescorted by men. This is gradually facing out; the woman has occupied a befitting place in the public space and so far she is doing fine. We conclude by stating that sooner than expected there will be a wave change where the 'female' is the celebrated and the 'male' the subjugated one who begs for relevance in a society that the woman dominates.

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Metaphors in Indonesian Soccer News

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Abstract—This article discusses a cognitive view on metaphors found in Indonesian soccer news published in two Indonesian newspapers through conceptual metaphor theory, which maps the source domain to the target domain. According to conceptual metaphor theory put forward by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), conceptual metaphors mean the domain of concept A is the domain of concept B. The source domain is relatively more concrete than the target domain. Through the mapping of the source and target domains, we can conceptualize metaphors formed by metaphor linguistic expression. Metaphorical inferences can be drawn through neural theory of language which is developed by Lakoff as the neural theory of metaphor. The method employed to identify metaphorical linguistic expressions in the data sources is MIPVU (Metaphor Identification Procedure Vrije Universitet) developed by Steen et al. (2010). The results revealed that metaphorically, the game of soccer perceives goals as gold and crops, and the games themselves are hunting.

Index Terms—cognitive linguistics, inferences, metaphor, soccer news, source domain, target domain

I. INTRODUCTION

The traditional view on metaphors has emphasized the attempt to create poetic imagination and rhetoric. It is evident, then, that metaphors are the extraordinary imagination of writers, and no one, besides writers, can attempt such an effort due to the crafted skills in creating metaphors. In this view, metaphor is seen as an anomaly or an uncommon, deviant use of language. Philosophers have always regarded metaphors as bound to literature, rhetoric, and the arts since metaphors indicate deviance of humans' clear thoughts (Goatly, 1997).

It is the cognitive view that has changed the traditional assumption toward metaphors. The cognitive view suggests that metaphors exist and are encountered in human's daily life and are conceptualized in human thoughts. We do not readily realize that our utterances may contain metaphors. Stern (2007) stated that conceptual structures are embodied in our experiences, and semantic structures reflect conceptual structures. This recognizes that metaphors exist in our language and thought (Johnson & Lakoff, 1980; Steen, 2007).

Some studies on metaphors have revealed that metaphor patterns can be identified from corpus (Crisp, et al. 2002); Heywood, et al. (2002) can identify the character of a text or an author's style from the metaphors used in literature. Other studies on metaphor and discourse have emphasized the importance of pressure of coherence (Kövecses, 2009) which has created novel metaphors.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Metaphor and Language

Discussing metaphor is discussing language usage that refers to something that is not originally refered to or to its literal meaning to point similarity or connect two comparable things (Knowles & Moon, 2006). Cruse (2000) stated a similar definition which sugests that metaphors are the use of one word or phrase to refer to something different from its literal meaning. Goatly specifically (1997) claimed that

A metaphor occurs when a unit of discourse is used to refer to an object, concept, process, quality, relationship or world to which it does not conventionally refer, or colligates with a unit (s) with which it does not conventionally colligate; and when this unconventional act of reference or colligation is understood on the basis of similarity or analogy involving at least two of the following: the units conventional referent; the unit's actual unconventional referent; the actual referent(s) of the unit's actual colligate(s); the conventional referent of the unit's conventional colligate(s). (p. 105)

What Goatly stated suggested that a discourse unit can be a metaphor if the reference is not the conventional object, concept, process or quality and the difference is understood on the basis of similarity or analogy. To refer to its conventional reference, Goatly (1997) used the term *Vehicle*, and *Topic* is the unconventional reference. Another term, *Ground*, is used to refer to the similarity and/or analogy. An example proposed by Goatly is the following sentence:

(1) The past is a foreign country; they do things differently there.

In the example, the vehicle is <u>a foreign country</u>; the topic is <u>the past</u> and the ground is the fact that <u>things are done differently</u>. Vehicle-term can be a word, a phrase or even a clause or a sentence. The followings are examples of metaphors as proposed by Goalty (1997).

(2) Although Atkinson lost that fight ...

(3) You never know what's around the corner.

(4) Sex is only the liquid centre of the great Newberry Fruit of friendship. (Jilly Cooper)

(5) Mankind is a club to which we owe a subscription. (G.K. Chesterton).

(6) Too many cooks spoil the broth.

Examples (2) and (3) may not readily be comprehended as metaphors as the phrase *lost that fight* and *around the corner* do not instantly indicate similarity or analogy to a specific vehicle. In contrast, examples (4) and (5) denote specifically the liquid centre of the great Newberry Fruit and a club to which we owe a subscription as the vehicles and the topics are sex in (4) and mankind in example (5). The metaphor in the form of a sentence as seen in example (6) is a proverb. This proverb can only be understood when the ground is identified through the similarity or analogy of a specific situation.

Other examples are from Knowles and Moon (2006):

(7) The jewel in Northumbria's ecclesiastical crown is Lindisfarne Priory on Holy Island, built as a monastery in 635 and reached by a tidal causeway.

(8) We used to trash all the teams in Keith Schoolboy League. We had a great squad and no one could touch us.

The words jewel, crown, trash, and touch as used in examples (7) and (8) are used not to refer to their literal meanings. The words jewel and crown in example (7) are used to refer important and valuable things as the literal meanings of jewel and crown indicate. The words trash and touch in example (8) are used to denote success of a team in a game.

B. Metaphor in Cognitive Linguistics

The work of Lakoff and Johnson (1980) on metaphor from a cognitive view has tremendously inspired many studies. Their study on metaphor has yielded the Conceptual Theory of Metaphor. In their view, metaphor is pervasive in daily human life as can be seen in the following examples:

(9) Your claims are indefensible.

(10) He attacked every weak point in my argument.

(11) I demolished his argument.

(12) I've never won an argument with him.

The four examples (9-12) indicate conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR. Arguments are comprehended in our thought as war because the word *war* is associated with defense, attack, demolish, and won. When we argue with someone, we view the person as an opponent who can attack our position and, therefore, we should defend ours. In an argument, people involved use many strategies to win. This yields the conceptual metaphor ARGUMENT IS WAR.

In the cognitive linguistic view, metaphor is defined as an understanding of one conceptual domain as another conceptual domain (Kövecses, 2010). Metaphor in the cognitive view has two main domains, namely, source domain and target domain. This view proclaims that the conceptual domain of A is the conceptual of domain B. Kövecses differentiates conceptual metaphor from metaphorical linguistic expressions. The words/phrase *indefensible*, *attacked every weak point in*, *demolished*, and *won* as used in examples (9-12) are metaphorical linguistic expressions, and the conceptual metaphor built from the expressions is ARGUMENT IS WAR. Conceptual metaphor is used in small capital letters.

Another conceptual metaphor is LOVE IS A JOURNEY. This conceptual metaphor has yielded in the following metaphorical linguistic expressions:

(13) Our relationship has hit a dead-end street.

(14) We may have to go our separate ways.

(15) The relationship isn't going anywhere.

(16) The marriage is on the rocks.

Lakoff (1993) stated that metaphor is an important component in human cognition as it can conceptualize from a less concrete experience to a more concerete experience. In his view, metaphor consists of a source language, a target language, and a set of mappings between the source and the target language. The mapping of LOVE IS A JOURNEY is as follows (Kövecses, 2010).

Source: JOURNEY		Target: LOVE
the travelers	⟶	the lovers
the vehicle	⟶	the love relationship
the journey	⟶	events in the relationship
the distance covered	⟶	the progress made
the obstacles encountered	⟶	the difficulties experienced
decisions about which ways to go	⟶	choices about what to do
the destinantion(s) of the journey	⟶	the goal(s) of the relationship

The words dead-end street, separate ways, isn't going anywhere as used in examples (13-15) denote a journey because a journey is associated with the nouns street and way, as well as the verb go. Example (16) is of a particular interest. The phrase on the rocks is an idiom, which means likely to fail soon (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2003). Although it uses an idiom, the idiom itself contains the word rocks, which may denote an impediment encountered in a journey. The love relationship that is conceptualized as the vehicle encountered an obstacle, in this case, the rocks. Since the rocks hinder the journey, the lovers (the travelers) cannot go on and have to stop.

C. Understanding Metaphor

In understanding metaphors, the Neural Theory of Language (NTL) developed by Lakoff and Feldman (1988) provide the basis of explanation. According to NTL, thought is physical while ideas and the concepts that build ideas are physically computed by the brain structures. Reasoning is the activation of certain neuronal groups in the brain. Feldman (in Lakoff, 2008) argued that meaning is mental simulation, that is, the activation of neurons needed to imagine perceiving or performing the action. Therefore, if we cannot imagine the act of kick a ball, we cannot understand the sentence/utterance of "You are kicking a ball."

NTL suggests that a *meaningful node* is a node that when activated results in the activation of a whole neural simulation and when inhibited prevents that simulation. For example, when the neuron circuitry of "grasp" is activated, we imagine perceiving or performing grasping. The NTL also states that two neuronal groups can be connected so that each inhibits the activation of the other when there is an active flow of ions of the opposite charge (Lakoff, 2008).

Other features of NTL which denote that psycholinguistics are spreading activation, which is the mechanism of how the brain is shaped 'through experience and best-fit systems' (Lakoff, 2008, p. 23). This suggests that neurons that fire together, wire together. This happens when the activation spreading from A meets the activation spreading from B thus creating a link between A and B and the link gets stronger if the more A and B fire together. Our neural systems are best-fit systems. It means that a linguistic compound makes sense when it fits into a coherent context. Lakoff further illustrates with the following examples:

(17) Bill drank a soda.

(18) Bill drank an elephant.

In order to find out the meanings of the two sentences, we need to build a mental simulation. In (17) we build a frame that Bill is drinking and a frame of soda, as a kind of drink. To understand the meaning of sentence (18), the frame of Bill is drinking is activated and so is the frame of an elephant. The frame of Bill is drinking requires another frame that best fits the coherence—a consumable liquid. The mutual inhibition takes place in our brain, in which a frame of an elephant as an animal is inhibited and another frame of an elephant as a kind of drink is activated. The activation of this new frame is contextually bound because *Elephant* is a brand of Danish beer.

D. Inferences

According to Lakoff (2008) an inference occurs in three different situations. They are:

1. when the activation of a collection of meaningful nodes (the antecedent situation) in a neural circuit leads to the activation of one or more other meaningful nodes (the consequence);

2. when the activation of the antecedent nodes is necessary for the consequence; and,

3. when the inhibition of one or more consequence nodes results in the inhibition of one or more antecedent nodes.

From the three situations, Lakoff (2008) stated that a metaphorical inference occurs when:

1. a metaphorical mapping is activated in a neural circuit;

2. there is an inference in the source domain of the mapping; and,

3. a consequence of the source domain inference is mapped to the target domain, activating a meaningful node.

The example from Lakoff of *We're driving in the fast lane on the freeway of love* activates the inferences that:

1. the vehicle the travelers are in is going a lot faster than usual;

2. the driving is exciting;

3. it can be dangerous (the travelers can suffer physical harm).

"Freeway of love" then activates the target domain of love and source domain of travel, which yields the activation of the Love is a Journey metaphorical mapping. Based on the inferences of the source domain of travel, the metaphorical inferences are:

1. the relationship the lovers are in is developing a lot faster than usual;

2. the development of the relationship is exciting; and,

3. it can be dangerous (the lovers can suffer physical harm).

III. Method

This is a qualitative study that is not concerned with the number of sample and population. Rather, the Qualitative Method according to Creswell (2008) is a tool to explore and understand a problem of an individual or group. This method focuses on the explanation and interpretation of the problem discussed which is narrated. This method was selected because it did not attempt to generalize conceptual metaphors found in sport news, but it described metaphors found in sports news. The pieces of sport news were taken from two newspapers published in Indonesia, *Kompas* and *Pikiran Rakyat* of June – September 2013 editions.

To determine linguistic metaphor expressions in sport news, the procedure undertaken was the procedures developed by Steen, et al. (2010) called MIPVU (Metaphor Identification Procedure Vrije Universitet). The procedure basically describes the procedure to determine the basic meaning and the contextual meaning of a word. The basic meaning is originated from a dictionary, while the contextual meaning is revealed from the context that bounds the word under consideration. If the basic and the contextual meaning are different, the word has the potential to conceptualize metaphor.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

There are a variety of metaphorical linguistic expressions in the soccer game news that signal conceptual metaphors. Some expressions are readily recognized to denote soccer while others are general and may be found in other sport news.

1. GOALS ARE GOLD
Data 1

Pelatih Spanyol Vicente del Bosque tampaknya akan kembali memercayai duet striker David Villa dan Torres yang **mengemas tujuh gol** *saat melawan Tahiti.* (Kompas, 23 June 2013)

Spain coach Vicente del Bosque surely seems to set duo strikers, David Villa and Torres, who **packed seven goals** in a match against Tahiti.

In Bahasa Indonesia, the phrase *mengemas tujuh gol* is literally equivalent to pack seven goals. The verb pack *mengemas* activates a frame of packing and a frame of something covered. In the phrase packed seven goals, the second frame of something covered, is inhibited because it does not fit the system in the brain. The context changes the frame and the other frame of something valuable or important is activated because something valuable or important is usually packed. The following inferences can be drawn:

1. something important or valuable is packed;
2. the package is neat and nice; and,
3. to pack neatly and nicely needs skills.

This activates the target domain of goal and the source domain of gold because for human beings one of the valuable things is gold. Everybody would cognitively come to an agreement that gold is important and valuable. From the analysis, the following metaphorical inferences can be drawn:

1. goals are important and valuable in a soccer game;
2. the game ran well; and,
3. to score goals needs skills and good team work.

Pertinent to data (1), packed seven goals, which was jointly performed by David Villa and Torres, denotes that the players have good skills and along with other players, the team built good team work.

Data 2

"Ini kesempatan besar bagi kami. Kami akan berupaya **mendulang banyak gol** *ke gawang Tahiti," kata pelatih yang menangani Uruguay sejak 2006 tersebut.* (Kompas, 23 Juni 2013)

"It is a big opportunity for us. We try to pan many goals to the goal of Tahiti," says the Uruguay coach since 2006.

Data 3

Manchester United pun mendulang poin penuh dalam laga di Stadion Old Trafford, Sabtu (14/9). (Kompas, 15 September 2013)

Manchester United also **panned full points** in a match at Old Trafford Stadion, Saturday (14/9).

In data (2) the phrase *mendulang banyak gol* is the literal equivalence of to pan many goals and in data (3) the phrase *mendulang poin penuh* is the literal equivalence of panned full points. The phrase to pan many goals and panned full points activates a frame of panning and a frame of goals and points. The frame of panning is activated; however, the frame of goals and points is inhibited because the frame of panning is linked to a frame of gold. Through best-fit system in the brain and the context, a new frame of something valuable is activated as gold is characterized as a valuable thing. This frame activates the source domain of gold which yields the following inferences:

1. golds are valuable;
2. to get gold needs effort; and,
3. gold is not easy to get.

The metaphorical mapping of Goals are Gold yields the following inferences:

1. goals are valuable;
2. to score goals needs effort; and,
3. goals are not easy to score.

With the application of conceptual theory of metaphor, the following mapping can be drawn:

Source: GOLD		Target: GOALS
gold miner	⟶	soccer player
strength of gold miner	⟶	good teamwork
effort to obtain	⟶	effort to obtain by attacking or defending position
by mining or panning	⟶	in a soccer game

Data 4

Kami memiliki **peluang emas** *melawan Jordania.* (Kompas, 8 September 2013)

We have a **golden opportunity** against Jordan.

A golden opportunity in data (4) is the metaphorical linguistic expression. To understand the metaphorical linguistic expression, our brain activates a frame of gold, not golden, and so it is a frame of opportunity. From the activation of the frame of gold, we can draw some inferences:

1. golden is derived from gold;

2. golden has the similar entity of gold; and,

3. because gold is valuable, so is golden;

The metaphorical linguistic expression a golden opportunity activates the source domain of gold and the target domain of goals. It results in the conceptual metaphor GOALS ARE GOLD. GOALS ARE GOLD conceptual metaphor produces the following metaphorical inferences:

1. the opportunity is valuable;

2. to get the best result needs good team work;

3. the opportunity is not common; and,

4. the opportunity is to score goals.

2. GOALS ARE CROPS

Data 5

*Kepercayaan diri Uzbekistan **meroket** setelah **menuai gol** tandang yang sangat krusial di markas Jordania dalam laga pertama babak play off Zona Asia Piala Dunia Brasil 2014*. (Kompas, 8 September 2013)

Uzbekistan's confidence **is shooting up** (like a rocket) after **reaping crucial guest goals** at Jordan's homebase in the first play off match of Asian Zone World Cup 2014.

Data (5) contains two metaphorical linguistic expressions of (1) *meroket*, which is the literal equivalence of shooting up and (2) *menuai gol*, which is the equivalence of reaping goals. The verb phrase shooting up activates the frame of confidence. The frame of confidence is inhibited, and to fit the coherence, the frame of a rocket is activated. This yields the inferences:

1. confidence is a substance; and,

2. confidence can rise.

The metaphorical linguistic expression of Uzbekistan's confidence is shooting up is based on a structural conceptual metaphor of MORE IS UP.

Reaping goals is another metaphorical linguistic expression identified from data (5). In order to understand the expression, we build a frame of reaping and a frame of goals. Since the frame of reaping does not perfectly link to the frame of goals, the frame of goals is inhibited and a frame of crop is activated. With this kind of link, we build a mental simulation that goals are crops. In the end, we come up with the following inferences:

1. crops are the result of planting;

2. best crops are from best seeds and treatment; and,

3. crops are valuable for the grower.

Reaping goals activates the target domain of goals and the source domain of crops resulting in the activation of the Goals are Crops metaphorical mapping. The metaphorical inferences are:

1. goals are the purposes of playing soccer games;

2. best goals can be scored through good team work; and

3. goals are valuable for the team.

From the analysis, the following is the mapping of the metaphor GOALS ARE CROPS.

Source: CROPS		Target: GOALS
result of planting	⟶	purpose of soccer games
from good seeds and treatment	⟶	can be scored through good team work
valuable for the grower	⟶	valuable for the team

3. GAMES ARE HUNTING

Data 6

*Meski telah lolos ke semifinal, mantan pelatih Real Madrid itu tetap **membidik kemenangan***. (Kompas, 23 Juni 2013)

Although passing through the semifinal, the former Real Madrid coach still **shoots at the victory**.

Data 7

*Tim "Paman Sam" sedang **memburu tiket final ketiga** secara berurutan setelah tahun 2009 dan 2011*. (PR, 24 Juli 2013).

The "Uncle Sam" team **is hunting a third final ticket** in a row after the years of 2009 and 2011.

The phrases of *membidik kemenangan* and *memburu tiket final* are literally equivalent to targets the victory and is hunting a third final ticket. In data (6) the phrase shoot at the victory activates the frame of shooting at and the frame of victory. The frame of victory is inhibited because it does not link to the frame of shooting at. Another frame of target, which best fits the the first frame, is then activated. In data (7) the phrase is hunting a third final ticket activates a frame of hunting and a frame of a third final ticket. The frame of a third final ticket is inhibited because it does not link to the frame of hunting. Through the best-fit system, our brain activates another frame, which is based on the context, of a prey. The frame of prey is activated because it links perfectly with the frame of hunting. From the two sentences in (6) and (7) and the activation of the related frames, the following inferences can be drawn:

1. hunting involves hunters and prey;

2. hunting requires skills; and,

3. the target in hunting is prey.

These result in the metaphorical mapping of Games are Hunting, which activates the source domain of hunting and the target domain of games. The metaphorical inferences are as follows:

1. soccer games involves two teams;
2. soccer games requires skills (tactics); and
3. the target in soccer games are victory (goals).

With the application of conceptual theory of metaphor, the mapping of the metaphor is illustrated as follows.

Source: HUNTING   Target: GAMES

hunter   ⟶ soccer player
weapon   ⟶ tactics
target: prey   ⟶ target: goal

V. CONCLUSION

The metaphorical linguistic expressions found in Indonesian soccer news have revealed some conceptual metaphors that exist in our thought. The main purpose of the game, which is to score goals, has brought about the concept of goals as gold and as crops. Both gold and crops are important for miners and growers in such a way that goals are important for soccer players or soccer teams. With regard to the games of soccer, the games are conceptualized as hunting and the goals serve as the hunted.

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High School English Teachers' Professional Life Cycle: A Study in an EFL Context

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Abstract—A product has a life cycle. A man likewise has life cycle-- from conception to decline through infancy, puberty, youth and maturity. Similarly, a teacher's professional life cycle passes through clearly identifiable stages—from novice to proficient, experienced and then expert (mentor). He enters the profession as a novice and gets training in teaching or at least, guidance of his seniors and accumulates experience. This process may take 1 to 2 years. The experience of classroom situations, training/retraining and/or through diverse interactions, he becomes an experienced and accomplished professional in 5 to 7 years before he starts conceptualising and doing research work, and becomes an expert in teaching in about 6 to 8 years after which, he starts mentoring and becomes a Head Teacher. There can be a variance in the number of years an individual teacher takes to move from one stage to the next. In Yemen and Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the upward mobility is purely on seniority; merit alone gets back-seat. Promotion to Head Teacher depends upon the vacancy available. The three broad stages are crossed before retirement. Some teachers study subjects intensively and extensively and remain updated, and create philosophical constructs--they become universally acknowledged super-experts.

Index Terms—mentor, professional life cycle, teacher training, professional development, EFL context

Present Study

The present study is purely descriptive and in the nature of dissertation work. It has been divided into five parts for ease of focus on the related aspects of Teachers' Life Cycle.

I. INTRODUCTION

Education brings out the best in a man. However, this can be achieved if the teacher is devoted to the profession and is proficient, experienced, reflective and communicative and, plays his/her role with love and care, democratically. A teacher's profession is one of the noblest ones. Rather it is the noblest of the noble professions. It demands an upright character, good conduct and strict observation of the code of professional ethics. Not only in his subject but also in moral values and culture, he has to be well-versed and the same needs to be internalized in order to project oneself as a worthy model. Not to be forgotten, a teacher is a mirror. He not only touches but incredibly influences the lives of all those he comes in contact with. Therefore, it becomes imperative on his part to often take out some time, sit back and reflect on his overall conduct and behaviour. It goes without saying that a teacher's responsibility lies only with the quintessential teaching part. It rather spans down to almost insurmountable limits. Since a teacher leaves such an indelible mark on the personality and psychological make-up of his students, introspection and reflection are two quintessential characteristics of his profession that he simply can't afford to do away with.

Of all the learned professions, the teachers' is the noblest. Their professional life cycle takes a route from the stage of being novice to proficient, experienced and expert. Making a departure from the modern definition of a teacher in formal education, we may link education to the primary institution of family where parents, most notably, the mother being instinctively attached to her child and secondarily, the other members of the family (due to proximity gained through living together under one roof) play their role in a child's education. This education and learning process is one of pure and simple imitation and cognition. In formal (modern) education, in a series of institutions, the learning process starts with cognition and imitation but the student develops psychologically alongside his biological growth. At this stage, say at school, he or she is an 'individual', a 'unique' and an independent thinking entity. He develops likes and dislikes, adopts biases and prejudices and thus, forms a distinctive attitude. The values imbibed during childhood stand him in good stead of which he is reminded whenever he is called upon to make a choice out of numerous alternatives. He summons and applies logic, rationale and cultural values in the process of learning. It goes without saying that the child needs to be supported, motivated and encouraged during the entire process and who better than a teacher could cater to his needs. A teacher ought to be like a friend, philosopher and mentor in the lives of his pupils.

The teacher at this stage faces numerous class room challenges. A professional teacher solves all problems by spontaneous changes in lessons, strategies and in- teaching processes to suit the sudden events and situations. He becomes student-centric in doing so and research-oriented because these situations can be solved by following scientific and systematic approach in an objective manner. Wallace (1991) has rightly stated that a fully professional teacher is able to reflect creatively on his own practice based on feedback from learner or collaboration partner or peer teacher or mentor (advisor), or even, a critical friend. There is a strong inter-relationship among counselling, teaching and learning.

An individual is the main actor in the process. An amplifying effect is felt by ideas in the areas of education, training and psychology. There is Experiential Learning movement in learning theories, Reflective Practitioner concept in education and client/student-centred humanistic approach in counselling: these represent an interlocking paradigm.

Each teacher embarks upon the teaching profession adopting it as career, considering it as a noble and most satisfying opening with prospects of advancement and development leading to self-actualization. He is decidedly a novice at the threshold of his career. There is a Professional Life Cycle (PLC) in his case just as we witness in the case of products: conception (idea), production (delivery in market) which may be called introduction, growth (sales moving up), maturity (peak sales constant for a period), decline and eventual withdrawal. Congruent to this is a teacher's life cycle: entry as a 'Novice', moving upwards by degrees and exposure to teaching/learning context, to a 'Proficient' teacher with higher competencies, then to an 'Experienced' category and henceforth to the 'Expert' category (expert of subject or discipline) and finally to a 'Veteran' state where he may be called advisor or Mentor. There is much similarity in the teacher's growth to the British Guild System of olden times. A young man was engaged as a helper, who then became an apprentice (novice) followed by a proper 'on-job' training, (second stage novice), after which he became a journey-man to get 'hands on' experience in the field and finally, established his workshop as 'Master Craftsman' and owned a guild to train others, and the cycle was repeated for other entrants.

Having stayed in India for about 5 years (2006-2011) for higher studies, I had occasions to observe, study and understand the ancient culture and traditions of India. In ancient India, there was a social system of *'Ashram'* (retreats) where learned *pundits* (masters) taught their pupils, the pupils (*shishyas*) were looked after by the teacher (*guru*) as his own children, and the teacher's wife (*Gurumata*) was like a mother to them. The teacher and pupils lived like a family in an affectionate, happy and emotionally gratifying atmosphere. The teachers were specialists in their subjects. The pupils were taught from the scriptures to reinforce human values and basic ethics and other subjects relevant to their work, occupations or goals in life.

The Indian society was stratified and classified into four main classes. An individual's life was also conceptually divided into four stages--the first was celibacy; second, a family man; third, retirement form family life and devotion to spiritual pursuits and experience sharing and the last (fourth) stage was that of total non-attachment and renunciation.

Now that technology has provided all comforts and the socialization process has taken us to a different arena altogether, the societal occupation paradigm has undergone a tremendous shift, and the economic factor has overtaken all other considerations to a great extent. Being a part of the society, the education system has also undergone a drastic change. Corporate Governance and Corporate Social Responsibility have been made an integral part of almost all economic activities, and included in management courses as subjects of study.

All countries in the world are now increasingly concerned with the general welfare of their citizens. Human values have been redefined to mean peace, prosperity, quality life and banishment of poverty (of money income and deprivation) and unemployment. Due to constantly increasing industrial and other activities drawing upon non-renewable natural resources (fossil fuels, forests, etc), bio-diversity has been adversely affected and ecological balance disturbed. Increase in carbon and allied gases have drastically thinned the ozone layer which is believed to be the major reason for global warming. Alarm bells are being sounded regarding the melting of glaciers, dearth of potable water, danger to the coastal areas being submerged as a consequence of the rising sea level.

New concerns create new subjects for study. The West has been spending a tremendous pool of money on research in not only science and technology but also in all subjects and matters related to life, survival, sustenance and development. Sustainable economic development is at the core of the current thinking at eco-political levels almost everywhere in the world.

In the emerging scenario, where economics has overshadowed the ancient value system and lifestyles, a new code of ethics and ground rules have taken shape. No country can remain aloof; all countries are bound together by common concerns and the economic factors are at its core. Knowledge management has emerged as the need of the hour. This is possible only through the education system and today's education system is undoubtedly, governed and dominated by the English language, which happens to be the only significant global language. The Indian diaspora has made its presence noticeable in key and critical spheres in the stream of work in all the advanced and industrially developed nations because of its paramount knowledge of English. Further, all innovations in science and technology are accessible through the English language.

Each country has to be competent in the arena of global economy, of course, banking on its core strengths. Today's prismatic society has moved from primary and secondary sectors of economy to the tertiary (services) one. 'Customer is the king' is the governing adage in the business world; it equally applies to education where the client (customer) is the student who has to be handled, guided, counselled and taught with love and care, satisfying his curiosity. His likes and dislikes have to be carefully considered and lessons made acceptable and easy for him through thoughtful changes in content, syllabus, techniques, methods, etc. Let us look into the status of English as a second language (L2) and as a Foreign Language (FL).

II. Teaching English As Second and/Or Foreign Language

A. Historical Background

For many centuries, the British ruled three-fourths of the world. Unlike Saudi Arabia, Yemen was one of the countries under their rule. They introduced their language in all the subject nations, now forming the 'Commonwealth of Nations'. This historical factor is primarily responsible for the popularity and spread of English language. As a corollary to this, it can be emphasized that the English teacher's role assumes significant importance. After all, it is the English teachers who are responsible for the overall interest, inclination and initiation of the young learners into the folds of the ever-multiplying web of the English language.

B. Role of English Language Teacher

There has to be utmost dedication on the part of English language teachers to teach the language effectively, as it is still a foreign language in both Yemen and Saudi Arabia, and in many nations of the world. Whether most countries acknowledge or not, English language still continues to be a white man's language and there still exist several acceptance problems with regards to the general spread and usability of the language. In fact, many young learners of the English language become quite a challenge for the English teachers because they happen to be First Generation English learners in their families and therefore, the entire onus of teaching and inculcating English in such learners comes upon the teachers. With no or little help from the family end, the students also look up to their English teachers with high hopes. Therefore, it becomes imperative for the teachers to make conscious and continuous efforts, experimenting with coping strategies to facilitate effective teaching-learning. As the student is central to learning, he should be assured that there would be a conducive atmosphere, no fear or scare, openness and frankness, questions would be welcome and doubts would be cleared. The teacher will not function as a mechanical adjunct in the educational system, but will be empathetic, affectionate and emotionally attached to the profession. Teaching and learning is a dynamic activity, and teachers have to prepare themselves to accept the challenges in the process.

Education makes a perfect man: perfect to understand, analyse, experiment, observe, interpret, and identify scope for further improvement. A devoted and committed teacher identifies a problem and resolves it on the basis of experience, peer counselling, mentoring by an expert and, with the counsellor's intervention, where necessary. By and by, he also accumulates experience but the learning-teaching-learning cycle goes on till the end of one's career, in some cases till the end of life. Like a horse, a teacher and a doctor never fully retire. A famous dictum about teaching elaborates this line of thought as 'Once a teacher, always a teacher.' Teaching in its purest form, is a selfless, ongoing and lifelong process that knows no bounds. And therefore, for doing full justice to the profession, a teacher has to be trained and his skills developed in addition to his having a self development plan.

C. Training and Development of Teachers

Training and development have different goals and likewise, their processes are also different. Training means repetitive activities, it refers to activities the efficacy of which is an onus on the teacher. These activities have short-term, rather, immediate goals. Training involves understanding of the basic concepts and principles which are then applied to teaching. The teacher is thereby enabled to demonstrate them in the class room. The following learning goals are a selected few:

a) Learning use of effective strategies to initiate a lesson in the class room.

b) Learning adaptation of the text book to match the target group (class).

c) Learning the relevance and organization of group activities for a lesson.

d) Learning the use of questioning techniques.

e) Learning to use aids, tools and other resources in the lesson (aids such as, audio, video, cassettes, films, the internet, etc).

f) Learning techniques for giving feedback to learners on their performance.

g) Learning techniques to receive feedback from learners on quality of teaching lesson for analysis, review and modifying the process and methodology.

The University of Luxembourg lists the aims of teacher training thus:

• - "learning to learn" instead of "teaching to teach"

• - "a learning community" instead of "an isolated agent"

• - "a responsible actor" instead of "a passive agent"

• - "developing" instead of "reproducing"

Further, it elaborates that the training is based on 4 fields:

1. **Multi-disciplinary learning:**
   Pedagogical, psychological, sociological and didactical dimensions.

2. **Field of research:**
   Development of a research approach concerning practical experience.
   acquiring methods and tools

3. **Field of practice:**
   The new training aims to combine university studies and practices.
   Thanks to practical periods, the student can develop professional competencies.

4. **Field of social and professional development:**
   Building a professional identity by working on a plethora of attitudes and behaviours.

Professional competencies:
- Developing a professional approach;
- Assuming a role of social actor;
- Developing an ethic approach towards teaching;
- Considering the diversity of the pupils;
- Promoting multi-linguistic identities;
- Planning and managing a class group.

However, the development goes much beyond training. It has long term goals. In case of a teacher, it is a programmed and planned effort to sharpen and deepen the understanding of teaching as well as of the teacher himself. Development unfolds the potential and carries the process towards excellence, expertise and self-actualization. The dimensions do not remain restricted to teaching and learning the subject; they relate to life in societal context, subjects and the world view on life. The teacher can attain the status of being an inspiring teacher with his faculty establishing connectivity with economic and socio-cultural constructs within the political system. He becomes a super-expert to initiate innovations and guides other teacher-professionals with research orientation, thinking beyond the political territorial borders. This requires long-terms goals.

The following long term goals can be pursued for development of teachers:
a) Understanding the process of second language development (how it occurs).
b) Understanding how a teacher's role changes according to the kind of learners being taught the language.
c) Understanding the kinds of decision making that occur during lessons in the class room.
d) Understanding to review theories and principles of teaching the language.
e) Understanding and developing different styles of teaching.
f) Collecting and determining learners' perceptions of classroom activities.

For the above goals, suitable strategies have to be developed like documenting different kinds of teaching practices, undertaking effective analysis of teaching practices, going about the examinations of beliefs, values and principles, making discussions with peers on class room projects and activities, etc.

Reflective analysis is at the core of development process. It relates to questions like quantity and quality of collaboration among the teachers, and what problems are faced by language teachers in their first years of teaching. Let us have a look into conceptualization and processes of teachers' education.

D. Teacher Learning – Conceptualization

There are a number of teacher-learning conceptualizations underlying the teacher-education processes. They lead to different approaches to teacher-education as understood by different theoreticians. Starting from skill learning as a cognitive process, they proceed to teacher-learning as a reflective practice. The last process of reflective analysis is the most important because of human resource angle attached to it which postulates playing the roles of facilitator and guide for handling and motivating the students (children, and even adults), God's most novel creations, with care in a fearless and positive learning atmosphere. Reflective teaching is teaching reinforced with collection of data and extracting information from there on one's teaching to serve as a basis for critical reflection. The procedures adopted for this purpose are self-monitoring, ken and purposeful observation, and case studies. Not only in teacher education but also, such procedures are followed in business management schools.

There are various kinds of process cycles on our planet. Teachers have a life cycle much like that of a product's life cycle, human life cycle and so on.

III. TEACHERS' PROFESSIONAL LIFE CYCLE

A. Education Administration

There are two aspects related to the professional life of teachers. They are supervised and managed besides being administratively controlled. Managing the work of teachers includes 'academic management' as well as taking care of other concerns which are outside it and include motivation and reward system. For the development of teachers, there has to be an organization's support (organizational culture, policy and plans) of course, within the political context apart from initiative, drive and a positive attitude.

It is no denying the fact that there is an important link between Human Resource Development (HRD) and professional concerns; they are closely related to the teachers' life cycle. This cycle concept is not new. We have taken examples from the biological and product life cycles to demonstrate the stages through which a human being or a product passes and eventually becomes extinct. The stages conceptually considered are conception, growth and development, maturity and eventual decline or withdrawal.

Fessler (1985) has given teacher's career cycle within a model of teachers' professional growth and development. The cycle in his view, runs as under:
- Pre-service (when a person considers alternatives and chooses to be a teacher).
- Induction (a stage when he is selected by an organization for the job and he is formally inducted as a teacher).
- Competency building (Training and experience of teaching)

• Enthusiastic and growing (analysis of problems, finding solutions, changing strategies and learning from changes in processes, strategies, syllabus, style of teaching, methods of teaching, etc.)

• Career frustration (seeing no further chance of promotion) or recognition.

• Stable and stagnant (Performance at satisfying level, contented and engaged fully)

• Career wind down (Fewer activities, decline)

• Career exit (retirement)

• There are two more components within this model and these have a far reaching effect on the career of a teacher. These are 'Personal Environment' and 'Organizational Environment'. The former includes life stages of teachers, vocational outlets available to them and crisis situations. The latter includes the management style, professional organizations and public trust.

Steffy (2001) has identified six distinct phases in the career of a teacher. She says that these are inseparable from the development continuum. She designates them as:

1. Novice teacher
2. Apprentice teacher
3. Professional teacher
4. Expert teacher
5. Distinguished teacher
6. Emeritus teacher (active retired teacher)

Although the above stages given by Steffy are applicable more to college teachers, yet the concept with varied stages applies, mutates and is related to teacher development stages, not literally, but only in spirit. In Yemen and Saudi Arabia, at the high or higher secondary school level, the career cycle is some-what like that given below. However, this is only indicative and not formally fixed:

Novice Teacher	1 to 2 years
Novice Proficient	2 to 3 years
Professional Teacher (experienced)	5 to 7 years
Expert Teacher (Mentor)	4 to 6 years

The Novice Teacher learns, indentifies problems and discusses them with the peers and seeks guidance from professional or experienced teachers. He gets stabilised and gains confidence and becomes a 'Novice Professional". He is a progressive learner at this stage.

A Professional (Experienced) teacher solves class room problems instantly and undertakes research into areas where recurring difficulties occur. He adds to his experience and becomes highly proficient and professional, competent to cope with any difficult situation, encounters no difficulty in the classroom management.

An Expert Teacher conceptualises fast and is ready with his knowledge kit and experience to render fast and mature advice for development of education improving administration and raising the academic standard through innovation and creativity by involving both the teachers and students with collaborative approach. He learns to work with the peers collectively.

Steffy's considered opinion is that teachers progress throughout their careers by degrees of learning in transformational processes; they engage in reflective processes related to their teaching practices; they redefine assumptions and beliefs; they also examine their self-worth and ultimately see, examine, analyze and enhance their self image vis-à-vis the status in society. In the process, they continue to evolve themselves as individuals and as teachers along with the general evolution of the society they live in.

Steffy has suggested one essential role for those responsible for education administration, that of providing resources and facilities to promote learning among all staff and teachers for transformation. This transformation is brought about with willingness on the part of teachers and necessary support and facilitation on the part of administrators including directors of schools, and enabling policy of the government. He is foremost among the few in bringing into sharp focus the disengagement and professional withdrawal. These features find centre-stage in the discourse of Huberman's scheme of teacher's education.

Huberman (1989) mentions only three phases through which a teacher passes in his teaching career, which constitute his career's life cycle. These are novice, mid-career and late career. When we go through Huberman's classification, we get to know practically five phases – Early Novice, Middle Novice, Later Novice, Mid-Career and Late Career. His views on these phases of development of a teacher are as under:

B. Novice or Early Novice Stage (Finding a Place)

The novice teacher has to set his foot firmly and join the teaching fraternity. Since he chooses teaching as a career, he sees to it that he survives in the unknown and strange situation being fresh from college or with very little awareness of the demands and expectations from the role and society as well as from his students. His anxiety is to prove that he is competent to teach. His second worry is whether others in the profession (peers) may not see him as incompetent.

C. Middle Novice Stage (Skills & Knowledge)

This is the second stage in sequence where the career teacher is primarily engaged in teaching as per content and syllabus. He is free from anxiety and is fully involved in teaching practice. He works hard at this stage and finds difficulty with many extra duties and few materials. Still, he is in the saddle and wants to develop coping competencies and starts generating ideas how teaching could be made better and as self-learning experience.

D. Mid-career Teachers

At this stage, a teacher is much experienced and gets stabilized. He is experienced and becomes professional; he has developed skills, and got knowledge of his subject apart from knowledge of theories and models skills and knowledge. He is comfortable with his lessons and his behavioural and teaching pattern is predictable. He takes each class room as a problem and applies his experience instantly to resolve any conflict or problem of learning. He continues with experimentation to spruce up his teaching and deals with content according to the context or situation. He plans and experiments with new activities and approaches in his classroom. There is conspicuous trait in those of this category to reflect on their career. They contemplate their past worth as teachers; they plan to carry forward their work with better collaboration, more peer conversation and invite suggestions and feedback from all quarters concerned. There are some teachers having different experience of their past work; they look for the better but foresee 'more of the same'. They develop fixed frame of mind and just move on in routine fashion.

E. Last Career Teachers (Proficient and Competent Teachers)

This stage comes after many years of experience. The teachers at this stage have acquired knowledge, mastered skills and experimented with lessons and coped with classroom situations. They have the ability to relate teaching with the socio- economic and politico-international contexts. They are very comfortable with their class room life. They thoroughly enjoy their role in classroom work. They possess the desirable trait of serenity.

However, there is change in their psyche when they get near retirement from the profession. They start showing symptoms of disinterest in teaching and gradually distance themselves from their students, more particularly emotionally. Majority of the teachers adopt this behaviour pattern. There are very few who exhibit the same level and degree of enthusiasm, energy and commitment as before, to remain emotionally and professionally attached and give their best till the last day in their career and engage in research in their subjects and problems.

F. Career Satisfaction Stage (Experienced Teachers)

Like all careers, teachers' career is crucial, critical and important. There is a strong linkage between one's career cycle and the expertise acquired. The structure and content are like our body (skeleton and flesh), necessary for support but gaining expertise through class room and experimentation is like spirit (soul) in our body. It elevates the theory to the level of practice and experiment and goes on to get elated at the plausible result; this end-result, with new strategies, changes and teaching style is reinforced by self-directed different behaviour pattern that brings forth satisfaction to the teacher. The learners (students) get a feel of personalized attention, encouragement, and get motivated to achieve the objective. Huberman (1993) found truth in this assertion. He says that classrooms level experimentation is at core of satisfaction to the teacher, not attained by mere structural reforms alone. Huberman has identified two factors contributing to career satisfaction.

Teachers got higher level of satisfaction in their career by effecting diversity in classroom teaching or they sought and implemented shift in their roles. Roles are to be understood as leading to performance where complete personality of the teacher comes into play. Development takes place when there are recurring episodes in class room presenting challenging situations to the teacher and, the existing repertoire is deficient to cope with the recurring episodes, never foreseen.

A teacher gets satisfaction when, in such context, he summons his knowledge, skills and past experience to handle the episode with careful thought, commonsense and creativity. Here, he transforms himself into more reflective analyst. This finding is corroborated by Bereiter & Scardamalia who say that expertise is developed in this manner and at a time when individuals work at the edge of their competence. They further said when teachers were asked to tell the 'best years' in their career, they mentioned those times as most satisfying when they were confronted with a situation of utter 'apathy' of students towards learning their lessons, and they (teachers) engaged such students in purposeful and thrilling (sportive) activities and subtly aroused the students' interest in learning pleasantly their lessons, which they considered earlier as dull and boring. The marked improvement in learning was self-celebrated as if treasures were discovered.

G. Expert Teachers

This is a station in the career path of teachers when they are experts – highly knowledgeable, most proficient and immensely experienced and undergone series of research projects – they assume the role of guide, friend and philosopher for other teachers who are at various stages of their professional development. John Hattie (2003) has undertaken massive research work (surveys) in the area of identifying the characteristics and traits of 'experts'. He has identified five major dimensions of expert teachers. These teachers are capable and infallible in their specialization and who can:
Identify essential representations of their subject;
Guide learning through classroom interaction;

Monitor learning and provide feedback;

Attend to affective attributes; and

Influence student outcomes.

Hattie and his research associates have found three dimensions which emerged from their work and that could distinctly tell experts from experienced teachers; these dimensions are –

Challenge

Deep representation

Monitoring and Feedback

All teachers set goals but individual differences lie in weight, value, degree, quality and space dimension as well as methodology and process adopted. Further, as education is contextual and cannot operate in vacuum, various variables are present and many times these cannot be predicted.

Therefore, expert teachers self-set challenging goals; others, more specifically the experienced teachers, set 'do the best' goals which contain less of challenge and more of practice, procedure and structure, generally. The expert teachers set challenging goals in student activities in the class, also. They try to create deep learning – relating and extending ideas and an intention to understand and impose meaning. The stress is on new understanding and attributing new meaning. Hattie and his colleagues further state that monitoring and feedback are significant, monitoring ensures implementation as expected and feedback helps in improving process, procedure and ideas. These will enhance achievement (quantitative and qualitative). It is within the competence of expert teachers to separate grain from chaff (relevant from irrelevant), they are able to relate to context, they are able to understand better, monitor more properly and interpret events and results better as they possess more insight, articulate feedback and interact with more helpful attitude.

Granted that experience is the stepping stone to expertise, it proceeds to state that both experience and expertise go hand in hand as friends in love. The cardinal difference lies in the fact that an expert teacher challenges himself and also, the students, and collaborates, guides, counsels the students and other teachers. An expert teacher, therefore, derives satisfaction and pleasure in challenges, he does not believe in routine movement. He is restless, sensitive and creative.

In Yemen and Saudi Arabia, high school teachers are placed in hierarchy. There are no gradations and they acquire seniority on the basis of the length of service rendered. They get annual increments and promotion to the higher level of Head Teacher by sheer seniority if the service record is spotless. Conceptually, they pass through the stages like novice, mid-novice, middle-level. Proficient and Expertise are a personal achievement and only a few strive for and achieve that.

As teachers' career cycle has much to do with organizational culture and behaviour, I need to add my views on organization, particularly managers in language teaching organizations (LTO manager).

IV. ROLE OF MANAGERS IN A LANGUAGE TEACHING ORGANIZATION (LTO MANAGER)

Can a manager or administrator or director or organizer contribute towards harnessing benefits from expertise and simultaneously mitigate the fatigue felt and withdrawal felt in the mid career and late career stages of a teacher? The answer can be yes or no, both. This depends upon the organizational culture and reward system. In many organizations, while remuneration in the first stage appears adequate, later on, there is no declared policy for career advancement and annual increase in salary is also a rarity; pick and choose is the policy. A reward system is not introduced; it does not exist at all in most of the cases. In the absence of a concrete reward system, the personnel often suffer from a lack of motivation and incentives. Fessler's Model contains provisions for organizational culture and reward systems. The culture of LTO is the foremost support to cultivate and sustain a conducive learning environment. Teachers' repertoire, well designed syllabus and smart list of student-centric activities are of no use as resources and support services are at low key. It is the job of manager or director (or head, by whatever name called) to be aware of the package of services and he must be trained in extending the needed facilities. He has to be trained and developed in the art and science of managing education, his quality lies in his appreciation of the role of teachers, including declared policies governing the career of teachers. He should possess positive attitude towards experimentation. As learning is a social process, there has to be lively community of practices to help newcomers to the teaching profession, settle down comfortably apart from encouraging sharing of good practices among its members. Richards and Farrell (2005) point out that such supporting contributions will be encouraged by LTO Managers by supporting, encouraging and resourcing continuing professional development. These will, then, be linked to Human Resource Management Systems of LTO through such practices as performance management.

Hattie (2003) points out *"whereas in other professions, excellence is esteemed and rewarded… in teaching, we reward primarily by experience, irrespective of excellence. We promote the best out of the class room. We have few goal posts to aim for the professional development, instead allowing others to define what latest fad, what new gimmick, what new policy will underline the content of professional development".*

Like tacit knowledge gathered and internalized through practice, experience and understanding, the expertise of mid and late career teachers should not remain unacknowledged and untapped because, then, it will remain an under-used resource for the LTO. A reward system which recognizes excellence will help students (learners), LTO and the

community at large if the expertise is profitably used through mentoring of novices to enable them overcome the challenges faced in this first phase of their careers.

V. Conclusion

Teaching, like biological and product life cycles, passes through various stages. The main stages in career development are novice (early, middle and late stages), mid career and late career teachers and expert teachers. As a result of super performance in their roles on the basis of experience, reflection analysis and high level proficiency and unmatched skill, as well as caliber of conceptualization, a few teachers get elevated to the 'super-expert' status or appointed fellows: they bring about changes in policies, practices, usher and in special styles to suit changing contexts. They are akin to trendsetters in the realm of education and frequently usher in positive and commendable changing in the teaching-learning process.

In order to develop professionalism among the teachers, the LTO has to plan to prepare for change in culture which may be a long drawn affair. It needs careful management and guidance. The LTO has to facilitate convergence and congruence of information and communication technology (ICT), harness powers of Mass Media as well as understanding teachers' and students' needs; and to create a conducive learning atmosphere with appropriate curricula, syllabi and other modern techniques. As Vivekananda says, "Education is the manifestation of the perfection already in man." Teaching brings this manifestation out. As education in the modern era is not less important than food or shelter, it needs to be given due priority by planners at the national level and encouragement by the Government to micro-level institutions to introduce practices and systems in the socio-political and cultural contexts, keeping in view the global environment. It would not be wrong to say that quality education is no more a luxury. It is rather a necessity in today's competitive and challenging times.

When we look outward into 'nature', we do find cycles: food chain is a cycle – a beginning and an end but in continuum. Every thing taking birth or growing spontaneously (without human effort) or with human effort, gets a definite lease of life. There is renewal or re-cycling: the cycles are repeated endlessly. Matter is indestructible; it only changes state or shape. There is decline after birth/growth. So is the case with teachers. They prepare to enter the profession, work assiduously to become proficient, experienced; they burn midnight oil to progress, and achieve high standard of teaching. Training is one aspect, reflection during teaching another aspect; updating knowledge is still another part; commitment and recognition play their part; in some cases, promotion at job to higher grade with attendant benefits and social prestige are other achievements; self-actualisation, in some cases, is consistent doing – doer is not present in the attitude - they excel and do not care a fig for return benefit from the system. In view of the emerging global scenario, contentment is not achieved untill there is pay-off. Nevertheless, the life cycle, on all counts and in all cases, does operate. A teacher generally strives hard for doing his/her best during the teaching career provided there is supporting environment. The latest change that has revolutionised the teaching-learning environment/climate is the greatly facilitating and fascinating (user friendly) gift of Information Technology (ICT) and that has enriched the teachers' life-cycle.

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Toward a Learning-centered EAP Instruction: An Attempt to Change Students' Reading Attitude

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Abstract—There have been remarkable improvements and modifications in TESOL methodology with the advent of post-method era; however, such changes are rarely implemented in fields like ESP. Therefore, a majority of learners and teachers are not satisfied with currently offered EAP courses. Hence, the present study aims at exploring the effect of a Learner-Centered Instruction on undergraduate students' reading attitude in an EAP context. Based on a pedagogical framework driven from Hutchinson and Waters' Learning-Centered ESP approach, it was assumed that such an approach would be effective in changing students' attitudes towards EAP reading through encouraging the use of effective strategies and learning skills. The participants aged 18 to 22, included 80 engineering students who were divided into an experimental group and a control group. Following a pretest, treatment and a posttest, the obtained data was analyzed using t-test to examine the effect of the independent variable, namely, method of instruction. The findings revealed that learning-centered EAP instruction improves reading attitude of EAP students. In addition, the findings provide implications for all EAP practitioners in general and Asian EAP practitioners in particular.

Index Terms—learning-centered instruction, EAP, reading attitude, reading comprehension, undergraduate EAP students

I. INTRODUCTION

English for Academic Purposes (EAP), developed as a category of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), aiming to concentrate more on curriculum and instruction in tertiary education rather than focusing on analysis and theory (Hyland, 2006). Similarly, as stated by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), the focus of ESP is mainly on teaching language in context in contrast to grammatical and structural instruction of language. Thus, an EAP course brings about an appropriate context whereby the students' needs and functions of language are the cornerstones of instruction. Despite the fact that equal importance is given to all four language skills in a general English class, the objective of an EAP course can be a specific skill required by the students for a particular purpose such as their reading skills and its development in order to comprehend the technical texts of their specialty areas (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987).

Similar to many EAP contexts in which English is considered as a foreign language, EAP is part of EFL instruction in Iran having a significant status in the tertiary education and all undergraduate students majoring in any fields of studies are required to pass EAP as a compulsory course subject (Moslemi, Moinzadeh, & Dabaghi, 2011). Undoubtedly, the most required EAP skill in students 'tertiary education has been reading comprehension (Jordan, 1997). Similarly, the main goal of EAP courses in Iran is defined as developing reading comprehension of students to read academic texts in their related fields of studies (Hayati, 2008; Erfani, Iranmhehr, & Davari, 2011; Farhady, Sajadi Hezhaveh, & Hedayati, 2010). In spite of the fact that huge educational and financial investments have been made on EAP programs, the majority of students and teachers are not satisfied with these so-called EAP classes (Eslami, 2010). As a main reason bringing about the general dissatisfaction with EAP courses, teaching methodology has an important role. Although the post-method era has led to significant improvements and modifications in TESOL methodology, such changes are seldom applied in fields like EAP. As a result, using the existing well-developed literature on TESOL methodology, EAP practitioners need to take this opportunity to implement effective teaching approaches to compensate for students' shortcomings in a specific area. However, according to Hayati (2008), since EAP classes are out of skillful and creative teachers who can employ communicative approaches in the classroom, the main methodology in EAP context is still traditional Grammar-Translation Method (GTM). It is practiced in teacher-centered classes tough being very outdated and inefficient in developing reading comprehension ability of students which in turn leads to the dissatisfaction of both learners and teachers with these EAP courses and students' negative ideas toward English reading (Hayati, 2008; Mazdayasna & Tahririan 2008; Ajideh, 2009; Farhadi et al., 2010; Erfani et al., 2011; Atai, 2011).

Therefore, it was hoped that a learning-centered EAP instruction which considers the learners' needs and learning process and takes into account the appropriate skills and techniques necessary for this purpose can help the learners accomplish their goals. To this end, adopting Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) learning-centered approach as an innovative approach into EAP class in tertiary education context of Iran, the present study aimed to investigate if such an approach has any effect on students' attitudes towards academic reading since many students are reluctant to attend EAP classes due to the inefficiency of these courses in improving reading comprehension of students as claimed by Hayati (2008), Ajideh (2009), Atai (2011).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There has been a considerable amount of research on learners' reading attitude; however, few studies have been conducted concerning the reading attitudes of EAP students with an emphasis on methodology in different EAP contexts. Thus, in order to provide a clear background on the research carried out in this realm, some recent and relevant studies need to be reviewed.

In a theoretical article concerning EAP methodology, Watson Todd (2003) emphasized the remarkable role of methodology in EAP asserting that much of the work carried out on EAP has concentrated more on teaching content than methodology and many EAP practitioners have mainly focused on the course content neglecting the role of methodology in EAP course design. Through investigating EAP teaching reports, the article provided six types of approaches to EAP instruction, namely inductive learning, learner autonomy, process syllabus, authenticity, technology, and team teaching. He mentioned some reasons to support the importance of methodology in EAP. As the first reason, Watson Todd (2003) highlighted the main objective of EAP instruction which is enabling students to effectively communicate in academic contexts. Therefore, regardless of the content to be covered, the process of reaching that objective receives a significant role. A second reason to emphasize EAP methodology is that wherever EAP teaching method has been taken into account, it has been quite innovative with some implications for general English teaching. As a third reason, he claimed that despite the differences between EAP and general English teaching in content, the idea that they also differ in methodology has not been clarified yet. Finally, Todd Watson (2003) maintained the contribution of focusing on the how of EAP instruction to EAP teacher training stating that unlike the existence of experienced teachers in core countries, many EAP teachers in periphery countries are novice teachers which need to be trained on how to teach EAP. In addition to these reasons, the nature of students in EAP context as being more mature, self-directed, and more aware has been mentioned as another factor characterizing EAP instruction.

In another study conducted with regard to ESP instruction in relation to the development of learners' different skills, Huang (2006) examined the ways that may motivate non-English major students to engage in EAP reading texts in an EFL context. He constructed a questionnaire including 18 statements describing various situations in which the students were motivated to read. The data was collected from 212 students of business in five randomly selected classes of a university of science and technology in Taiwan. Descriptive statistics showed that learners were most willing to read under three circumstances: when (1) teachers were available to answer the questions, (2) key points were highlighted clearly in textbooks, and (3) reading skills were taught (Huang, 2006). One can, therefore, infer from Huang's suggestion that teaching reading skills is one of the crucial factors that may motivate students to read efficiently. This, in turn, highlights the importance of teaching reading skills in an ESP and EAP program.

In EFL and EAP context of Iran as well, some related theoretical and empirical research studies have been carried out, among which some relevant ones are reviewed in the following.

Hayati (2008) has conducted a theoretical research study on ESP teaching challenges in Iran through which he sheds light on some common problems of ESP programs and gives some practical suggestions to improve their quality. In his study, he has asserted that although academic requirement of university students to pass ESP courses has dramatically increased, there is not enough literature on practical issues of these types of classes. He initiated his article elaborating on ESP branches and characteristics and moved forward to review different approaches of ESP. Then, he introduced Participatory Appraisal approach proposed by Holme and Chalauisaeng (2006) as a learner-centered approach that attempts to generate a positive attitude among learners to language learning and assist learners in attaining more self-direction to develop their reading comprehension. Having argued some general notions about ESP, he shifted to highlight the issues of Iranian ESP context. Hayati (2008) declared that not only ESP programs have not been well criticized and assessed, but also they have not received adequate attention from the experts in the field. He pointed out the dissatisfaction of many students and teachers with ESP classes and provided some reasons for this event. It is stated that among accepted objectives of ESP courses in Iran, reading to understand test items and poor translation skill to do the assignments are more dominant. The classes are teacher-centered in which teachers translate the texts into Persian and students write down the meanings and grammatical structures are only described occasionally. He resembled ESP classes in Iran to samples of Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) and criticized the ignorance of learner's role and autonomy in these classes. Finally, Hayati (2008) reported some observations on ESP classes and highlighted the lack of knowledgeable teachers and appropriate methodology as one of the key factors leading to the inefficiency of ESP programs.

In much the same vein, Kiani (2010) also aimed to explain the current problems of English Language learning and attitudes toward English in Iranian EAP context. She began her discussion by reviewing the historical overview of the

status of English language learning and teaching in Iran over the last 160 years. Then, coming to the present time, she pointed out the remarkable role of EAP courses as part of the curriculum for different academic disciplines in Iranian universities context. She highlighted that in spite of the great financial investment on English teaching in Iranian tertiary education, yet students cannot get satisfactory results in national and international proficiency tests which ,in effect, bring about both learners and teachers dissatisfaction of EAP courses. Kiani (2010) also mentioned that although there has been a systematic effort to create uniform EAP programs and discipline specific textbooks by the Center for Research and Development of Texts for University Students, well-known as SAMT in Iran, researchers criticized these textbooks for lacking communicative component and encouraging students to promote their reading skill merely through translation and grammatical skills (Farhdy and Hedayati, 2009). In addition, experts disapproved this approach, stating that it is unable to equip students with appropriate skills and strategies to succeed in their language learning objectives (Borjian, 2009). The important role of attitude in influencing learners' motivation to learn is also highlighted in this article supporting the idea that attitude is a major factor leading to failure or success in language learning (Gardner, 2007).

These studies have mainly focused on the theoretical aspects of EAP instruction There is a dearth of experimental studies and empirical evidence on the effects of innovative EAP instructions on undergraduate students' attitudes toward EAP reading. Thus, the current study was conducted to contribute to the learning-centered EAP instruction approach by filling in the gap on possible impacts of such methodology on improving the current status of EAP courses in Iranian university context.

III. METHOD

This research study adopted a quasi-experimental pre-test post-test control group design conducted to examine if a learning-centered instruction has any significant effect on students' attitudes towards EAP reading. To do so, two EAP classes were chosen and randomly assigned to be either a control group or an experimental group.

A. Participants

Eighty freshmen undergraduate students of engineering were selected from Urmia University of Technology in Iran forming two intact EAP classes. They were chosen by means of a background information questionnaire and a pre-test of English reading attitude. Homogeneity was established among the participants in terms of their age range (18-22), English Background, and university entrance exam English score.

B. Instruments

As far as research on reading comprehension is concerned, the key factors to consider include motivation, attitudes, age, language proficiency, English language experience and background knowledge (Alderson, 2000). It is believed that a rigorous control of these variables in the language learning contexts should be applied to get more generalizable findings as much as possible. Accordingly, a background information questionnaire adapted from Mackay and Gass (2005) was employed to select homogeneous participants and control as many intervening variables as possible.

Furthermore, a self-report Likert scale items questionnaire, adopted from Wu (2001), was utilized both in the pre-test and post-test stages to examine the possible change in students' attitudes toward academic English reading after implementation of the treatment. This questionnaire was utilized because it has been implemented in a similar context. It included 10 items with five scales from strongly agree to strongly disagree asking about students' ideas on reading in English. It was given to the students at the beginning of the study as a pre-test and at the end of the study as a post-test. To ensure the appropriateness of the questionnaire, its reliability and validity was measured prior to the study. The reliability result of the questionnaire using Cronbach's alpha formula revealed that it was in an acceptable range (r=0.76). In addition, the content validity of the questionnaire was also checked and confirmed by three experts in the field.

As the teaching material for the course, the book 'Select Readings' 2nd Edition written by Linda Lee, Erik Gundersen, and Jean Bernard (2011) and published by OUP was used. This four-level American English reading course uses carefully selected and high interest reading texts to empower students read effectively. It contains a range of exercises before and after reading aiming at developing reading skills, examining comprehension and improving vocabulary knowledge. Thus, it was assumed that it can fulfill the purpose of this study.

C. Procedure

The experiment and data collection began at the outset of academic semester. The two selected EAP classes were held two sessions (approximately 90 minutes) a week. The experimental class was taught through a learning-centered approach while the control group only received the traditional reading method (GTM). All the data was collected during an academic semester in almost 4 months. In the beginning, the background questionnaire was given to the learners to ensure the homogeneity of the participants and control the intervening variables as much as possible. In addition, reading attitude questionnaire was administered as the pre-test in order to compare any change in their attitudes before and after the treatment. Then, the treatment was implemented. After following 22 sessions of instruction, post-test was administered to check for any significant difference between the two groups in terms of their EAP reading attitudes.

The experimental class was taught through learning-centered method of EAP instruction proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), considering learners' needs, interests, existing and required learning skills to reach the desired target defined as successful reading comprehension in the curriculum. In order to provide learners with certain reading strategies required during reading comprehension, reading strategies were also instructed as effective tools to improve students' reading comprehension. The teacher devoted the first sessions of the class to introducing and teaching the reading strategies. Then, he tried to point out the important role of these strategies and skills in dealing with different types of academic English texts. Finally, he modeled a number of reading strategies, including skimming and scanning, summarizing, note taking, inferencing, organizing, guessing meaning, using clues, and identifying text organization and guided the students to utilize them in 22 sessions respectively. Simultaneously, the teacher considered learners' interest and emotions during the instruction as the principles of learning-centered approach. He tried to keep the students' interest in the course developing positive emotions in the classroom and avoiding negative emotions as much as possible through some techniques such as applying pair work and group work, giving students' time to think, emphasizing more on process rather than product and respecting attitude the same as ability. In addition, following the principles of learning-centered approach of ESP instruction as proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Jordan's EAP (1997), the teacher took into account learners' existing knowledge and skills in the content area and first language reading since these learners had already a high proficiency in their native language, thus, their knowledge in their native language was utilized to make them improve in EAP reading comprehension.

Generally, the learning-centered approach disapproving teacher-centered approaches considered learner's role in all stages of learning and teaching as an important factor in determining learning process.

IV. FINDINGS

Initially, descriptive statistics was performed to organize both the experimental and control groups' data on reading attitudes. The data of the pre-test of the sample were described in order to make sure whether the two groups were homogeneous prior to carrying out the main study. Yet, as far as the post-test scores are concerned, descriptive statistics as well as inferential statistics were conducted on the two groups. The descriptive statistics displayed that the participants who received the treatment in the experimental group including 40 students had a range of scores between 29 and 55 with a mean of 40.92 and a standard deviation of 5.11 in the post-test.

On the other hand, the descriptive statistics for the control group demonstrated that the participants in this group consisting of 40 students had a range of scores between 23 and 49 with a mean of 38.20 and a standard deviation of 5.98 in the post-test.

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics' results for the pre-test and post-test reading attitude administered to both the experimental and control groups before and after the treatment.

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE READING ATTITUDE SCORES

Group	Test	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD
Experimental	Pre-test	40	24	50	38.25	5.64
	Post-test	40	29	55	40.92	5.11
Control	Pre-test	40	27	49	39.02	5.92
	Post-test	40	23	49	38.20	5.98

As it can be observed in Table 1, the two groups had almost similar scores on their attitudes toward reading in the pre-test. However, according to the post-test scores, the two groups had different attitudes toward reading. The change in the mean scores of each group from the pre-test to the post-test is depicted in Figure 1.
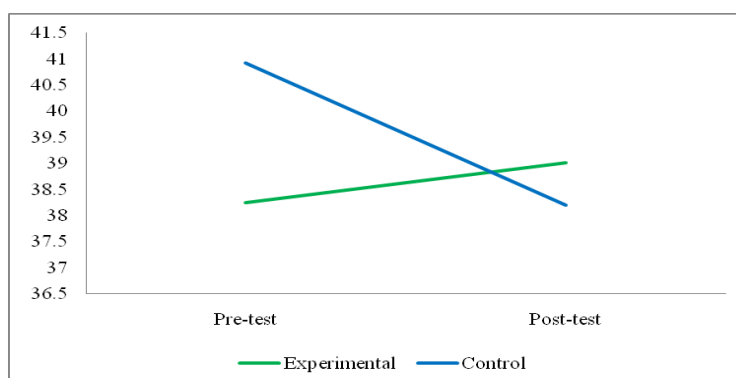

Figure I. Reading Attitude Mean of the Groups

Notably, based on the descriptive analysis of reading attitude questionnaire, the difference in the mean scores between the experimental and control group in the pre-test is almost small; however, this difference is a bit more in the

post-test and needs to be examined whether it is significant or not. As a result, to determine the significance of this difference, inferential statistical analysis was conducted.

In order to analyze the significance of the mean difference and to test the proposed assumption, t-test was used to measure the possible effect of the method on the student's academic English reading attitudes. The independent-samples t-test was employed to compare the means scores of the experimental group with that of the control group and the paired-samples t-test was further conducted to compare the pre-test and post-test scores within each group in an attempt to assess if any change had taken place in students' reading attitudes at the end of instruction. The results of t-test revealed that the teaching intervention had a significant effect (T = 2.18, P ≤ .05) on students reading attitude (Table 2). This means that the instruction was quite successful in improving students' EAP reading attitude.

TABLE II.
THE RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T TEST FOR READING ATTITUDE

Group	Mean	df	t	p
Experimental	40.92	78	2.18	.03
Control	38.20			

P ≤ .05

However, the within-group comparison conducted through paired samples t-test (Table 3) measuring the impact of the intervention on the students' scores, indicated a significant increase in the reading attitude scores of the experimental group from the pre-test (M=38.25, SD=4.10) to the post-test (M=40.92, SD=5.11, t(39)=-4.25, p=.00).

Furthermore, another paired-samples t-test was conducted on the control group to check any significant change in the reading attitude scores of this group at two different times in an attempt to make sure whether the change in the experimental group's scores was occurred by the influence of the independent variable, namely, learning-centered EAP instruction. The results of this analysis not only displayed no significant improvement in the reading attitude scores of the control group before (M=39.02, SD=5.92) and after the course (M=38.20, SD=5.98, t(39)=1.02, p=.31), but it demonstrated a minor fall in the attitude scores of the control group though this reduction was not significant.

Thus, it can be inferred that the experimental group had a considerable positive change in their reading attitudes due to receiving the learning-centered EAP instruction. On the other hand, it is implied that the control group almost developed a negative attitude after being taught with the common traditional method for a semester, although this change was not statistically significant. Table 3 depicts the results of the paired-samples t-test for the two groups.

TABLE III.
PAIRED-SAMPLES T TEST FOR THE READING ATTITUDE SCORES

Group	Time	N	Mean	SD	t	df	p
Experimental	Pre-test	40	38.25	4.10	-4.25	39	.00
	Post-test		40.92	5.11			
Control	Pre-test	40	39.02	5.92	1.02	39	.31
	Post-test		38.20	5.98			

P ≤ .05

In order to examine the effect size of the independent variable on the dependent variable; namely, reading attitude, the effect size statistic was conducted. According to Pallant (2005), effect size is a statistic used to determine the degree of total variance in the dependent variable through knowing independent variable and the amount of the difference between the means which is usually measured by eta squared. Commonly, eta squared amounts can be divided into three effect sizes: .01 for small effect, .06 for average effect, and .14 for large effect given by Cohen (1988, cited in Pallant, 2005).

The effect size calculation using eta squared showed number .05 which is close to .06 indicating almost a moderate effect of the instruction on reading attitudes of the students. In other words, the eta squared showed that 6 percent of the variance in reading attitude is brought about by the experimental treatment. Moreover, a very large effect size (d=.31) was obtained from the paired-samples t-test results of the experimental group. Therefore, it can be implied that the learning-centered instruction explained a very large amount of variation in reading attitude scores of the students. In other words, the eta squared .31 demonstrated that 31 percent of the change and variation in the reading attitude as the dependent variable is explainable by the manipulation of the treatment, namely, learning-centered EAP instruction as the independent variable in the experimental group.

In short, Iranian undergraduate students who receive learning-centered EAP instruction show an improvement in their attitudes toward reading in contrast to their peers who receive conventional reading instruction. Additionally, the students who were taught through traditional reading instruction were likely to make any change in their reading attitudes possibly due to their lack of interest in the type of instruction and a gap in their knowledge of reading strategies.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The findings of this study revealed that the type of instruction and teaching methodology plays an important role in shaping students' attitudes toward academic English reading. In other words, a learning-centered instruction which

focuses on learners' learning process and needs can change students' negative attitudes toward EAP reading and compensate for their dissatisfaction with teacher-centered EAP classes.

This study aimed to draw teachers' attention to the importance of learning-centered approaches and the significance of methodology other than syllabus design and evaluation (Watson Todd, 2003) in EAP context. The present study adds to the previous body of research carried out on the role of innovative reading instruction in academic contexts. It encourages the implementation of a learning-centered approach in EAP reading courses as opposed to teacher-centered GTM classes. It approves the implementation of all crucial principles of Hutchinson and Waters' learning-centered approach which encourage the consideration of learner and his or her preferences and needs along the leaning process.

As an influential factor in reading instruction, students' attitudes toward reading and their interest in reading should not be neglected. This is in line with Hutchinson and waters (1987) and Jordan's (1997) learning-centered ESP and EAP approaches respectively drawing attention to the effect of learners' attitude and motivation in their learning process highlighting the role of positive emotions in the classroom and calling attention to respecting the attitude and the ability of learners through having fun, and variety in instruction.

The implication of these findings is that the Iranian students of EAP with seven years of experience in learning English at school starting from junior high school are not only unable to benefit from the language and linguistic knowledge they have learned during this period but also they cannot apply this knowledge in reading comprehension tasks. This is also in line with the extensive agreement among scholars (Riazi, 2005; Borjian, 2009; Farhady & Hedayati, 2009; Farhady et al., 2010) claiming the inefficiency of English programs at Iranian schools which revolve around sort of teacher-centered grammar-translation method with passive students not prepared for performing communicative and functional tasks and becoming language users. The same problem exists and goes on in the universities where the type of materials designed and used for the English courses are mainly promoting vocabulary and grammar knowledge neglecting communicative aspect of language (Amirian & Tavakkoli, 2009; Borjian, 2009; Farhady et al., 2010). Therefore, as also stated by Hayati (2008) and Kiani (2010) a negative attitude develops and dissatisfaction arises toward English reading and EAP classes as a result of their inefficiency in terms of developing communicative language skills of students and preparing them for successful reading comprehension in their EAP courses.

Furthermore, it can be concluded that a learning-centered instruction in EAP context, in contrast to the traditional teacher-centered grammar translation instruction, can be effective in helping students improve their reading comprehension and, this in turn, aids students develop a positive attitude toward EAP reading courses since they are satisfied with their achievement at the end of the course. In other words, the inefficiency of the methodologies and instruction in developing reading comprehension of the learners is the main reason leading to the dissatisfaction of students and even teachers with EAP courses as highlighted by Hayati (2008). Therefore, it can be concluded that, a learning-centered instruction is not only effective in enhancing reading comprehension of the students, but also it can change their ideas on the EAP course and the whole curriculum. The teacher-centered approach that is employed in teaching reading in English does not seem to encourage active participation on the part of the students. Therefore, the lack of learner autonomy in the class leads to a generally negative attitude toward English reading. The students usually find the class instruction as boring and machine-like feeling anxious about being able to answer the comprehension questions after the reading passages. In effect, the EAP students would develop negative self-concepts as passive readers of academic English texts. Teachers should not neglect their students' difficulties in reading academic English texts and attempt to motivate students to use their existing skills and background knowledge while involved in reading tasks (Kaur, 2013). Additionally, as stated by Musa, Koo and Azman (2012) as students reading comprehension improves and they become proficient readers, their motivation increases and, as a result, their interest is preserved and they start to have positive attitudes toward reading.

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A Corpus-based Machine Translation Method of Term Extraction in LSP Texts

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Abstract—To tackle the problems of term extraction in language specific field, this paper proposes a method of coordinating use of corpus and machine translation system in extracting terms in LSP text. A comparable corpus built for this research contains 167 English texts and 229 Chinese texts with around 600,000 English tokens and 900,000 Chinese characters. The corpus is annotated with mega-information and tagged with POS for further use. To get the key word list from the corpus, BFSU PowerConc software is used with the referential corpora of Crown and CLOB for English and TORCH and LCMC for Chinese. A VB program is written to generate the multi-word units, and then GOOGLE translators' toolkit is used to get translation pairs and SDL trados fuzzy match function is applied to extract lists of multi-word terms and their translations. The results show this method has 70% of translated term pairs scoring 2.0 in a 0~3 grading scale with a 0.5 interval by human graders. The methods can be applied to extract translation term pairs for computer-aided translation of language for specific purpose texts. Also, the by-product comparable corpus, combined with N-gram multiword unit lists, can be used in facilitating trainee translators in translation. The findings underline the significance of combing the use of machine translation method with corpora techniques, and also foresee the necessity of comparable corpora building and sharing and Conc-gram extracting in this field.

Index Terms—term extraction, comparable corpus, GOOGLE machine translation, fuzzy match, language for specific purpose

I. INTRODUCTION

Automatic extraction of terms, especially if they are multiword expressions (MWEs), has come to a growing thorny problem for the natural language community and corpus linguistics. Indeed, although numerous knowledge-based symbolic approaches and statistically driven algorithms have been proposed, efficient extraction method still remains an unsolved issue (Li, 2010). This paper is to examine the possibility of refining term extraction methods by combining machine translation and corpora, and try to make full discovery of how to coordinate between them, and exploit the way of using these tools, which are with a highly complementary functions, to fulfill the proximal recall of bilingual term translation pairs.

II. DISCUSSING THE CORPUS-BASED METHODS

Corpus linguistics has come to be beyond the sense of methodology for conducting language research, but also a new research domain as a theoretical approach to the study of language (McEnery, 2007). The fast growing volume of corpus and the increasing sophisticated analytic techniques have brought about the fundamental changes to language research. As to the applications, there could be unlimited uses of corpus in all fields of linguistic research, natural language processing, and etc. For this research in particular, right type of corpora have to be designed and used for extracting terminologies in translational studies.

A. Designing the LSP Corpus

There are different types of corpora, considering the language, contents, structure, times, tags and annotations. The common types include general corpora, historical corpora, specialized corpora, learner corpora, speech corpora, multimedia corpora and parallel and comparable corpora, etc. For designing this research, it is better to distinguish between comparable corpora and parallel corpora. As described in Baker (2004) and McEnery (2003), a comparable corpus includes similar texts in more than one language, between which there are similar criteria of text selection though that similarity can vary greatly in researchers' own regards, and a parallel corpus contains texts that are produced simultaneously in different languages, or in another word there are source texts and their translations. Comparable corpora are most suitable for this research, for there are no negative influence of translators in parallel corpora and both English and Chinese texts will be of genuine language uses.

In this research, the size of the needed corpus is around 600,000 English tokens and 900,000 Chinese characters. Though, some web retrieval tools or web spider/crawler programs can be used to download materials from the Internet automatically and quickly, and save a lot of manpower, the texts gathered in this way are of low expected quality and need a large amount of filtering and selecting work. So the researcher has chosen to manually search and download the materials for building the corpus, which is slow but of high cost-efficiency. In the corpus building process, Notepad++ and Editpad Pro are used to clean-up the texts because they are supported with powerful regular expressions and batch processing. Finally, Stanford Tagger is used in segmenting, POS tagging, and de-tokenization.

To keep the external validity of the texts in corpora, the LSP (language for specific purpose) texts are limited only to contracts, and GOOGLE and BAIDU search engine are used to retrieve texts on the Internet by inputting search terms with obvious field domain markers and time restrains in contracts' texts, which are then downloaded for further processing and included in the corpus. To balance the English and Chinese texts in the comparable corpus, English and Chinese texts of the same topic will be selected in a 2:3 proportion, i.e. in general there will be 167 English texts and 229 Chinese texts. The frequency distribution of English text tokens and Chinese text characters are as in Fig. 1.:
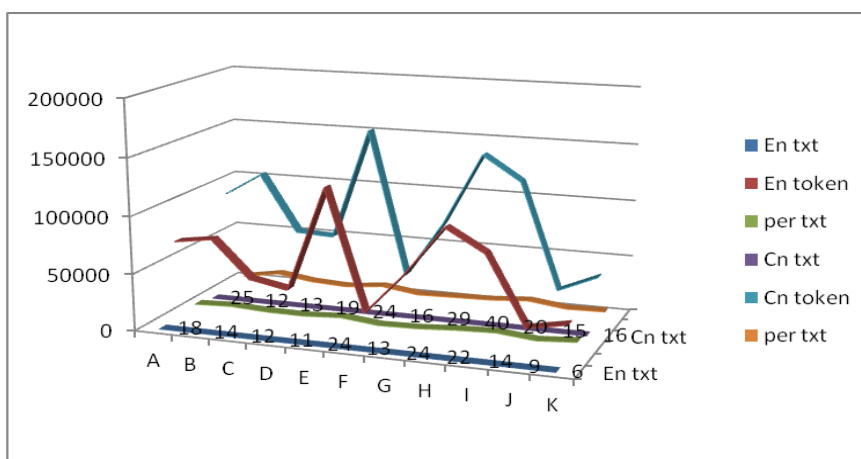
Fig. 1.:A~K represent categories of texts based on contract topics, A is information science and technology cooperation agreement; B is construction engineering projects; C is management and business; D is after-sale service; E is finance; F is confidentiality agreement; G is leasing agreement; H is authorization document; I is purchase agreement; J is employment agreement; K is patient fact sheet

B. Key Words Extraction

Corpora with parallel bilingual texts or multi-lingual texts are usually not large-scale general corpora; rather they are about specialized language uses. Related researches could be the comparison of text features of specific type of genres, or extraction of the translation pairs, etc. Among them is key word extraction, an essential part of the techniques used in text mining.

One text feature in specialized language uses is keyword list. Key words are those that show "aboutness" of texts (Scott and Tribble, 2007). Thus, key words are not necessarily those with high frequency, but those in significantly different use frequency, either particularly higher or lower in use. Key words undoubtedly show the language features of certain domain.

A popular algorithm for key word indexing is the TF-IDF method, i.e. term frequency–inverse document frequency, a numerical statistic which reflects how important a word is to a document in a collection or corpus. As reported in Matsuo (2004), the TF-IDF value increases proportionally to the number of times a word appears in the document, but is offset by the frequency of the word in the corpus, which helps to remove those unwanted and make efficient recall of authentic key words for the fact that some words are generally more common than others. Another method is N-GRAM, i.e. a contiguous sequence of n items from a given sequence of text from a corpus (Ohsawa, 1998). These two methods both use a corpus, and they differ in that TF-IDF method remove stems and stop-words first, while N-GRAM calculate the weight of strings or words of certain length. They use log-likelihood or X^2 as the measurements to decide the degree of bias of the co-occurrence distribution in one corpus and another reference corpus.

Now corpus tools can be used to find the key words in texts by automatically calculating the log-likelihood or X^2 if the observed and referential corpora are available for use. These tools include AntConc, BFSU PowerConc, etc. In this research, BFSU PowerConc is used to extract word lists from both the observed corpus and referential corpus, namely the words and their frequencies, then find out the key words with the log-likelihood (LL) or X^2 measures (Xu, 2012). The larger the LL or X^2 value, the significant use of the words in the observed corpus compared with the referential corpus. In this research, some general corpus, such as the now-popular Crown and CLOB (The 2009 Brown family corpora) for English, and TORCH Corpus and LCMC for Chinese are used instead of a corpus of language use for special purpose, because the contracts vary greatly in language use, i.e. the word uses are not limited to a specific language genre. Their

total size is about 8,000,000 English tokens or Chinese characters, which is, more or less, five times the size of the comparable corpora used for this research.

C. Multi-word Unit Extraction

There are great amounts of literature on the study of multi-word units (MWUs) and so its operating definitions also vary greatly. According to Prentice (2011), scholars have put forward more than 61 terms that are synonyms to multi-word unit. One clarification should be made that not all co-occurring words are formulaic and chunks can also have slots and often are not continuous sequence in natural languages. Compared with collocation, the operating definitions of MWUs are not precise and thus most researchers suggest a combined method of manual and computer-aided coordination. Wordsmith Tools (available from   http://www.lexically.net/) have a cluster function program that can be used to generate multi-word units, but it cannot be adapted to extract MWUs in an assigned place within a sentence in a target corpus. Additionally, statistical   methods cannot be usable because they will over-generate acceptable strings when comparing co-occurrence of words in prefabricated   strings with their separate occurrence in a corpus. So to get rid of the inefficiency, these using tools should be held with caution due to the heavy manual correction work afterwards. A considerable manual work may be necessary to eliminate those unwanted results. Therefore, a novel method has to be researched.

In this study, the starter words have already been generated in the key word extraction process described in the previous part. So, a program is written with the Visual Basic language and the Natural Language Toolkit (NLT), which can be easily accessed via the Internet from http://ishare.iask.sina.com.cn/download/explain.php?fileid=24767255 and http://code.google.com/. One should also not rely too much on computer tools and should be cautious of using statistical measurement values, such as log-likelihood and X^2 and mutual information and T-scores. The MWUs may not the same if using different measurements, and so it may be advisable to use both measurements to find those that frequently appear in each list.

III. DISCUSSING THE MACHINE TRANSLATION METHODS

Makoto Nagao(1984) first proposed the example-based machine translation (EBMT) method, proposing that translation can be better done with machine by segmenting sentences into translation units, such as clauses and phrases, and then these segments are restructured and translated. Based on this theory, machine translation is generated from the examples in bilingual corpus. But, the EMBT method needs a considerably large reference corpus with bilingual sentence examples, which need huge human and financial resources to build. If the coverage and size of the corpus is limited, computers cannot find perfect matches for the translation. It is for these reasons that the EMBT method may well be used as a plug-in method to improve efficiency and quality of human transition rather than replace it(Dietzel, 2009).

GOOGLE translators' toolkit is such a powerful machine translation tool in that this system has stored a vast amount of bilingual or multilingual translation pairs, which can also be taken as a good way to find equivalent pairs for linguistic constructions in comparable corpora. Moreover, many CAT tools, such as SDL trados, déjà Vu, wordfast, etc., are equipped with fuzzy matching function, which can be made the best use of if there is a translation memory available for comparing the similarities rate between the target and source translation units. Thus, MWUs generated from the comparable corpora will be first processed by GOOGLE machine translation to get translation pairs for both English and Chinese MWUs, and then be made into a translation memory, which will be used by a CAT tool to retrieve the term pairs with the closest similarities from TM. The results will be evaluated by graders to assess the accuracy of recall.

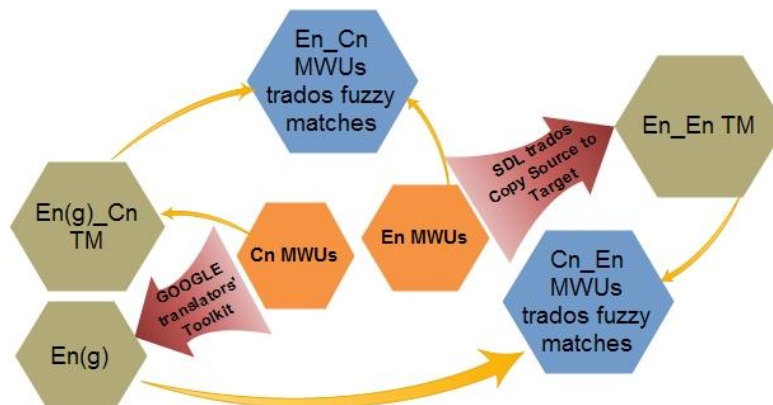Chart 1: En and Cn represent the English and Chinese languages respectively; En(g) is the Google translation results of Chinese MWUs; E(g)_Cn TM and En_En TM are two MWUs' translation memory

This flow chart demonstrates the procedure of how to generate English-Chinese MWUs' translation pairs and Chinese-English MWUs' translation pairs. The Chinese MWUs are first translated into English via Google translators'

toolkit, and then made into a TM, which will be used to generate fuzzy matches for English MWUs with thresholds set as a range with different values from 75%, 80%, 85%, 90% and 95%. To get the translation pairs of English MWUs, a English-English TM is first built by copying source into target in SDL trados, and then this TM, containing nothing but the English MWUs, is applied to the process of finding fuzzy matches with a threshold set as a range with different values from 75%, 80%, 85%, 90% and 95% for En(g), which is the Google translated result of Chinese MWUs. After both process, two lists of MWUs translation pairs have been achieved.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The results from the MWU translation pair extraction process will be put into Excel for manual evaluation and selection. A seven grading scale is used by the human graders, i.e. 0-3 points at a 0.5 interval. The Pearson correlation co-efficiency for the graders are assessed after the grading process, which reaches as high as 0.78 though with a slight difference in assessing English-Chinese and Chinese English MWU translation pairs. The results are presented in two diagrams as follows:
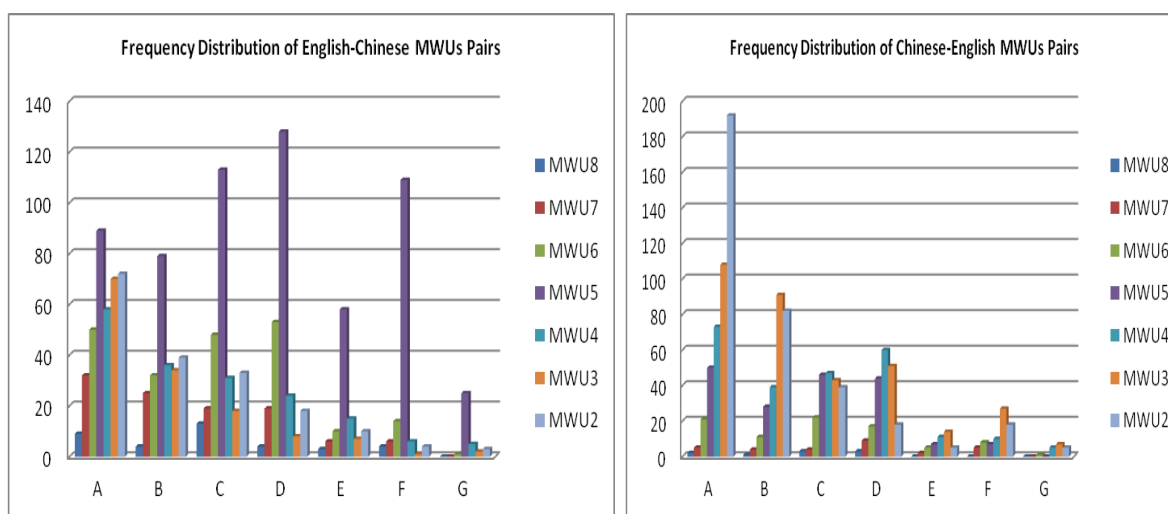
In graph 1, on the left, and graph 2, on the right, A-G stands for the seven grading scales by the human graders, i.e. 3.0, 2.5, 2.0, 1.5, 1.0, 0.5, 0.0 respectively. MWU 1-8 are the multi-word unit translation pairs.

According to the graph 1, i.e. the frequency distribution of English-Chinese MWUs pairs, MWU 5 makes up the largest portion in every grading scale. This makes sense in that five-word MWUs constitute almost 45% of the total MWUs extracted from the corpora. Also this implies that necessary caution should be taken to select good matches from the five-word MWUs translation pairs. It is good to see that MWU 4, MWU 3, MWU 2 produce the most desirable results. These matches are high in quality and also great in number of recall.

In graph 2, i.e. the frequency distribution of Chinese-English MWUs pairs, MWU 4 has the high recall rates but the corresponding accuracy is also low. This can be explained by the frequent use of four-character words in the Chinese language. Strikingly new is the large recall of MWU 3 and MWU 2 with also high accuracy. This implies that for Chinese to English translation pair extraction, two and three character words can produce the most desirable results. Those exceeding four characters, such as those MWUs with 5-8 words are not useful in terms of cost-efficiency.

Moreover, among the total number of 1326 English-Chinese MWUs translation pairs and 1154 Chinese-English translation pairs, those produced in 95-100% fuzzy matches and scoring more than 2 in human assessment both make up around 40% of the total recall, and those in 75-94% fuzzy matches and scoring more than 2 in human assessment both make up also around 30% of the total recall. Though the dispersion of the distribution tilts sharply to the 95%-100% and 75%-80% fuzzy matches, i.e. those in between are both low in frequency of occurrences and in quality. This further proves the methods used in this research are applicable and worthwhile. But, focus need to be on improving the accurate recall of 2, 3, 4, and 5 words or characters MWUs.

Take a close look at the results, and one will find that there are several matches in Chinese translations for English terms, thus should not limit their choices to only one at all. Though the extracted matches are not 100% terms, they are useful when added to translation memory and providing translators with suggestions on their translations. Also, those within 75-94% fuzzy matches are acceptable translations since human graders' evaluations provide further evidence of their usefulness.

However, some discussions should be made on the incorrect matches as is indicated in human graders' assessment. The mismatches are largely due to the shortcomings of Google machine translation, since correct translation pairs still cannot be accessed in its vast example data base due to the following factors. Firstly, two-word units are too short to

provide clear context or contain functional words. These can be avoided to a certain extent if a stop list can be premade to eliminate some results, but the precision and recall are on a contrary relation and a balance is not possible in this sense. Secondly, MWUs of passive or negative structure can result in many mismatches in Google translation, since the machine translation system will omit the words of negation and take passive voice for active voice, which will both cause wrong translations. Thirdly, some Chinese prefabricated chunks are hard to process for Google machine translation system. Comparing the following two pairs, "non-agreed to by Party B of, without the consent of Party A" and "Party B's prior written consent, without the consent of Party A written", the first one is wrong and second one is correct, but both are provided for two MWUs with only one Chinese character difference. Fourthly, there are clear intra-language differences for collocates with high mutual information with the frequently used terms in Chinese and English contracts text. By searching the comparable corpus, one will find there seam not significant overlap of collocate uses for terms about "termination, survival, court, damage and harm, invalid and confidential", etc., and the sentence structure to express these concept in contexts also vary greatly in sentence length and word variety. Deep level structures instead of the word level segments intra-language differences can account for these difficulties in having correct Google machine translation results.

In all, this research has combined machine translation technique with fuzzy match function of computer-aided translation memory system, in which similarity calculation and automatic translation can be both accomplished easily. Thus, this research is to apply simple theory and easily-accessible tools to make full use of comparable corpus in translation term extraction, through which the disadvantages of the now-popular method of using parallel corpus in term extraction can be avoided.

V. APPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The methods to extract MWUs translation pairs used in this research are useful in many aspects. This is another contribution to computer-aided translation (CAT) in that it can provide multi-word units alignment, which is larger than some terms and smaller than sentences. According to Koehn (2003), these MWUs translation pairs are better reference sources in CAT in terms of storage and retrieval efficiency. Among the extracted MWUs translation pairs in this research, there are terms, phrases, and large number of prefabricated chunks. These pairs can be directly used in computer-aided translation if properly built into a term memory in TMX or tab-separated txt format. Moreover, similar to those described in Castillo (2010), these methods of combing MT with corpus, if properly handled, can generate useable results for natural language processing specialists as training materials for improving machine translation system and then apply the machine translation methods to expand parallel corpora.

The proposal of using corpus in translation has long been made as early as in Baker (1993, 1995, 1996) and Laviosa (1998). But as indicated in the research by Garcia (2010), machine translations, such as Google translators' toolkit, trainee translators indeed benefit from the recommended translations. The present research is of great significance in that it has investigated the possibility of how to include such machine translation and make the best of the modern computer-aided translation tools and natural language processing methods. By the way, the subsequent corpus built with these methods for the present research is efficient to be used in preparatory training classes for translators working for a language-specific domain. Trainee translators can use machine translation to seed the empty segments in their computer-aided translation tools and can frequently search with key words for asserting their uses in sentence contexts in the corpus to achieve better translation results.

For future research, an approach should be found to make the comparable corpora of language for special purposes (LSP) available for research uses. It is time-consuming and financially unaffordable to build comparable corpora for every LSP area. For this research, the corpus cannot be made public with immediate access because of copy right protection, which remains a thorny issue to be settled. Another technique problem still poses considerable difficulties to expand the research from N-gram to Conc-gram dimension, which is considered a trendy issue in multi-word unit extraction (Greaves, 2009). Google machine translation system used in this research also produce wrong results for many MWUs due to that its accuracy for translating Chinese are heavily influenced by the correct segmentation of Chinese words, which is a necessary step in this research. Researches have confirmed that it is still difficult to attain 95% accurate segmentation of Chinese (Huang, 2007). And also the currently available corpus tools are not compatible to process Chinese Conc-gram, which makes the expansion of the present study difficult. These factors make it hard for ordinary translators to extract translation term pairs, but still keep the door open to those who know translation well and also are good at programming and other advanced computer uses. So, in the future, another work could be on improving the accurate segmentation of Chinese words or using alternate way of using machine translation system to use Conc-grams in generating translation pairs for multi-word units.

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A Sociolinguistic Study of Language and Gender in *Desperate Housewives*

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Abstract—Since language is used as a tool for human communication, it is inevitably featured by gender. For quite a long time, language and gender study has been a heated issue in sociolinguistics and pragmatics. Former studies focus on linguistic levels such as phonology, grammar, syntax and gender differences. However, few of them are conducted in specific contexts. With the development of society, language and gender study in a certain context deserves to be conducted. Under such background, the proposed research examines language and gender in *Desperate Housewives* based on conversational analysis as its theoretical framework. It randomly selects each episode from all eight seasons as data source and adopts quantitative and qualitative analysis, comparison and contrast method. The study mainly concentrates on differences in the amount of talk, the amount of turns and distribution of them. Its findings are as follows. In terms of the amount of talk, men use more words to compose more sentences. In other words, they are much more talkative than women. In the aspect of the amount of turns, men are inclined to take the turn floor for a longer time. In a word, the proposed research, though has some limitations, is of theoretical and practical significance.

Index Terms—sociolinguistics, language and gender, *Desperate Housewives*

I. INTRODUCTION

As a branch of macro-linguistics, sociolinguistics has come into being since the 1960s in America. Since then, it has involved many significant research topics, among which is language and gender. As Wardhaugh (2000) states, "A major topic in sociolinguistics is the connection, if any, between the structures, vocabularies, and ways of using particular languages and the social roles of the men and women who speak these languages" (P. 309). The topic has evoked heated discussion. And a large amount of scholars at home and abroad have contributed a lot to its study, such as Lakoff, Trudgill, Zimmerman, West, Thorne, Henley and Bolinger abroad and Chen Jianmin, Du Wenli, Yang Yonglin, Zhao Ronghui, and so on.

Generally speaking, most of the studies on language and gender focus on the following three aspects: gender differences in language; sexism in language; causes for gender differences and sexism in language. Few of them are conducted in specific contexts. Among these contexts, *Desperate Housewives*, created by Marc Cherry, enjoys the highest popularity. The show contains a large number of authentic and daily conversations between males and females, which can serve as a typical and representative data source of language and gender study. Besides, former studies are carried out from the perspective of pragmatics and stylistics, but few from the perspective of sociolinguistics. The proposed research therefore will compensate for such insufficiency in the hope of obtaining some useful insights into and adding fresh blood to language and gender study.

In this study, Conversational Analysis (CA) functions as the theoretical framework for it is quite suitable for the study of conversation and gender. Based on former studies on language and gender and CA, the author originally divides this analysis into two main parts: the analysis of the amount of talk and the analysis of turn-taking.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions:

With research background and the thesis statement in mind, we can now put forward the following two questions:
Research question one: What are the differences between men and women in the amount of talk?
Research question two: Whether there are differences in the amount of turns and distribution of them?

B. Data Source and Data Collection

The data employed in this proposed research is exclusively from the well-known American TV series, *Desperate Housewives*. The author randomly chooses one episode of each season as the subject of study not only because it is popular with viewers all over the world, but also because it contains many daily conversations among men and women. This makes it suitable for the study of language and gender.

In terms of data collection, the study randomly selects one episode of each season for the sake of scientific and objective purpose. In order to gain the exact and proper data, the author first downloads the 8 episodes of the eight seasons from the Internet. Then they are played over and over again via the media player. Meanwhile, relevant speeches and conversations between men and women are written down on paper for later observation and analysis. After all these,

the data on language and gender in this series goes through the analysis procedures mentioned in III for a scientific and systematic study.

C.   Research Methodology

In terms of research methodology, it refers to the combination of research methods. The methods used in the proposed research can be classified as a case study with the combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis. The quantitative approach is to use tables and figures to show the differences in the amount of talk and turns. The qualitative approach is to give a systematic description of the data.

The exact analysis procedure proceeds in the following way. Since the conversational analysis serves as the theoretical framework, a thorough analysis of language and gender in *Desperate Housewives* will be conducted from two main aspects: the analysis of the amount of talk and the analysis of turn-taking. To be specific, the analysis of the amount of talk will concentrate on the amount of words and sentences; the analysis of turn-taking will focus on the amount of turns and the distribution of them. In the process of analysis, statistic exploration will be demonstrated in tables. Following it, qualitative analysis will be made to fully study gender differences in these two aspects in this show. Meanwhile, comparison and contrast method is employed so as to make a scientific and systematic study. After the detailed analysis, the author arrives at a conclusion of the proposed research by clarifying major findings, limitations and suggestions for further studies.

III.   THE STUDIES OF LANGUAGE AND GENDER

Since the proposed research is intended to analyze language and gender in *Desperate Housewives* from the perspective of sociolinguistics, it is necessary to have a brief review of studies on language and gender and *Desperate Housewives* respectively.

A.   The Studies of Language and Gender Abroad

The earliest research about language and gender can be traced back to as early as ancient Greek. At that time, many dramas witnessed gender differences in language. However, it was not until the early 20th century that language and gender attracted anthropologists' and linguists' attention.

Though there is a trend to study language and gender, it has not become an independent linguistic topic until the 1960s, when feminist movement appeared and sociolinguistics advanced. In the 1770s, such well-known linguists as Lakoff, Trudgill, Zimmerman, West, Thorne and Henley made a great contribution to the study by exploring the social roots of gender differences in language. Gradually, researches and studies began to flourish. In the early 1980s, Bolinger and other linguists thought of gender differences in language as a kind of sexism.

In recent years, conversational analysis serves as a new and important approach in the study of language and gender. It is regarded as an influential branch in the modern gender language field for it has broadened its scope into a variety of formal and informal settings, and connected gender with conversational features, such as the amount of talk and turns.

Generally speaking, the studies abroad emphasize on three aspects: gender differences in language; sexism in language; causes for gender differences and sexism in language. Based on the studies abroad, the proposed research adopts the conversational approach and tries to make a deep analysis of language and gender in *Desperate Housewives*, in the hope of adding fresh blood to relevant studies.

B.   The Studies of Language and Gender at Home

The relevant researches on language and gender in China began in the late 1970s and early 1980s. In the general, the domestic researches fall into four aspects: introduction to western theories; sexism reflected in language; gender differences in language; gender differences in communication.

The first is introduction to western theories including translation of theories, theory summaries and book comments like Yang Yonglin (1991)'s and Zhao Ronghui (1999)'s summaries of the studies abroad. The second is sexism reflected in language, especially the one towards women. Studies by Du Wenli (1993) and Chen Jianmin (1999) are of significance in this regard. The third is gender differences in language. Most analysis materials are English. The most representative works are from Yang Yonglin (1993). They show gender differences in phonological, lexical and syntactical levels. The last is gender differences in communication. Such study is a hot issue which ranges from conversational structures and strategies to conversational styles.

In spite of the above mentioned achievements, there are also limitations. Most of the studies focus on linguistic levels. As a result, discussions on conversational levels are insufficient. Furthermore, a large number of studies are decontextualized. Therefore, the proposed research intends to deeply analyze language and gender in an actual context, especially the conversational structures in *Desperate Housewives*.

C.   The Studies of Desperate Housewives

Desperate Housewives, created by Marc Cherry, is an American TV series. Since its premiere on American Broadcasting Company on October 3, 2004, it has been translated into many languages, and broadcast in more than 130 countries all over the world.

The show is set in the street of Wisteria Lane in the fictional American town of Fairview. It is composed of eight

seasons, each season having a new housewife join in. It mainly tells the unknown life of four housewives from the perspective of Mary Alice who commits suicide with a gun in her house. The four heroines, Susan, lynette, Bree and Gabrielle, are distinct housewives. Faced up with secrets, crimes hidden behind their neighborhood, they finally get through family and neighbor struggles.

Due to its popularity, *Desperate Housewives* has become a hot research data. However, former studies are mostly from pragmatics and stylistics and few from sociolinguistics. Researchers intended to investigate how pragmatic principles are observed or violated in conversations. Additionally, the show contains many daily conversations among women and men. Thus, it is quite suitable for the study of language and gender.

IV.   ANALYSIS OF LANGUAGE AND GENDER IN *DESPERATE HOUSEWIVES*

The following is a thorough and detailed analysis of language and gender in *Desperate Housewives*. We mainly focus on the amount of talk and turns, and the distribution of them.

A.   Analysis of the Amount of Talk

In the general, amount of talk means how much a speaker speaks in a conversation. Its study concerning gender is to study which gender is more talkative. As is widely acknowledged, women are more talkative. A large amount of former studies have proven this belief. However, recent studies challenge it. Mary M. Talbot (1998), in her book *Language and Gender: An Introduction*, made the conclusion that men are more talkative under some occasions. Many other scholars further deepened the study and arrived at the same conclusion.

Then, how about the result in *Desperate Housewives*? Can the results of previous studies applied to the TV series? The author will investigate it in the following paragraph. The author will employ the common method which compares the total amount of words and sentences, and the average amount of them of both genders.

The table presents the findings of the amount of words and sentences in the eight episodes extracted from the American TV series *Desperate Housewives*.

TABLE 1
TABLE OF AMOUNT OF TALK

Items ⟍ Gender	Word amount	Sentence amount	Average sentence length	Word ratio	Sentence ratio
Males	2107	274	7.69	69.2%	61.2%
Females	938	174	5.39	30.8%	38.8%
Total	3045	448	13.08	100%	100%

From the table above, it can be seen that among the 3045 words, there are 2107 used by males, accounting for 69.2%, while 928 used by females, accounting for 30.8%. In terms of the amount of sentences, males use the 2107 words to compose 274 sentences, taking up 61.2% of the total number. However, females only compose 174 sentences, taking up 38.8% of the total number. This clearly manifests that men speak far more than women in conversations. This finding is in accordance with that of Mary M. Talbot (1998) that men, in a conversation between both genders, are relatively more talkative.

The conversation below is extracted from the first episode of the eighth season. It happens between the perfect housewife Bree and the priest Reverend Sykes. After Bree's boyfriend, Keith, left him, she invited Reverend Sykes to her house to have a talk, which, she thought, may help her feel relieved. The analysis can help us fully understand the conclusion above.

Example one:

Reverend Sykes: Thank you, Bree. It always brightens my day when you invite me to visit.

Bree: Well, Reverend Sykes, I very much enjoy your company.

Reverend Sykes: As I do yours. (Silence for three seconds) So… have you killed someone?

Bree: Excuse me?

Reverend Sykes: I've always found the treats you prepare for my visits are a reliable indicator of your level of spiritual turmoil. The more exquisite the baked goods, the more anguished your soul. This…is a hazelnut chocolate chip scone with currants. So I ask again—have you killed someone?

Bree: No. It's just…Lately, I feel like Job. You know, Job, from the old testament?

Reverend Sykes: I'm familiar with the book. Thank you. Why do you think you're Job?

Bree: I just feel that God has taken everything away from me. I lost my business, my children never call me, and…my boyfriend Keith has left me.

Reverend Sykes: Well, it's not exactly body boils and dead camels, but I understand what you're saying. When I complained after I was not accepted into Yale Divinity School, my father had no sympathy. Instead he drove me from our lovely home in Connecticut to a dangerous section of the Bronx and forced me to hand out blankets to the homeless.

Bree: I see. That's the reason you're always been so sensitive to the plight of the poor.

Reverend Sykes: Perhaps. It's certainly the reason my father was buried in a sport jacket he detested. The point is, looking at what has been taken away from us is a bad way to go through life. Looking for what we can give to others is far better.

In this short conversation between Bree and Reverend Sykes, there are 255 words all together, composing 27 sentences. Among the 255 words, the man used 188, whose word ratio reaches as highly as 73.7%, far more than that of the women, only 26.3%. In terms of the sentence number, there are 18 composed by the man, occupying 66.7% of the total number, while there are only 9 made by the woman, occupying 33.3%. It is clearly shown that Reverend Sykes spoke far more than Bree. He appeared to be much more talkative in their short conversation.

Example two:

Susan: I wouldn't eat that if I were you.

Mike: Why?

Susan: I made it. Trust me.

Mike: (He is eating the food)

Susan: Hey. Do you have a death wish?

Mike: No, I just refused to believe that anybody can screw up macaroni and cheese. (Mike is eating the food)

Mike: Oh, my god. How did you…? It tastes like it's burnt and undercooked.

Susan: Yeah. I get that a lot. Here you go.

Mike: Thanks. I'm Mike Delfino. I just started renting the Sim's house next door.

Susan: Susan Mayer. I live across the street.

Mike: Mrs Huber told me about you, said you illustrate children's books.

Susan: Yeah. I'm very big with the under-five set. What do you do?

Mike: Plumber. So if you ever have a clog…or something.

(They smile to each other)

The conversation above is extracted from the first episode of the first season. It happens between Susan and Mike. After Mary Alice's funeral, the neighbors came to her house to pay their respect. There, Susan and Mike met each other and began their first conversation. In this short conversation, there are 12 sentences made up of 109 words. Among all these 12 sentences, the man and the woman take up 6 respectively. However, the man used 61 words, whose word ratio reaches 56%, far more than that of the woman, only 44%. Obviously, the man spoke more than the woman.

Various such examples in *Desperate Housewives* can be easily found. They all show the differences in the amount of talk in conversations between males and females.

B. Analysis of Turn-taking

Turn-taking is the fundamental rule to guarantee the smooth transition of a conversation. According to Levinson (2001), it means one participant A to another participant B; another participant B begins to talk and then stops. Its study concerning gender is to study which gender initiates or offers the turn, and which gender takes the turn floor for a longer time. In the proposed research, we focus on the latter.

It is agreed that men are inclined to take the turn for a longer time in a conversation between males and females. Is it true in *Desperate Housewives*. In the following part, we will examine it.

In *Desperate Housewives*, we see differences in the time of both genders taking the turn floor. The following table shows the amount and distribution of turns in conversations between males and females.

TABLE 2:
TABLE OF TURNS

Items / Gender	Turn number	Word number	Average turn length	Ratio
Males	126	2107	16.72	52.3%
Females	115	938	8.16	47.7%
Total	241	3045	12.63	100%

From the table, we can clearly see that men's turns reach as highly as 126 in all the eight episodes of the eight seasons, which take up 52.3% of all the turns. Compared with men's turns, women's turns occupy 47.7% of all the turns. In terms of average turn length, there is an obvious difference that a gap of 8.56 words between male talks and female talks. Thus, females speak far less than males in a turn. This finding is in accordance with that of some scholars that men, in a conversation between both genders, take the turn floor for a longer time.

The following is an example of conversation between two genders in *Desperate Housewives*. The analysis will enable us to have a better understanding of the amount of turns and distribution of them.

It is extracted from the first episode of the first season. The conversation happens between a couple, Bree and Rex when Rex is in hospital because of a car accident. Bree is a perfectionist while Rex is sick of her perfectionism.

Rex: I can't believe you tried to kill me.

Bree: Yes, well I feel badly about that. I told you Mrs. Huber came over and I got distracted. It was a mistake.

Rex: Since when do you make mistakes?

Bree: What does that mean?

Rex: It means I'm sick of you being so damn perfect all the time. I'm sick of the bizarre way your hair doesn't move. I'm sick of you making bed in the morning before I've used the bathroom. You're this plastic suburban housewife with her pearl and spatula, who says things like "We owe the Hendersons a dinner." Where's the woman I fell in love

with? ...Who used to burn toast and drink milk out of the carton? And laugh. I need her. Not this cold, perfect thing you've become.

Bree: These need water. (Then she walks out of the room.)

In this short conversation, there are all together 6 turns, each gender occupying 3. Even though, the hero, Rex, say more words than the heroine, Bree. In other words, He takes the turn floor for a longer time. This is also true in the above two examples.

A variety of examples of differences in the amount of turns and distribution of them can be found in this TV series. Turns in conversation are basic units and they are worthy of being studied in a specific context.

To sum up, there are differences in the amount of talk and turns, and the distribution of them. It is safe to say that on some occasions men are more talkative and tend to take the turn floor for a longer time than women.

V.   CONCLUSIONS

A.   Major Findings

The proposed research studies language and gender in the American TV series *Desperate Housewives*. Eight randomly chosen episodes from the eight seasons serve as the data resource. Based on former studies, this paper is conducted under the theoretical framework of conversational analysis. Exactly speaking, analysis of language and gender in this paper involves two main parts: the analysis of the amount of talk; the analysis of turn-taking. It has made a thorough study of these two aspects in the specific context. Quantitative and qualitative examination, together with comparison and contrast method shows the differences in the amount of talk, turns and distribution of them. The findings of this paper add fresh blood to language and gender study.

In terms of the amount of talk, the proposed research finds that men occupy a higher rate. Their word and sentence amounts take up 69.2% and 61.2% of the total in all eight episodes respectively, while women's only 30.8% and 38.8% respectively. The statistics show the fact that men are more talkative than women on some occasions.

Analysis of turn-taking concerning gender in *Desperate Housewives* mainly centers on the amount of turns and distribution of them. Among all the turns in the eight episodes, males occupy 52.3% while females 47.7%. Though the gap is small, it also demonstrates that men are inclined to take the turn floor for a longer time when they have a conversation with women.

B.   Limitations

This proposed research has been finished with several limitations. First and foremost, the proposed research is conducted in an English context. Its data is only collected from one of the well-known American TV series. Others are supposed to be taken into consideration. Though the author has closely examined one episode of each season, a much larger sample is needed so as to add color to present study.

Besides, the proposed research on language and gender mainly refers to conversations between males and females, namely, the mixed group. Therefore, the results may not suitable for other gender groups, such as female-female and male-male groups. It is noticed that gender group is also a variable that cannot afford to be ignored for different gender groups have different indications for different topics.

Last but not least, the proposed research only focuses on the most typical aspects in *Desperate Housewives*. In the analysis of the amount of talk, it only studies the amount of words and sentences. However, there are other aspects worthy of study, such as the amount of adjacency pairs. Likely, in the analysis of turn-taking, this study mainly concentrates on the amount and distribution of turns while other aspects like interruption and overlap are ignored. In addition, language and gender study from the perspective of conversational strategies including silence, minimal response, and styles including politeness and directness is missing. However, it may involve a large amount of study, which may surpass the space. The proposed research therefore gives up the study of those aspects.

All these need to be improved in further studies.

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The Relationship between Incidental Vocabulary Learning and Multiple Intelligences of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—This study was an attempt to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' multiple intelligences (MI) and incidental vocabulary learning. The study was conducted in classes of two institutes in Tehran. The participants of the study were 42 Iranian female intermediate EFL learners, selected based on the score that they got on the Nation's Vocabulary Levels Test, and by taking this test, the learners' vocabularies proficiency level were homogenized. Then MIDAS questionnaire investigating eight types of different intelligences was used in this study. In the next stage, a vocabulary pretest which was designed by the researcher and was piloted in the same condition to the main study was conducted prior to the treatment of the study (extensive reading program).when the treatment of the study finished an immediate vocabulary posttest conducted to the same participants. The vocabulary posttest was exactly the same as vocabulary pretest. The results of the study showed that there was a significant relationship between Iranian EFL learners' MI and incidental vocabulary learning and also among the eight different types of intelligences; there was a significant relationship between naturalist and incidental vocabulary learning.

Index Terms—incidental vocabulary learning, multiple intelligences, multiple intelligences theory

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, as Griffiths (2003) states, the importance of vocabulary and its significant role in language learning has been acknowledged. Vocabulary's prominent role in running a meaningful communication and in second language learning has been revealed day after day (Huckin & Coady 1999). Gass (1999) believes "learning a second language means learning its vocabulary" (p. 325). "Vocabulary acquisition is a crucial, and in some senses, the central component in successful foreign language acquisition" (Beglar & Hunt, 2005, p.7). According to Allen (1983), learning the meaning of a new word is a difficult matter which most teachers and learners are aware of.

One of the major controversial issues in vocabulary teaching and learning is how to identity significant approaches and strategies to teaching and learning vocabularies which lead to longer and easier retrieval of vocabularies. There are two main approaches towards teaching and learning vocabulary, one of them is **intentional** the other one is **incidental** vocabulary learning. Some of the prominent definitions for incidental vocabulary learning are like the following: Nation (2001) defines incidental vocabulary learning as a learning that happens without specific intention to focus on vocabulary so a learner can get the vocabulary knowledge subconsciously through engaging in language activities, mostly reading. Paribakht and Wesche (1999) state that incidental vocabulary learning happens when learners' attention is on understanding meaning rather than on explicit goal of learning new words. Hulstijin (2011) says that most vocabulary items are acquired incidentally; incidental vocabulary acquisition is a by-product of the learners' engagement in listening, reading or writing activity.

Some decades ago multiple intelligences were often considered as a unified dimension concept which was discussed in disciplines such as psychology, and philosophy. In recent years researchers have paid noticeable attention to multiple intelligences in language pedagogy and syllabus designing that corresponds with the guide lines of multiple intelligences theory. One of the most common definitions of MI is "the capacity to solve problems or to fashion products that are valued in one or more cultural settings" (Gardner & Hatch, 1989, pp.4-9). Gardner (1983) moots that multiple intelligences theory is a learner-centered theory which contemplates each learner as distinguished individual who has various types of intelligences. He enumerates eight different intelligences: Verbal-Linguistic Intelligence, Logical-Mathematical Intelligence, Visual-Spatial Intelligence, Bodily- Kinesthetic Intelligence, Musical Intelligence, Interpersonal Intelligence, Intrapersonal Intelligence, and Naturalist Intelligence. Nelson (1998) says that educating the students means recognizing that each of them is unique, complex, and highly individualistic. He continues that one of the foundations of Multiple Intelligences theory is to design education that can be responsive to individual cognitive differences. Hoerr (2000) says the multiple intelligences theory, gives an opportunity to teachers to use the students' strength to help them learn. According to Hoerr (2000) it is important to apply MI theory in education because 1) it

emphasizes on uniqueness of learners. 2) Presents the learners' prominent intelligences which helps to learning process. 3) It provides different opportunities of learning, teaching and assessing. Success of each student in learning process is the main concern of teachers. They seek different methods and influential ways to help their learners. Gardner's (1983) MI theory gives learners chances to overcome learning difficulties.

Using multiple intelligences theory (MIT) in language pedagogy especially in vocabulary learning may help learners to learn words faster by ignoring or strengthening each individual intelligences which means paying attention to uniqueness of students' intelligences. To fulfill the purpose of the study, the following two questions were raised:

■ Is there any significant relationship between incidental vocabulary learning and the EFL learners' level of multiple intelligences?

■ Is there any significant relationship between incidental vocabulary learning and a specific type of intelligence?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the present study were forty two Iranian female intermediate EFL learners whose first language was Persian and they were learning English in two institutes in Tehran. The participants were selected from a pool of sixty five English learners. They were studying English language at the intermediate level and in order to homogenize their vocabularies' proficiency level, they took Nation's Levels Test of vocabulary knowledge. After examining the scores of participants on Nation' Levels Test of vocabulary knowledge a total number of forty two EFL learners were selected to participate in this study. It is essential to mention that the age limitation of the participants varied from 17to 27. This study was conducted for three months in the classes of participants.

B. Instrumentation

1. Nation's Vocabulary Levels Test

In order to homogenize the participants' vocabulary size, a modified version of Nation's (1983 &1990) Vocabulary Levels Test (VLT) (Schmitt et al., 2001) was conducted. This test was mainly designed by Nation and it has two types one of which measures receptive and the other one the productive vocabulary knowledge. The receptive vocabulary levels test which gages the size of the vocabulary was used in this research. The academic and 10000 levels were excluded from the VLT by the researcher because as it was mentioned the proficiency level of participants' vocabulary knowledge was intermediate. The format of Nation's Vocabulary Levels Test was word-definition matching; it also contained five parts: the 2,000 word level, the 3,000 word level, The 5,000 word level, the academic vocabulary level and the 10000 word level. For interpreting the test, Nation (2008) explains that "each word in the test represents 33 words (1000 divided by 30). A score of 20 out of 30 on a level means that a learner knows 667 words out of the 1000 at that level and does not know 333 from that level. We would expect a learner to know at least 90% of the words at that level (27 out of 30) before we could feel that the level might be known (p. 143)". About the reliability of the test Qian (2002) reported that the reliability was .91 in a sample of adult English language learners with various native language backgrounds and the internal consistency reliability was .956 in this sample.

2. Multiple Intelligences Developmental Assessment Scales

Multiple Intelligences Developmental Assessment Scales (MIDAS) inventory for adults which was developed by Shearer (1996) was used in this study. It provided information to grade intellectual development. It had one hundred and nineteen likert-type items. It covered eight separate intelligences. There was no right or wrong response. Since each item had an "I don't know" or "Does not apply" option, respondents were not forced to answer every question. So they could choose one of these options whenever it was appropriate. Actually it should be mentioned that the Persian translated version of MIDAS was used in this study in order to be sure that there would be no problem in comprehension of the items.

3. Pretest

Participants took a pretest of vocabulary to become sure about their level of proficiency in vocabulary. This pretest was designed according to the words which appeared in the determined reading texts prepared for the treatment. Stem of each item was selected from Oxford Advanced Learner Dictionary. It was developed to make sure that the participants had no knowledge of the target words prior to the treatment. The format of pretest was multiple choice test which had four options and it had one hundred and fifty items.

4. Posttest

After participants received the treatment of the study (extensive reading program) which took twenty sessions an immediate posttest of vocabulary was administered the next session (three days later). The pretest and posttest were exactly identical. During taking the pretest and posttest the learners were instructed not to use dictionary.

5. Text

Texts were selected from "English through reading touching story" that was based on three levels of proficiency, which the intermediate one was used in this study for the extensive reading program because it was suitable for the participants' proficiency level. So twenty three texts were selected from this book, and they were read aloud in the class by teacher.

Target words

Among the Twenty Three texts which were presented in the treatment of the study, one hundred and fifty words were selected that participants encountered them in the determined texts. Before starting the research these one hundred and fifty words in a form of multiple choice test were administered among eighty intermediate level students. There was no item that almost all participants could answer it correctly. According to Hu and Nation (2000) in order to incidentally learn vocabulary through extensive reading program, comprehensible texts should be selected. So they mentioned that if 95% - 98% of running words in a text were known to the learner, extensive reading could happen. By this percentage they meant that in every one hundred running words, just two words should be unknown for the readers. The texts which were read in this research were based on this fact.

III. PROCEDURE

At first in order to homogenize participants' vocabulary size, Nation's reliable and standard Vocabulary Levels Test was given to participants. This test was one of the equivalent forms of the original one which was revised and validated by Schmitt et al. (2001). The vocabulary pretest and posttest was piloted with 80 intermediate students. They answered to one hundred and fifty items of test. It was also mentioned that they were not allowed to use dictionary during test. Piloting was performed in the same condition to the main study. In scoring the Nation's Vocabulary Levels Test, each correct answer was given one score, so the maximum score for each level was thirty the whole test score was ninety. The time limit for administration of the test was forty minutes. Then, the Multiple Intelligences Developmental Assessment Scales (MIDAS) was given to those who had passed the Nation's Vocabulary Levels Test. After that participants took a pretest of vocabulary. Pretest was designed based on the unfamiliar words of the texts which were in the treatment and it had a multiple-choice format. After twenty sessions that the treatment of the study was finished posttest was conducted to the same participants.

Treatment of the Study

The treatment which was used in this study was extensive reading. "Extensive reading is a reading (a) of large quantities of material or long texts; (b) for global or general understanding; (c) with the intention of obtaining pleasure from the text" (Hedge, 1985 pp. 68-70). Alessi and Dwyer (2008) agree that extensive reading due to its rapid expansion of vocabulary is one of the solutions for overcoming the obstacles of lack of vocabulary. About the level of texts in this study it should be mentioned that all the Twenty Three selected texts (short stories) were intermediate that conformed to the participants' proficiency level. It should be mentioned that because of the number of target words, one hundred and fifty, and also lack of time the assumed exposure to unfamiliar words in texts was only one time, in this study. The researcher selected the Twenty Three reading texts and read them aloud to the participants in class. In each twenty sessions of the treatment while the researcher wanted to read a text aloud, she gave the same copy of the text to the participants and after reading the text she collected them. Finally at the end of the treatment participants took the posttest of vocabulary, which was based on one hundred and fifty vocabulary items that were used in the texts and it was exactly the same as pretest of vocabulary.

IV. RESULTS

A. Piloting Vocabulary Pretest-posttest

Vocabulary Pretest and posttest which were exactly the same as each other were designed by the researcher so they needed to be piloted. Before administering the vocabulary pretest-posttest, it was piloted in the same condition to the main study to ensure its reliability for the study. The test was given to 80 intermediate female students, and they were asked not to use the dictionary. The reliability index of the vocabulary pretest-posttest (r=.941) showed a high value. It is presented below in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
CRONBACH ALPHA RELIABILITY (PILOT)

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
	Valid	80	100.0
Cases	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	80	100.0

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.941	150

a. List wise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

The descriptive statistics of the administration of the vocabulary pretest and posttest to the 42 EFL learners participating in this study appear below in Table 2. As is evident, the mean and standard deviation of the obtained pretest scores were 90.02 and 27.46 and the mean and standard deviation of obtained posttest scores were 109.60 and 25.30, respectively.

TABLE 2.
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE ON PRETEST AND POSTTEST.

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error
Pretest	42	37.00	141.00	90.02	27.46	-.056	.365
Posttest	42	43.00	142.00	109.60	25.30	-1.045	.365
Valid N (list wise)	42						

A one-sample independent t-test was performed in order to find whether there is a significant difference between the participants' performance on pretest and posttest. The results, as shown in Table 3, revealed that there is a significant difference (t = -3.39, p < .05). Since the value in the Sig. (2tailed) column is less than .05 (Sig. (2tailed) = .001 < .05) there is a significant difference in the mean scores of pretest and posttest. Also difference between mean of pretest (90.02) and posttest (109.60) showed significant increase in posttest.

TABLE 3.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Pretest	Equal variances assumed	.511	.477	-3.39	82	.001	-19.57143	5.76188	-31.033	-8.109
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.39	81.457	.001	-19.57143	5.76188	-31.034	-8.108

The first section of Independent Sample t-Test output box gives the results of Levene's test for equality of variances. It tested whether the variance of pretest and posttest was the same. Since the Sig. value was larger than .05 (Sig = .477> .05) the results of the t-test with equal variances were assumed.

B. Normality

According to Field (2009), three assumptions should be met before one decides to use Pearson correlation test; the first one is that the data should be measured on an interval scale; the second one is that the subjects should be independent that is to say their performance on the test is not affected by the performance of other participants and the third one is the data should enjoy normal distribution.

The present data were measured on an interval scale and the subjects performed independently on the tests, i.e. the performance of any of the subjects on the test was not affected by the performance of the other subjects. The assumption of normality was also met. Bulmer (1979) suggests this rule about Skewness:

- If skewness is less than −1 or greater than +1, the distribution is highly skewed.
- If skewness is between −½ and +½, the distribution is approximately symmetric

So according to Blumer's (1979) rule the distributions of all the items mentioned in Table 4 were distributed normally, except posttest which is highly skewed.

TABLE 4.
NORMALITY TESTS

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Pretest	42	-.056	.365	-.787	.717
Posttest	42	-1.043	.365	.526	.717
Musical	42	.353	.365	.492	.717
Kinesthetic	42	-.011	.365	-.088	.717
Math logical	42	-.006	.365	.010	.717
Spatial	42	-.452	.365	.063	.717
Linguistic	42	-.296	.365	-.479	.717
Interpersonal	42	.040	.365	-.890	.717
Intrapersonal	42	-.006	.365	-.200	.717
Naturalist	42	.163	.365	-.128	.717
Total MI	42	-.275	.365	.134	.717

C. Investigation of the First Research Question

The first research question attempted to see whether there is any significant relationship between incidental vocabulary learning and EFL learners' level of multiple intelligences. A Pearson correlation was run to probe any significant relationship between the incidental vocabulary learning and multiple intelligences. The results (r (40) = .32, P = .036 < .05; represented a moderate effect size) and indicated that there is a significant relationship between the two variables. Since the significant (P) is small (less than .05) the finding is statistically significant thus the first null-hypothesis as there is not any significant relationship between incidental vocabulary learning and multiple intelligences is rejected.

TABLE 5.
PEARSON CORRELATION INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING WITH TOTAL MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES

		MI
Posttest	Pearson Correlation	.325[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.036
	N	42
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).		

D. Investigation of the Second Research Question

The second research question aimed at investigating if there is any significant relationship between incidental vocabulary learning and a specific type of intelligences. To this end, a series of Pearson correlations were run to probe any significant relationships between the incidental vocabulary learning and the eight components of the multiple intelligences. Based on the results displayed in Table 6 it can be concluded that seven of the components of multiple intelligences showed non-significant relationships with the incidental vocabulary learning. The naturalist intelligence is the only significant component (r (40) = (40) = .39, P = .01 < .05; it represented a moderate to large effect size). Thus it can be concluded that the naturalist intelligence is the only component of MI that showed significant relationship with incidental vocabulary learning.so the second null-hypothesis was also rejected.

TABLE 6.
COMPONENTS OF MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES WITH INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING

		Posttest
Musical	Pearson Correlation	.248
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.113
	N	42
Kinesthetic	Pearson Correlation	.173
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.272
	N	42
Math-Logical	Pearson Correlation	.231
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.142
	N	42
Spatial	Pearson Correlation	.258
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.099
	N	42
Linguistic	Pearson Correlation	.246
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.117
	N	42
Interpersonal	Pearson Correlation	.093
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.558
	N	42
Intrapersonal	Pearson Correlation	.231
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.140
	N	42
Naturalist	Pearson Correlation	.392[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.010
	N	42
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).		

Reliability

In this part the reliability of the pretest and posttest of incidental vocabulary learning and multiple intelligences questionnaire was assessed. The K-R21 reliability indices for the pretest and posttest of incidental vocabulary leaning are .96.

TABLE 9.
K-R21 RELIABILITY INDICES PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING

	N of Items	Mean	Variance	K-R21
Pretest	150	90.02	754.121	.96
Posttest	150	109.57	641.568	.96

Table 10 displays the Cronbach Alpha reliability indices for the eight components of the multiple intelligences and the total MI. Cronbach's Alpha is the most popular method of examining reliability; a high correlation between the different items will indicate they are measuring the same thing as there will be only small values for the error. A low correlation will indicate that there are a lot of errors and the items are not reliably measuring the same thing. Cronbach's Alpha ranges from 0 for a completely unreliable test to 1 for a completely reliable test. The reliability indices in this research ranged from a high of .93 for the total MI to a low of .72 for the spatial intelligence

TABLE 10.
CRONBACH ALPHA RELIABILITY OF MI

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
Musical	.788	14
Kinesthetic	.781	13
Math-Logical	.812	17
Spatial	.726	15
Linguistic	.739	20
Interpersonal	.795	18
Intrapersonal	.769	9
Naturalist	.779	13
Total MI	.939	119

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Recently MI theory has drawn lots of attention toward itself. It has become an important issue in language pedagogy, curriculum designing and assessment. It sheds a light on uniqueness of each individual. Gardner's (1983) theory of multiple intelligences indicates that language learning is a complex interaction of a number of intelligences. The importance of using intelligence became clear for everyone who works in the field of language teaching and learning. Dobbs (2002) insists upon this fact that when students have a chance to learn through their strengths, they may be more successful in learning. In spite of the increasing number of research on MI, the relationship between MI and different skills and sub skills of language is still new in Iran. There are some studies which were done in the area of intelligence and different components of language. For example in a study, Naeini and Pandian (2010) investigated the relationship between MI and listening proficiency. They found that there is no significant relationship between MI and listening. Zohourian (2009) confirmed that there was a significant relationship between advanced Iranian EFL learner's vocabulary learning and their multiple intelligences.

This study aimed at investigating whether there is any significant relationship between MI and incidental vocabulary learning among Iranian intermediate EFL learners. As the results showed there is a significant relationship between MI and incidental vocabulary learning. Furthermore among different domains of intelligences, naturalist intelligence has statistically significant relationship with incidental vocabulary learning.

Furthermore, findings of the present study can be supported by Razmjoo et al.'s (2009) study that investigated the relationship between MI, vocabulary learning knowledge and vocabulary learning strategies among the Iranian EFL learners. Their study revealed that there is a significant relationship between MI and vocabulary learning knowledge. Besides this finding it has been mentioned that linguistic and naturalist intelligences have a significant relationship with vocabulary learning knowledge. The results of Razmjoo et al.'s study are consistent with the result of this study. In the both studies one of the variables were MI, in this study the relation between MI and incidental vocabulary learning were discussed and it was found that in addition to significant relationship between MI and incidental vocabulary learning, there is a significant relationship between naturalist intelligence and incidental vocabulary learning . In both studies the naturalist intelligence is seen in the results.

As a final point, some suggestions are provided for the researchers who are interested in this field of inquiry. In this study the relationship between MI as an emergent model in language teaching and learning and incidental vocabulary learning as an enjoyable, contextual way of vocabulary learning were scrutinized. As it was discussed in this study due to the findings of the study, it will be effective to apply the result of this study in designing syllabus and developing educational curriculum whereupon EFL teachers can enjoy the learners' intelligences in their language teaching and learners can learn better and easier which leads to having more active and creative EFL learners. In so far as the participants of this study were intermediate adult students, a similar research on students of different age range and language proficiency level can be done. Also other research studies can be conducted to investigate how much does MI theory work in Iranian classes or what the teachers' and students' belief is toward the MI theory and its application in different areas of second language learning.

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A Comparative Study of the English Versions of *The Analects* by Legge and Ku Hungming

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Abstract—The Analects is one of the great works of traditional Chinese culture, and its translation has been an important part of cultural exchange in the past hundred years. The English versions of the Analects have reached more than 40, including that of James Legge's and Ku Hungming's. James Legge was a missionary and a famous British Sinologist; Ku Hungming was a famous Chinese scholar who got educated in the west. Their versions represent the highest level at that time. Legge is known for his rigorous responsibility to the original text, "faithful to the original". His version is of a scholar translation style, which can be summed up as "truthfully, lengthy and dull." Ku Hungming was renowned at home and abroad for his unique and weird style in Qing Dynasty. He received Western education and was deeply influenced by Western Romanticism. Most of his articles are written in English, even the native English speakers feel surprised by his extraordinary English proficiency. Ku also made great achievements in imputing Chinese classics to the west. In order to make the content easily acceptable to the Westerners, he tried his best to avoid Chinese names and places, and in order to evoke the original idea of the readers, he widely cited the western allusions and famous sayings. So Ku's translations are widely spread in Europe. This paper focuses mainly on three parts. First, the translation differences of the two versions are investigated from the language to the overall translation techniques. Then, the causes of differences are analyzed, which include cultural background, Sinology skills, purposes and audience awareness. Finally, the way to translate Chinese classics like The Analects is briefly summarized.

Index Terms—The Analects, translation, contrast, Legge, Ku Hongming

I. INTRODUCTION

Having been at the core of Confucianism, *The Analects* is a masterpiece of the Chinese classical works and has played a far-reaching role in cultural communications between China and the western countries for a long time. According to the statistics, there are nearly more than 40 English versions produced by westerners and Chinese scholars in the past 100 years, among which two versions are commonly considered the most classical and representative: One is *The Analects* translated by Ku Hungming (1857-1928) who is a Chinese scholar educated in Britain, and the other is *The Confucius Analects* translated by Legge (1815-1897) who is a famous British missionary. For the following reasons, we select these two versions. First of all, both of the two translations are among the most classical and influential ones, which are popular among their target readers for the outstanding features; secondly, the two versions apply diverse translating strategies in light of special translation purpose, taking into consideration the language art and cultural factors. What's more, Ku Hungming and Legge, coincidentally or not, coming from east and west and living at the same period, made great contributions at the turning point of translation from missionaries to sinologists with a lot of western scholars stepped into Chinese culture, which is of tremendous importance in translation of The Analects.

II. ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH VERSIONS BY JAMES LEGGE AND KU HUNG-MING

A. Contrast on Language

Translation of the main concept words in the two English versions of *The Analects* is an important part to study the differences. According to manipulation translation theory, translation is a process of making decisions. Comprehension and translation of the main concept words of *The Analects of Confucius* can reflect the rewriting strategies and cultural attitude on original text as a whole. In *The Analects of Confucius*, the "ren" appears 109 times. Confucius regards "ren" as the basis of other virtues. For example, in Xueer, he points out the relationship between filial piety and benevolence; In Ba he points out the relationship between benevolence, ritual and music; In Xianwen he talks about the relationship between kernel and brave; In Yanghuo he points out that "gong", "kuan", "xin", "min" and "hui" is the basis of kernel . Thus we can see that "ren" has a profound humanitarian content. Legge and Ku rewrite "ren" respectively according to their own consciousness of history and culture. Legge translates "ren" in the whole book as "virtue", "ren zhe" as virtuous man, and "de" also as "virtue" from the perspective of western culture and religion of humanity. Therefore, "virtue" has the highest frequency in its translation as a keyword. Due to his status as a missionary, "ren" in its vision is a virtue which includes many aspects. The frequency of the use of virtue and using "virtue" for "de" obviously reflects his moral concept. Perhaps Ku takes "ren" as an ethical morality concept for the following reasons: on the one hand, because of the deep relationship between "ren" and other Confucian virtue; on the other hand, Confucian spirit emphasizes the manner between the noble and the ordinary, husband and wife, and so on. Therefore, "ren" of the

Confucian is an essentially ethical spirit. Ku translates "ren", "junzi", "de", "he" into "moral", "morality", "the moral man", and "the moral law". He grasps the essence of Confucian culture, which is also precisely the foundation of his translation.

"li" appears 74 times in *The Analects*, and it is another important basis of Confucianism. "li" and "ren" is closely related. Confucian ritual is a kind of theory, not only refers to the specific ritual forms, but also means politeness, the ceremony and ethical system. From different levels, it can be divided into Confucianism, ritual teaching, and law etc. In all the contexts of *The Analects*, the meanings of "li" are not same. No wonder in the two versions of translation, "li" has very abundant meanings. Legge's translation of "li": ceremonies, courtesies, propriety, the rules of propriety. Ku's translation is as follow: courteous, art, the education and good manner, propriety, civilization, the correct form, the principle of the rite the honors, the man of the rules of taste, courtesy and good manners (yield), direct his studies with judgment and with courtesy, religion, education, and the polite arts (ritual, music), and so on. Therefore, the translation of Ku can enough reflect the diversification of the Confucian ritual connotation, on the semantic field corresponding to the ritual, this is due to his overall understanding of Confucian culture.

The following context can help us compare the two translators' translations.

1.子曰: "夏礼吾能言之, 杞不足征也; 殷礼吾能言之, 宋不足征也。"

Confucius here refers to "li" as an overall concept. Confucius stresses that gentlemen should know "liuyi", in which "li" is included. Legge takes "li" as the ceremonies, just a courtesy of a translation in terms of content, which is associated with religious form. Ku translate it into "the arts and civilization", which is more accurate with both the artistic content and the social continuity of ritual.

2. 颜渊问仁, 子曰: "克己复礼为仁。一日克己复礼, 天下归仁焉。"

To keep the ritual rules, to be strict to ourselves and to unify the ego and the big world, this is the base of "ren" policy. Here, "li" is a social code of conduct. Legge has "克己复礼" translated into "To subdue oneself and return to propriety is perfect virtue; this is the distorted understanding of Confucius' ideas. The translation of Ku's "Renounce yourself and conform to the ideal of decency and good manners" is better.

B. Translation Strategy

As what has been mentioned above, translation involves not only transmission of language, but also interpretation of different cultures. Up to this date, two ways are used in translation elements, one is foreignization which takes culture of target language as its reference and the other is domestication which regards culture of original language as its reference. In translation of *The Analects*, they selected different translation strategies, that is to say, Legge prefers foreignization and Ku Hung-ming prefers domestication. Both James Legge and Ku Hung-ming are well aware that their target readers are those who do not get a very clear picture of ancient Chinese culture, accordingly many measures are taken by them for the sake of target readers. James Legge uses the translation strategy of foreignization, which aims at the western readers who come to China for missionary cause. First of all, the content, writing style, religious flavor and consciousness orientation of the original text are to a great degree preserved by James Legge. So this maintains the original meaning and styles of *The Analects*, providing idiomatic translated text for his target readers--missionaries who come to China to do missionary work, which would be convenient for them to read and get acquainted with Chinese culture so as to better promote their task. Then, the core terminologies, grammatical phenomenon are explained with notes when they appear at first time at the translated text. James Legge gives a detailed account of these core terminologies, such as "virtue (仁)", "filial piety (孝)", "be true to the principles of our nature (忠)", "the benevolent exercise of nature principle to others (恕)" and so on.

Last, James Legge combines semantic translation with detailed annotation, being attentive to the real requirements of those western readers not having a good picture of ancient Chinese culture. That is, with very detailed notes and forewords, elaborated information on background and personnel names, his English version offers the western readers a very good access to the extensive and profound ancient Chinese culture. James Legge makes annotation at the foot notes during the course of translation of *The Analects*, thus to facilitate the readers to get a good understanding of the very meanings of original text.

III. CAUSES OF THE DIFFERENCES

A. Life Experience and Academic Background

James Legge's and Ku Hungming's different life experiences and academic background to some extent lead to the differences of their unique understanding about the original version of *The Analects* and in the expressions of their English versions. James Legge, who was a Scottish sinologist and a missionary, spent nearly thirty years in China working as a missionary and translator. James Legge was born at Hadley town, Aberdeen shire, Scotland of UK. He was a member of the non-conformist Presbyterian Church that separated itself from the State Church in Scotland. Philosophically, Legge has been influenced mostly by Scottish Realism, which gave him the ability to have some deeper insights into the Confucian classics. He took more interest and curiosity in ancient Chinese classics when he began to learn about the ancient Chinese classics under the influence of British missionary, Milyn. Having received

early years' training in religious studies, from 1831 to 1835, James entered into Aberdeen Royal College for higher education. With time passing by, the willingness to work as the missionary in China came into being.

At his young time, James worked as the dean of Anglo-Chinese College. At the spare time he went on studying the ancient Chinese classics, and the mounting interest propelled him to initiate a great project that could enable the whole world to have a good understanding of China. Legge had a colorful life experience. For almost sixty years, he lived in London, Hong Kong, and other parts of the British Empire, working with an array of people, ranging from missionaries and scholars to merchants and book publishers. In his later life, he traveled widely: Southeast Asia, China, North America, and the British Isles. (Hon, 2006) In 1868, James Legge and his English translation assistant, Wang Tao, devoted themselves to the completion of translation of ancient Chinese classics at the Dollar County, Clackmannanshire, and Scotland.

In completion of the great task, Legge benefited much from his academic background. "There is no doubt that Legge's Scottish background—particularly his exposure to the Sabbath Culture in his childhood and his training in the common-sense philosophy in King's College—must have made him a sensitive and sympathetic translator." (Hon, 2006, p.458) Ku Hungming is the leading figure proficient in western and oriental cultures during the late Qing Dynasty and the early period of the Republic of China. His ancestral home is Fujian. On July 18, 1857, Ku Hungming was born at a British owned rubber plantation, Penang Pulau, north-western of Malaysia Peninsula, Southeast Asia. His father is the general manager of the rubber plantation, excelling in speaking English and Malay. His mother is a blond-haired and blue-eyed western woman, who has a good mastery of English and Portugal. Hence under such unique family background, Ku Hung-ming enjoyed remarkable capability in language learning and comprehension. He spent his teenage abroad, received systematic western education, and mastered multiple languages such as English, German, Greek and Latin, etc. The 14-year life of studying abroad enabled this super language-gifted youth to become a young scholar, having a good mastery of western culture. After obtaining the Master of Arts in 1877, Ku Hungming went to University Leipzig of Germany and other top colleges for further study in literature and philosophy. Upon returning to China after graduation, Ku Hungming had engaged in depth-study of Chinese culture for over two decades on learning more ancient Chinese classics. He got the unique insight into the traditional Chinese culture especially the Confucianism. Once he worked as the trusted aid and staff for Zhang Zhidong, a noted senior official in late Qing Dynasty. It is the prior difference in their life experiences and academic backgrounds that shapes their diverse understandings by their linguistic competence and their comprehension of the original version of *The Analects*.

B. Sinology Capability and Bilingual Competence

Translation of ancient classics demands both thorough profound comprehension of the original text and remarkable language ability. James Legge has a gift in acquiring language. Before coming to China he had learned Chinese and Chinese culture. After arriving at Malacca, he continued being engaged in the study of Chinese culture. Having been in China for a long period, James Legge was learned in sinology. Furthermore, he received the very aid from Wang Tao, a noted Chinese scholar and translator in the late Qing Dynasty. All this laid solid foundation of the completion of the English version of *The Analects*. Besides, as a British, fluent home tongue is his privilege. Later under the leadership of James Legge, the English versions of *The Four Books and Five Classics in Confucian School* including *The Analects* were all published. For dozens of years James was engrossed in the studying of the ancient Chinese classics. When it comes to the compilation of such classics, he would get the assistants to collect all the relevant remarks by the scholars from previous periods. At the foreword of "Seeing the Western Scholar—James Legge off before his departure from China", Wang Tao (2002) once wrote, "The English versions of The Four Books and The Book of History came into being". "Having going through them, the western scholars acclaimed all them so detailed and extensively-covered that they should be treated guide line to the study of the oriental culture." (p.81) Compared with English version of *The Analects* by James Legge, the English version by Ku Hungming enjoys a unique style of advantage. He is the most intelligent Chinese with great gift in language learning and composition. Although Ku Hungming once at youngster age stayed abroad for years, once returned to homeland he was engrossed in studying the ancient classics and dedicated himself to the great cause of the traditional Chinese culture. Shortly after back to China, he begun to make up for Chinese language, his proficiency in Chinese reached a much higher level ever later. Out of profound understanding and ardent love of the ancient Chinese classics, especially the Confucian classics, Ku Hungming keenly realized both the profound philosophy underlying the Confucian classics and its literature value, thus he was in high spirits to go in for the compilation of the English version of *The Analects*. However, out of proud stance Ku Hungming held a critical attitude towards the other English versions of *The Analects*. In his remarks, he said brilliant scholars, including James Legge lack acute comprehension not only in literature but also in sagacious insight; moreover, he thought James Legge's English version was not pretty satisfactory. Ku Hung-ming criticized James Legge's for "his stiff and totally incorrect account of Confucius's characters, morals and Confucianism". There is no doubt that those remarks were partially biased, but it also showed that Ku Hungming was much confident in his much learned sinology knowledge and super bilingual capability.

Indeed as a wide-read and scholarly man, Ku Hungming enjoyed the reputation for his excellence in studying of both western and Eastern culture, and people grasped in admiration for his achievements in English. Dr. Lin Yutang once praised Ku, "His mastery of English surpasses the others for the past 200 years, whether in choice of either words or expressions". (Huang, 1995, p.6) Dr. Sun Yat-sen once remarked that at modern China there are three and half talents in

English language, that is, Ku Hungming, Wu Chaoshu, and Chen Youren, and rated Ku as the No.1. Not only Chinese speak high of Ku Hungming's English competence, but also foreign scholars are much appreciative of his language proficiency. Soothill, William E. (1910) highly praised the English version of *The Analects* by Ku Hungming, "The learners shall owe thanks to Ku, who is a well cultivated Chinese". He translated and deciphered the classics, which is highly valuable to all of us. (p. II-III.)

C. Translation Purpose

Translation strategy is in a way affected by translation purpose of the translator. To be exact, with different translation purposes, James Legge and Ku Hungming come up with different translation strategies.

As a loyal missionary and a noted British sinologist as well, James Legge's translation purpose was to help the western missionaries coming to China have a better understanding of The Analects, and to promote their great cause. In his words, "If a western missionary in China does not get a mastery of the ancient Chinese classics, nor does he make a personal probe into the ideology fields where the previous Chinese sages and men of virtue ever went, he is incompetent to the duties and preaching work he is supposed to take on". (Legge, 1893, p.45) James Legge hoped that the completion of the translation of *The Analects* could "enable other areas and regions of the world to get a genuine understanding of this great empire, particularly once our missionary cause in China is guided by the local ample cultural resources, its long-term effects could be ensured." (Cheng, 2002, p.17) Furthermore, "it helps the missionaries well comprehend the Chinese classics, extend our inner sympathy based on such deep understanding, thus that could defuse their hostility towards us foreigners, and finally guide the Chinese people to bound for the way looking for another sage, let Confucius alone". Accordingly he required that the translated text "should be loyal to the original text, not uphold the colorfulness of the target text so much" (Legge, 1893, p.89). In order to comply with the rationale of being loyal to the original text, James Legge not only employs literal translation—stressing on reserve of phrasing and sentence patterns of the original text", trying to keep a original flavor of the source language, but also would rather neglect smoothness and fluency of the source text than make any adjustment. Judging from James Legge's language gifts, it's not that all this cannot be conducted by his own capability, but that he did it on purpose. The main purpose of his translation is to display "the peculiar manner of writing of the original text". (Wang, 2003, p.69) When it comes to Ku Hungming, two factors or purposes motivated him to compile the English version of *The Analects*. The first one is that obviously Ku Hungming was unsatisfied with that of *The Analects* complied by western scholars. He said at the prologue of the English version of *The Analects*, "It's over 40 years since Dr. James Legge published the first section of his English version of Ancient Chinese Classics. Now anyone, even if those who knows nothing about Chinese language, cannot help thinking that his translation text is so discontent to the common people as long as he or she takes some time patiently going through Dr. James Legge's works." (Ku, 1996, p.345) As Ku Hungming (1996) said, "The common British people will consider much strange and odd the Chinese's wisdom and virtues embodied in the translated text of James Legge, just as the same feelings the westerns have when they see the Chinese wearing such traditional clothes as robes and mandarin jackets." (p.345-346) The second purpose for Ku Hungming to start recompilation of *The Analects* is that he strongly wanted to reshape the westerners' attitude towards the whole China whether in terms of Chinese people or in terms of international communication. Living in the late Qing Dynasty and the early period of the Republic of China, Ku Hungming saw that at that time China was faced with domestic strife and foreign aggression, and the western culture was holding the dominant position in China. With years' experiences of studying abroad at youth as well as years' concentrated research of the Confucian culture, Ku Hungming deemed that " *The Analects* is the inherent cultural treasure of our great China, and we shall have the very duty to present it to the westerners" (Huang, 1995, p.27). British people can "reflect upon those preconceived ideas towards our Chinese after going through patiently this English version of *The Analects*, hopefully, it helps to change their previous prejudices and bias towards both whole China and the Chinese individual during the international connections." (Ku, 1996, p.346-347)

IV. CONCLUSION

From what we discussed above, we can find out that translating classic literature works like *The Analects* is really a complex process. Legge's and Ku's version can stand for two different style-heterization and naturalization, however, it seems impossible for us to tell which one is better. What the translator needs to do is to be more flexible. During the course of translation we can do better through combining history with present time, and the integration of the source text and the target text, the author and the translator, accordingly, the style of the source text can be better presented to the readers.

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Corpus Functional Stylistic Analysis of Modal Verbs in *Major Barbara* and Its Chinese Versions

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Abstract—With modality in systematic functional linguistics as the theoretical framework, we attempt to investigate the distribution and model verbs in *Major Barbara* and its two Chinese versions by Lin Haozhuang and Ying Ruocheng by the aid of text-processing software AntConc 3.2.2, in the hope of exploring the shaping force of modality system in characterization as well as interpersonal relationships in drama translation. In addition, a valid research model of corpus functional stylistics in drama translation is tentatively conducted.

Index Terms—modal verb, drama translation, interpersonal relationship, *Major Barbara*, Corpus functional stylistics

I. INTRODUCTION

George Bernard Shaw created vast and numerous works throughout his life. *Major Barbara* was one of his most wonderful dramas, which perfectly expressing the writer's artistic characteristic of showing the conflicts between characters and revealing the theme through dialogues. With the change of behaviors and values of the heroine Barbara as the main line, the whole drama is full of drastic ideological confrontations among characters who hold different outlooks on life and values. The language of the characters in his drama is always witty and humorous. Scholars and critics have analyzed it from multiple perspectives such as cognition and pragmatics, but rare investigations have been conducted from functional stylistics. Take the modality system in SFL (Systemic Functional Linguistics) as the theoretical framework, this article has tried to analyze two typical groups of dialogues between three main characters in *Major Barbara* and its two Chinese versions by Lin Haozhuang and Ying Ruocheng with the stylistic approach based on self-construct corpus by the aid of text-processing software AntConc 3.2.2, to reveal the personality and interactive attitude of the heroes and heroines so that to discover the role relationship and explore the interpersonal function of the modality system for further researching and understanding of the artistic characteristics of the drama.

When considering the modal verbs in the English original version, this article has selected relative corpuses in two Chinese translation versions to achieve parallel and contrastive analysis. The version translated by Lin Haozhuang was first published in 1956, together with Mrs. Warren's Profession translated by Pan Jiaxun and The Apple Cart translated by Lao She, and was published in The Selected Works by Bernard Shaw edited by People's Literature Publishing House and was republished in 1963 in Three Dramas of Bernard Shaw. However, there are few introductions or studies about background of Lin Haozhuang as a translator. On the contrary, the other translator Ying Ruocheng was well-known as a director, actor, translator and politician who always pursuing "promote translation through acting and vice versa" as his aim in drama translation. He was good at combining literary effects with theatrical effects. In 1990, he translated Major Barbara and then put it on to the stage which turned out to be a big success. There are many differences lies between these two Chinese versions of Major Barbara. There existed a big time span between the two versions and were born in a revolution age of Chinese society, and the translators themselves also had significant diversities in life backgrounds. Therefore, by comparing the similarities and differences of the representation of modality system in the two versions of Lin and Ying, we can discover different translator's styles and discuss the construction function of the modality system to characters and interpersonal relationship in the drama as well as to explore the corpus functional stylistics analysis model in drama translation.

II. THE CORPUS FUNCTIONAL STYLISTICS APPROACHES TO DRAMA TRANSLATION STUDIES

As Shen Dan (1995) pointed out in the discussion of the relationship of literary stylistics and fiction translation, literary translation should be suitable for stylistic Studies. However, there were rare attempt to apply stylistics into literary translation, at least for Chinese and English. Boase Beier (2004) also found that the research results of stylistics had little effect on translation studies for many years and the views of translation studies had little stylistics factors,

either. Besides, though corpus stylistics studies emerged rapidly and drastically, both the domestic and foreign studies on the corpus stylistics have obviously placed extra emphasis on fiction narrative styles, failing to pay equal attention to other typical features of styles such as poetry and drama. Thus, the research perspective and related explanation strength of corpus stylistics would be restricted. Even the combination of corpus stylistics and translation studies fails to establish systematic research framework of translation studies and especially drama translation.

A. The Corpus Functional Stylistics and Drama Translation Study

The drama language is mainly based on character dialogues. As the classical "interactive verbal communication", the dialogues emphasize the language's colloquialism, individuation and action. Therefore, analysis on the drama language should concentrate on the generation and comprehension process of meaning in context and interaction so as to reveal how the dialogues serve for the performance of dramatic conflicts and describe the characters, and finally fulfill the explanatory adequacy (Yu Dongming, 1996). In the 1980s and 1990s, the functional linguistics, pragmatics and discourse analysis developed rapidly and were widely used into the investigation of English drama language. Western scholars such as Carter & Simpson (1989), Bennison (1993) and Herman (1995) made great efforts in this respect.

Functional stylistics, theoretically based on functionism view of language, is an import school of stylistics theory and has played a more and more crucial part in modern stylistics study. Represented by Halliday's theory, the systematic functional linguistics has the characteristics of functionality, systematicness and pays much attention to situational context in which the textual function would organize the ideational function and interpersonal function as a whole in the discourse. Those three functions are interrelated and motivate each other to be the main ingredients for constituting the "meaning potential". When doing stylistic analysis, the ideational function would start from the transitivity system, voice as well as coordination and subordination in logic relation; the interpersonal function would be achieved by mood and modality system; the textual function would be reflected from the information structure, thematic structure and cohesion system.

We have found that some scholars at home and abroad have devoted themselves to the functional stylistic analysis of drama translation studies in recent year. With the help of corpus means, Kruger (2000, 2004) investigated the expression of lexical cohesion, register variants and features of involvement in different linguistic fields of Shakespeare's drama when translated into Afrikkans (a kind of language in South Africa). Ren Xiaofei (2008) made drama stylistic analysis based on the corpus about the construction of the illocutionary force, discourse marker, turn-taking and indicating system in several translations of *Tea House, Death of a Salesman* and *Measure for Measure*. Zhang and Chen (2010) chose personalized character language and relative translation of *Dream of Red Mansions* as the data of corpus, and applied modality system as the entry point to study the selection of modality in discourse and its corresponding interpersonal function in the translation version. Such studies have provided great theoretical and technical support to this research.

B. The Modal System and Its Interpersonal Function in Drama Translation

Language is a meaningful activity for social men, it is an important medium for interaction with others and establishing and maintaining certain relationship. Functional linguistics holds the view that apart from expressing the speaker's personal experience and inner activity, language can represent the identity, status, attitude, motivation and inference of things, namely the interpersonal function of language. Some systematic functional linguists like Halliday have pointed out that the language interpersonal function consists of mood system, modality system, and key system. In this thesis, modality system is discussed as the main topic.

The characteristics of modality are reflected in many ways and the academic definition for modality is not unified. Besides the modal verbs, the modal adverbs and adjectives in English such as *possible, probably, perhaps, obviously, likely, definitely, only, just, really, quite, usually, please*, etc.; passive predicate verbs or predicate adjectives like *be supposed to, be keen to, and be anxious to* etc.; and the metaphorical expressions like *I believe, I know, I think, I'm certain, It's likely, you can't seriously doubt that* etc. are often used to express some degree of modality, and they constitute the means for the modality system to reflect the interpersonal meaning.

According to the implication of different information, Halliday has further divided the modality into modalisation and modulation. The modalisation analyzes the reliability of the proposition and information from possibility and frequency, including the degrees of probability and usuality; while the modulation refers to the confidence involved in the successful exchanged information from the obligations and willingness, including the degrees of obligation and inclination. In each element, the corresponding modal realizations can be reflected and considered through related means. As shown in Table 1, the realizations of modality can be divided into low, medium and high (Hu Zhuanglin, 2005; Li Guanxia, 2006), and the modal verbs are often used to tell different value of possibility and usuality; obligation and inclination.

TABLE 1:
THE VALUE OF MODAL VERB

	Low	Medium	High
Positive	can, may, could, might, (dare)	will, would, should, is to, was to, shall	must, ought to, need, has/have/had to
Negative	needn't, doesn't/ didn't+ need to/ have to	won't, wouldn't, shouldn't (isn't/wasn't to)	mustn't, oughtn't to, can't, couldn't (mayn't) mightn't hasn't to hadn't to

In traditional grammar, the modality is closely connected to the modal verb, which has always been an important method to achieve the modality and one of the most common and simple retrieval items for investigating the modality interpersonal meaning. In interpersonal relationships, applying different value of the modal verbs would reflect the subtle mutual relations and characters among the communicative roles. In addition, in literary texts, different subjects have totally different modality applications: the modal verbs are seldom used in poetries because the poetries focus on expressing the emotions but have rare comments; but they are used very often in narrative words and comments of prose and fictions. Therefore, this article has chosen the modality to get quantitative statistics by analyzing the modality system distribution in *Major Barbara* and its two Chinese translation versions by means of corpus, and analyze the typical dialogues through functional stylistics ways.

III.   THE MODAL SYSTEM AND ITS INTERPERSONAL FUNCTION IN *MAJOR BARBARA*

The drama language features in colloquial and action, together with another key point, characterization. Being different from other literary styles, drama can create a typical image by narrating and describing and have double characteristics of both literary and theatrical. Time and space constraints of the stage performance have determined that the shaping of characters heavily depends on the actors lines, which has become one of the "most difficult" (said by Ying Ruocheng) problems but also a test for the author's skills. How to convey a vivid character personality, shape the drama image and set off the interrelations between the characters is the key to achieve a successful drama and translation, among which, the modality has played a role that should not be underestimated.

This article selects the climax in Scene 3(the dialogue between the Barbara and Undershaft) as the language material to study the modality distribution and functional quality in these two typical dialogues in accordance with the above table ---- The value of modal verb, and investigate the characters and their interpersonal relationship.

A.   Data Collection

Input modal verbs with high value, medium value and low value respectively, e.g. must | ought to | need | has to | have to | had to…; will | would | should | is to | was to | shall…; can | may | could | might… into "Search Term" blank in AntConc 3.2.2, and click "Start" button, then the frequency of the high value modal verbs can be found in "Concordance Hits" window while the distribution and details can be checked in "Concordance Plot" and "File View" windows just like figure 1 and figure 2 display.

Figure 1: The distribution and frequency of the modal verbs in dialogue between Lady Britomart and Stephen
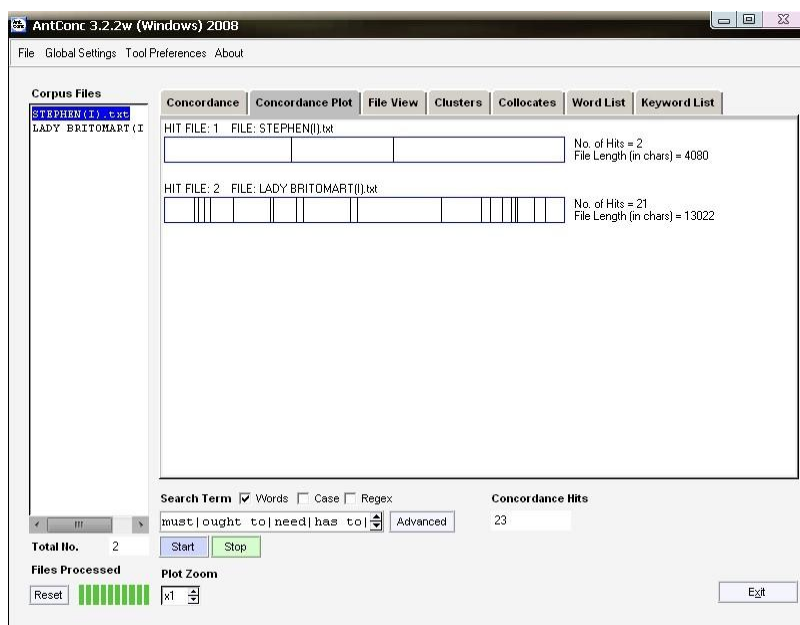
Figure 2: The distribution and frequency of the high value modal verbs in dialogue between Lady Britomart and Stephen

B. Data Statistics and Tracking Investigation of Modal Verb

The statistics have shown that in the dialogue between Lady Britomart and her son Stephen , the quantities and types of modal verbs used by Lady Britomart is more then that used by Stephen (As displayed in Figure 1: Lady Britomart used 65 times while Stephen used 13 times). Still in this dialogue, the high value modal verbs used by the mother are much more then the son (As displayed in Figure 2: Lady Britomart used 21 times while Stephen used only twice).

The high value modal verbs used by Lady Britomart includ 5 types (must, need, ought to, have/had to). Among these, the "must", which contains high mandatory occured 12 times, and 7 of them used directly to Stephen in their dialogue while 5 in that indicated compulsory provisions or restraints to her son. For example:

… You **must** learn to face life seriously, Stephen…
… You **must** advise me; you **must** assume the responsibility…
… you **must** interfere now…
… you **must** marry soon…

The other two musts indicated "certainly, be bound to", which showed the mother's subjective logical judgment to her son's probable situation or behaviour. For instance:

… You **must** know a lot of things now; unless you have wasted your time most scandalously…
… especially if you are still so childish that you **must** make it worse by a display of embarrassment…

Different choices for modal forms, especially the choices of high, medium and low modality can represent the attitude and force of the speaker to the proposition and the hearer so as to highlight the speaker's status and the relationship with the hearer. According to Halliday's research (1994), the speaker can use different values of modal forms to press higher or lower stress on the discourse's validity to force others to complete the instruction. High modal verbs often express strong opinions and forces in the discourse and other things or relations, reflecting certain dominance and the speaker's particular social status and personality. On the contrary, low modal forms stand for weaker opinions and forces and do not highlight the personal status and identity, but inclined to create the image as collective members.

These musts have created a strict, arrogant and vivid mother's image of high requirements for her son. Lady Britomart, as a noblewoman in high society, she developed the fastidious, arrogant and pretentious temperament. There are 13 modal verbs in Stephen's conversation here, of which contain 7 low value verbs, 53.8% of all modal verbs but only 2 high-value verbs, forming a sharp contrast to the mother's words from amounts or types. Thus, the audiences will clearly feel the son's submissive personality and then construct a primary image of the two characters' relationship and status in this family.

There are still 3 musts that reflect Lady Britomart high willingness for her own obligations. For example:

… I **must** get the money somehow…
… So I **must** put my pride in my pocket and ask for it…
… You mean that I **must** ask him…

The high-value modal verb "must" here have fully revealed that Lady Britomart is not only a strict mother, but also a loving mother showing the utmost solicitude to her son. When dealing with the children's living difficulties, she has taking responsibility as a mother to ask for the money , which she does not care but can not reject, from her husband who has been separated for a long time despite the upper-class lady's status.

However, when referring to the husband Undershaft, the two "must" and "had to" are high-value ones meaning "surely" and "cannot but, which imply high possibility and obligation. It is clear that though they have been separated for many years, she is still confident that she understands her husband well and is sure about his material and spirit life, so her tone is certain and holds a tough stance. Audiences are able to imagine and infer that Lady Britomart might be arrogant to the husband and must have a higher status in the family and before separation. Thus, further guess about the subtle connections between the separation and their characters, background and status can be made. Meanwhile, the audiences can also infer that Lady Britomart has to come off her perch and respect Undershaft well but would not be too humble in the following texts. For example:

… Stephen, your father **must** be fabulously wealthy…

… But he thinks I ought to ask Andrew to come here and see the girls. After all, he **must** have some natural affection for them.

… always awkward and sullen when he **had to** behave sensibly and decently!

… Andrew had to contribute something.

In the other reference group ---- dialogue between Undershaft and Barbara:

The father, Undershaft, has used more modal verbs than the daughter Barbara in number and type (Undershaft: 19times; Barbara: 5 times), and they differ a lot in the frequency of using medium-value modal verb (Undershaft: 15 times; Barbara: 3 times).
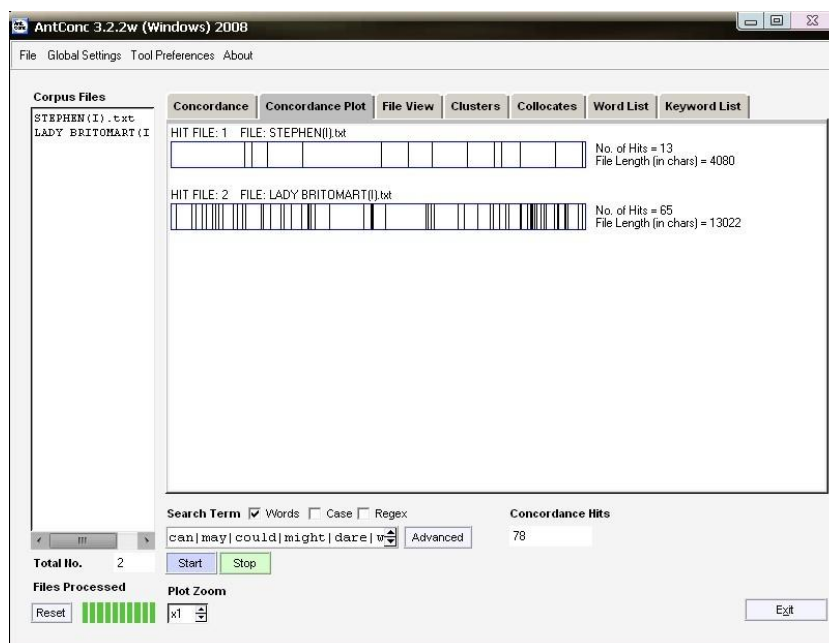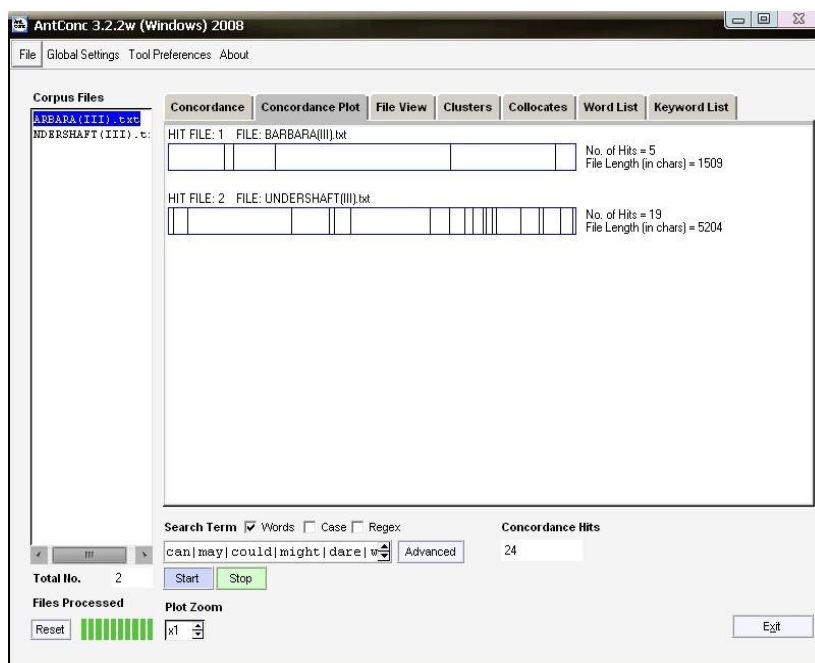

Figure 3: The distribution and frequency of the modal verbs in dialogue between Undershaft and Barbara
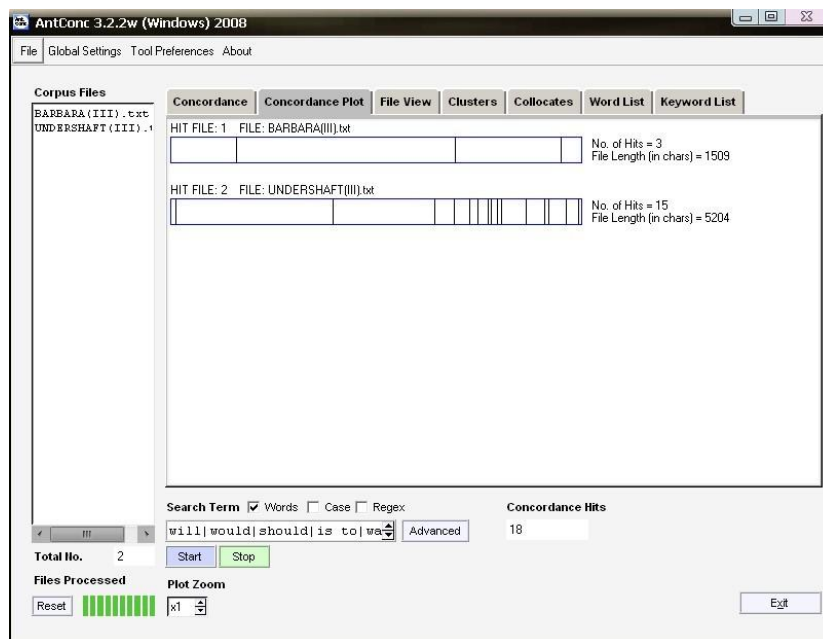
Figure 4: The distribution and frequency of the medium value modal verbs in dialogue between Undershaft and Barbara

It can be found out from Figure 3 and 4 that the father and the daughter use medium-value modal verbs most. The high-value "had to" (… When I joined it, I had not time enough for all the things I **had to** do.), representing "obligation" is only used once in the dialogue when Barbara starts the passive conversation because of the father's question. The emergence of high-value modal verbs implies Barbara's complex feelings of shocking, disappointed and angry after hearing that her fiancé discuss about the powder mill's inherence, while the father's question gives her a chance to express her inner feelings. "Had to" means "cannot but", and Barbara, who has always been sincere about the Salvation Army doctrine, describes the army affairs as something "had to do" but not from the heart. This is strange and need careful consideration. The audiences may find that her value has been affected and is changing gradually.

Barbara has used medium and low value modal verbs for 4 times besides the above high-value one in the dialogue. They are:

… Yesterday I **should** have said, because I was in the power of God.

… Oh how gladly I **would** take a better one to my soul! But you offer me a worse one.

… And **will** he be the better for that?

… Today I feel—oh! How **can** I put it into words?

As a medium-value modal word, "should" indicates "obligation" and not very sure; "would" is a medium-value predictive word, implies an imagine scene; "will" means the objective and certain guess for the future. The three words constitute 3/5 of Barbara's words in this paragraph, so we know that she is not sure about her idea and her faith is not firm. "Can" means "lower possibility", which shows Barbara's idealism belief has been damaged by her father's harsh economic reality and defeated in the conflicts with the father. Her complex emotion is beyond words description. Though they have not seen for many years, the father's performance in this meeting has a great effect on her and becomes the turning point of her belief and a vital change in her life.

It is noteworthy that father Undershaft has used abundant modal words without any high-value modal verbs but only medium and low value verbs. For example:

… I **will** take an order from a good man as cheerfully as from a bad one.

… I took care that you **should** have money enough to live handsomely—more than enough; so that you **could** be wasteful, careless, generous.

… Nothing **can** lift those seven millstones from Man's neck but money

… and I **will** drag his soul back again to salvation for you.

… He **will** be better fed, better housed, better clothed, better behaved; and his children **will** be pounds heavier and bigger.

… That **will** be better than an American cloth mattress in a shelter…

… I **will** undertake to convert West Ham to Mohammedanism…

As mentioned above, low modal verbs stand for weaker opinions and forces and do not highlight the personal status and identity, but inclined to create the image as collective members. Now though holding the discourse advantage, Undershaft has used a lot of medium and low value verbs. His attitude is tough but the expression is mild and the tone is soft and full of caring, acting as a kind father. Showing more intimate and gentle kindness, he just wants to be closer to his daughter. On the one hand, he hopes to make up the unpaid love between father and daughter; on the other hand, this makes bedding for persuading the daughter to change her thought.

Figure 3 and 4 also illustrate that the modal verbs are not evenly distributed, particularly the frequency by Undershaft is obviously going high and most modal verbs especially the medium-value verbs are centered in the end of conversations. It is not difficult to see that the father and the daughter have experienced mood swing and discourse power change: Undershaft is in high spirit and his sentences become longer with more high-value modal verbs and higher discourse power; while Barbara is retreating again and again and her sentences become shorter with more low-value verbs and unable to refute father's opinions, and her faith is shaking.

IV. THE COMPARISON TO THE ORIGINAL ON USAGE RULE OF CAN-WISH VERBS IN TWO CHINESE TRANSLATION VERSIONS OF *MAJOR BARBARA*

There are various ways to express the mood in Chinese as in English, and the core element is can-wish verbs. Peng Xuanwei (2000) has classified the values of can-wish verbs, referring to Halliday's dividing way in English modal operators: low-valued can-wish verbs such as "能、会、可以、不会、可能不、不能够…"; medium can-wish verbs such as "想、要、想要、不想、不愿…"; high-valued verbs like "得、应该、要、不可能、不可以、不能、不得…"According to the feature of the Chinese characters used in the chosen materials, can-wish verbs in the two Chinese versions of *Major Barbara*, translated by Lin Haozhuang (Hereinafter referred to as Lin) and Ying Ruocheng (Hereinafter referred to as Ying) can be classified as follow:

TABLE 2:
THE TYPES OF CAN-WISH VERBS IN TWO CHINESE TRANSLATION VERSIONS OF *MAJOR BARBARA*

Chinese translation version	Low-value can-wish verb	Medium-value can-wish verb	High-value can-wish verb
Lin	会、能、可以、能够、不会、不一定	想、要、不要、就要、应当	得、要、该、一定、不可、不能、定、应该、不得不
Ying	会、能、可以、不会、不一定	想、要、不要	得、要、该、一定、不可、不能、应该、不得不、不该、必须

A. Data Collection

According to the classification mentioned above, input can-wish verbs with high value, medium value and low value respectively, e.g. 得|应该|要|不可能|不可以|不能|不得...; 想|要|想要|不想|不愿...; 能|会|可以|不会|可能不|不能够… into "Search Term" blank in AntConc 3.2.2, and click "Start" button, then the frequency of the high value modal verbs can be found in "Concordance Hits" window while the details can be checked in "File View" windows. Relevant data can be concluded in Table 3:

TABLE 3:
THE COMPARISON TO THE ORIGINAL ON THE FREQUENCY OF MODAL VERBS (CAN-WISH VERBS) IN TWO CHINESE TRANSLATION VERSIONS OF *MAJOR BARBARA*

Character	Low-value can-wish verb			Medium-value can-wish verb			High-value can-wish verb		
	Original	Lin	Ying	Original	Lin	Ying	Original	Lin	Ying
Lady Britomart (薄丽托玛夫人/薄丽托马夫人)	16	18	16	28	13	25	21	23	34
Stephen (斯泰芬/斯蒂文)	7	7	7	4	2	3	2	0	4
Barbara (巴巴娜/芭巴拉)	1	0	3	3	1	1	1	1	3
Undershaft (安德谢夫)	3	11	7	15	2	7	1	3	1

B. The Interpersonal Function Analysis of the Can-wish Verbs in Drama Translation

Summing up the above data, the two versions have obvious similarities and partial differences compared with the original work on the usage rule of different value's can-wish verbs. The disparity of the three texts is very small in the numbers of Lady Britomart's low-value verbs, Stephen and Barbara's can-wish verbs and Undershaft's high-value verbs, even achieving exactly the same on Stephen's low-value can-wish verbs. The data in this sheet intuitively indicate that the two translators have taken the original's language features into consideration, seizing the usage rule of modal verbs and mastering the characters' features, to rebuild the interactive relationship between characters successfully.

The differences in the sheet most exist in Lady Britomart's medium and high value verbs and Undershaft's low and medium value can-wish verbs. Ying's version uses more high-value verbs than the original work and Lin's version, but the numbers of medium-value verbs are closer to the original. In this comparison, Lin's version displays a totally different feature: Lin's Undershaft uses more low-value verbs than the original and Ying's version, but the medium-value verbs are less than that two. In general, Ying's usage rule of can-wish verbs is much closer to the

original.

According to the second part of this article, in the opening of the first act, Bernard Shaw attempts to describe Lady Britomart's strict, arrogant and responsible mother image, attaching fastidious, proud and pretentious features to her. Compared with Lin's version, Ying adopts more numbers and types of high-value can-wish verbs to make this classic noble mother image become richer and more vivid.

Lin uses a lot of low-value can-wish verbs in Undershaft's conversation with his daughter in the third act's climax, aiming to weakening the role's personal views and power, not to highlight his status and identity, but to create the image as a collective member. This version intends to depict Undershaft as a persuasive and loving father who hope to improve the relationship with the daughter.

As shown in Table 4, by comparing the total usage numbers of modal verbs in the original with the two Chinese translation versions, we can find that Ying uses more can-wish verbs than the original to highlight the noble mother's image. While other role's usage numbers are very near to the original work, maintaining the original language style and the character features and properly analyzing the interpersonal relationship. Generally speaking, Lin's version is closer to Shawn's original modality.

TABLE 4:
THE COMPARISON TO THE ORIGINAL ON THE TOTALITY OF MODAL VERBS (CAN-WISH VERBS) IN TWO CHINESE TRANSLATION VERSIONS OF *MAJOR BARBARA*

Character	Original	Lin	Ying
Lady Britomart (薄丽托玛夫人 /薄丽托马夫人)	65	54	75
Stephen (斯泰芬/斯蒂文)	13	9	14
Barbara (巴巴娜/芭巴拉)	5	2	7
Undershaft (安德谢夫)	19	16	15
Total	102	81	111

V. CONCLUSIONS

The different expression ways and forms between English and Chinese have caused different specific forms of modality system in them. English is such a language requiring strict sentence structure and the pattern as its main axis, so the modal expression mainly depends on the modality system with relatively fixed grammar function; while Chinese emphasizes the function and diversity of language with the motivation as its core, thus the ways of expressing modality are more flexible. In general, modal (can-wish) operators (verbs) are the major marks both in English and Chinese modality system. When we are creating or translating drama, the choices of modal forms (especially the high, medium and low value verbs) play a subtle regulating role in expressing the speaker's attitude and power relation towards the discourse and the hearer, thus the speaker's status and the characters' interrelations can be more prominent. Therefore, analyzing the drama and its translation from the modal verbs can help us catch the key point of the character communication, accurately understand the interrelations, analyze the psychological changes and improve the reconstruction ability of character personality and interrelationship in drama translation. Furthermore, the corpus functional stylistics has provided an effective and new perspective to study drama translation which is worthy for further research.

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Critical Thinking and Speaking Proficiency: A Mixed-method Study

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Abstract—The present study was intended to investigate the impact of teaching critical thinking skills on the speaking proficiency of Iranian EFL learners in Tehran, how this impact is explained and the participants' attitudes towards explicit critical-thinking content. To achieve this goal, two groups of female Iranian intermediate EFL learners were compared on their speaking performance, with one group having been trained in critical thinking explicitly and the other as the control group. Both groups were tested prior to and after the training of the experimental group was performed. A mixed-method approach was employed in the analysis of the data. In the quantitative analysis, a quasi-experimental method was adopted to investigate the impact of teaching critical thinking skills on the speaking proficiency of the experimental group in comparison with the control group. The results indicated that teaching critical thinking explicitly has a significantly positive impact on the speaking proficiency of female Iranian adult intermediate EFL learners. Through the qualitative approach, the participants' attitudes towards their training in critical thinking were studied during in-depth interviews. The results are described in detail. Accordingly, explicit instruction of critical thinking in the English class can make a deeper impression of the language taught.

Index Terms—critical thinking, speaking proficiency, English as a foreign language (EFL)

I. INTRODUCTION

Critical thinking is one of the most modern issues in education around the world, being utilized in the classroom and the curricula as a way to train decisive, open-minded individuals with fair judgmental qualities referred to as cultivated critical thinkers (Paul & Elder, 2008). Paul and Elder maintained that thinking is inevitable, and all people think, although much of this thinking can be biased, distorted, partial, uninformed or down-right prejudiced, and to achieve excellence in thought one must be cultivated. Therefore, one is not born with critical thinking skills and needs to be trained to learn the skills and fortunately critical thinking can be taught.

ELT has not been ignorant of the importance of critical thinking and English teachers have long tried to employ critical thinking strategies into the English language classroom through problem-solving tasks, thought-provocative questions following reading comprehensions or in class discussions and many more (Devine, 1962).

Despite the fact that the enhancement of life skills has for many years been advocated in the context of education, it seems that, at least in the case of critical thinking, both English language teachers and language learners are lagging behind in Iran (Ketabi, Zabihi, & Ghadiri, 2012). Iranian students are mostly obliged to memorize and rewrite pre-thought information at schools as opposed to thinking out their own ideas and assessing facts and not taking those taught by their teachers for granted. Not introduced to the concept of critical thinking at school, Iranian students welcome English language learning in private institutes and/or with the help of private tutors, who go through world-renowned ELT books written by English-speaking authors who claim that critical thinking strategies were embedded in their course books.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The history of critical thinking traces its roots in analytic philosophy and pragmatist constructivism which dates back over 2500 years, as in the Buddha's Teachings: mainly in Buddhist texts such as the Kalama Sutta and the Abhidharma (Damirchi, Seyyedi, & Rahimi, 2012). The term "critical thinking" stems from the mid-late 20th century. It is best said that "there are as many definitions of critical thinking as there are writers on the subject" (Mayfield, 2001, p. 4). One of the briefest, most commonly cited definitions of critical thinking is that it is "thinking about thinking" extracted from the longer definition stating that critical thinking is the art of thinking about your thinking while you are thinking in order to make your thinking better: clearer, more accurate, more defensible" (Paul, as cited in Long, 2003, p. 2).

In the literature belonging to the recent years, a categorized look at the definition of critical thinking has been adopted. Three different approaches to critical thinking have been described. The two first approaches to critical thinking stem from Lewis and Smith (1993) believing in the roots of critical thinking to be in philosophy and psychology. A third critical thinking strand is within the field of education which was first presented by Sternburg (as

cited in Lai, 2011). Lai (2011) believes that these different approaches have led to different perspectives in defining critical thinking, which include: the philosophical approach, the cognitive psychological approach, and the educational approach.

The writings of Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, and more recently, Lipman and Paul, are examples of the philosophical approach. This approach focuses on the hypothetical critical thinker, listing the numerous qualities and characteristics of the critical thinker and not the behaviors or actions that the critical thinker does. Scholars who work within the philosophical tradition also emphasize standards of thought (as cited in Fahim & Shakouri, 2012). Sternberg (Sternberg, 1986) noted that this approach somehow looks at the critical thinker rather idealistically, and mostly focuses on what people are capable of doing under hypothetically ideal circumstances. Accordingly, Paul (1992) discussed critical thinking in the context of "perfections of thought" (p. 9). As mentioned above, those who work within the philosophical tradition also emphasize standards of thought. For example, Bailin (2002) defined critical thinking as thinking of a particular quality—essentially good thinking that meets specified criteria or standards of adequacy and accuracy. Further, in the philosophical approach, the application of formal rules of logic is traditionally focused upon (Lewis & Smith, 1993; Sternberg, 1986). It is clear that one of the limitations of this approach to defining critical thinking is that it is not always in agreement with reality (Sternberg, 1986).

The cognitive psychological approach contrasts with the philosophical perspective in that, first, it tends to focus on how people actually think rather than how they could or should think under ideal circumstances, and second, it defines critical thinking by the types of actions or behaviors critical thinkers can do. Typically, in this approach to defining critical thinking a list of skills or procedures performed by critical thinkers is provided (Lewis & Smith, 1993). This latter aspect of critical thinking has been criticized by philosophers, for instance, Bailin (2002) claimed that since the actual process of thought is unobservable, cognitive psychologists have tended to focus on the products of such thought—behaviors or overt skills.

According to Lai (2011), the third approach to critical thinking comes from those working in the field of education, like Bloom (1956) and his associates who have taken part in the discussions revolving around critical thinking. Their taxonomy for information processing skills has been widely cited by educational practitioners when it comes to teaching and assessing higher-order thinking skills, which itself is defined as "the capacity to go beyond the information given, to adopt a critical stance, to evaluate, to have metacognitive awareness and problem solving capacities" (McLoughlin & Luca, 2000, p. 4). Bloom's taxonomy refers to a classification of the different objectives which educators set for students (learning objectives) (Orlich, Harder, Callahan, Trevisan, & Brown, 2004) and is hierarchical, with comprehension at the bottom and evaluation at the top. The three highest levels, which include analysis, synthesis, and evaluation, are frequently said to represent critical thinking (Kennedy, Fisher, & Ennis, as cited in Lai, 2011, p. 8).

Teaching critical thinking.

Educators have long seen critical thinking as a desirable educational outcome. A 1972 study of 40,000 faculty members by the American Council on Education revealed that 97 percent of the respondents indicated the most important goal of undergraduate education is to foster students' ability to think critically (Paul R., 2004). Dewey introduced learning to think" as a primary purpose of education in 1933 (as cited in Halpern, 2003). Bruning, Schraw, Norby and Ronning (2004) maintained that it is important that we are "teaching students how to think rather than what to think" (p. 180). In his book named Pedagogy of the Oppressed, Freire (1970) labeled the traditional system of education present in many countries as the banking system of education as opposed to the problem-posing system of education. In the banking system of education the teacher is the source of information and knows everything while the students know nothing, they are expected to listen only and not to express their opinions, and to be filled by the teacher's narration like empty glasses. On the contrary, the problem posing education is one form of the realization of critical pedagogy in the classroom context and encourages critical thinking. One of the teachers' roles in a problem-posing system of education is to problematize situations that are familiar to the students and by presenting them to the students and making them think about those situations in new ways (Fahim & Shakouri, 2012).

Moon (2008) asserted that critical thinking and its relationship to the educational process has become a central issue. She added that since critical thinking is a process which is involved in any research activity; it can be considered as a principal concept to education, especially at higher levels. In fact, critical thinking is a fundamental goal of learning. According to Lipman (2003) teachers are responsible to develop critical thinking in their students and not just push them from one educational level to the next. Brown (2004) proposes that the objectives of a curriculum in an ideal academic English program should go beyond linguistic factors, and to develop the art of critical thinking. Critical thinking has been identified as one of several skills necessary to prepare students for post-secondary education and the workforce (Lai, 2011). Fisher (2003) also emphasized the significance of teaching critical thinking skills. He maintained that the students' thinking skills do not equip them well enough to overcome the problems that they encounter either in education or in their daily lives, thus they need to be taught critical thinking skills.

Ennis (1989) described four instructional approaches that vary in terms of the extent to which critical thinking skills are taught as an exclusive course versus integrated into regular instruction (cited in Lai, 2011). These include the general approach, the infusion approach, the immersion approach and the mixed approach. In the general approach, direct and explicit instruction in critical thinking takes place in an exclusive course, where critical thinking skills and abilities are emphasized and the instruction of specific subject matter is not involved. Examples and tasks are included

in order to make the issue more tangible for the students. The content is drawn from problems that students are familiar with and may encounter in their daily lives. Van Gelder (2005), as one of the advocates of the general approach, emphasized the need for "deliberate practice" in exercising critical thinking skills and abilities and stated that this type of practice can only occur when critical thinking is taught explicitly and exclusively as part of the curriculum. However, students must also be taught how to transfer their critical thinking knowledge to a variety of contexts and must be provided with opportunities to practice applying critical thinking skills in diverse contexts. Another scholar advocating this approach is Halpern (2001), who has referred to instruction in general thinking skills, taught as a "broad-based, cross-disciplinary" course, to be the most effective way of teaching critical thinking.

In the infusion approach, in-depth instruction in the subject matter takes place including explicit instruction on general critical thinking principles. This critical thinking instruction is embedded in the context of specific subject matter (Lai, 2011). Somewhat related to the infusion approach is immersion.

In immersion instruction, students are engaged in deep subject-matter instruction. Although critical thinking skills and abilities are part of the content to be learned, critical thinking instruction is not made explicit and remains embedded in the instruction of the subject matter. In other words, critical thinking skills and abilities are not the focus of direct and explicit instruction. Rather, students are expected to acquire these skills as a natural consequence of their engagement with the subject matter (Ennis, 1989). Some of the scholars who defend these approaches include Bailin, Case, Coombs and Daniels (1999), Lipman (1988), Silva (2008) and Case (2005).

The mixed approach is a combination of both the general and subject-specific approaches. Teachers combine exclusive instruction in general critical thinking principles with application of critical thinking skills in the context of specific subject matter. Explicit instruction in critical thinking skills can be incorporated into both the general and the specific components (Ennis, as cited in Lai 2011). This approach is supported by Facione (1990), Paul (1992) and Kennedy, Fisher and Ennis (1991). After reviewing extant research on the various approaches, Kennedy et al. (1991) concluded that the evidence does not support the superiority of any particular approach.

Speaking proficiency

The Oxford Dictionary of Current English (2009) defines speaking as "the action of conveying information or expressing ones' thoughts and feelings in spoken languages" (p.414). Chaney (1998), however, thought of speaking to be a process: "speaking is the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal or non-verbal symbols in a variety of contexts" (p.13). Accordingly, Florez (1999) described speaking as an "interactive" process, which consists of three main stages "producing, receiving and processing information" (p.1). In language teaching and learning, speaking is considered a skill to be practiced and mastered. Nunan (2003) included that "speaking is the productive oral skill; It consists of producing systematic verbal utterance to convey meaning" (p.48) (cited in Hong, 2010).

The Speaking skill is viewed as the most substantial part of an EFL course. The growing need for international communication in the information age, has led many language learners to language classes in order to improve their speaking ability. Even though many students have mastered basic speaking skills, some students have performed much more effectively in the acquisition and their progress in oral communication than others. And those who are more effective communicators experience more success in school and in other areas of their lives (Malmir & Shoorcheh, 2012). According to Folse (2006), for most people, being able to speak a language means knowing that language since speech is the most fundamental means of communication among human beings. Nevertheless, speaking in a second or foreign language learning context has often been viewed as the most demanding of the four language skills. Speaking a language is especially difficult for foreign language learners because effective oral communication requires the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions (Fulcher, 2003). Bygate (1987) declared that to become a proficient EFL speaker, studying the knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, intonation, etc. is not adequate but the ability to use this knowledge in order to communicate successfully is indispensable.

Hugh and Lavery (2004) draw our attention to the relationship between language and thought and claimed that the relationship is straightforward. They maintained that "thought is expressed in and through language. But this claim, while true, is an oversimplification ... And we all use words not merely to express our thoughts but also to shape them. Developing our critical thinking skills, therefore, requires an understanding of the ways in which words can (and often fail to) express our thoughts." (p.10)

An overview of related research studies

A number of research studies have been done on critical thinking and language proficiency. In their paper titled "The Relationship between Critical Thinking and Language Proficiency of Malaysian Undergraduates", Rosyati and Rosna (2008) reveal the results of their observation as "Proficiency in English is positively related to critical thinking ability implying that if the undergraduates are proficient in English, their critical thinking ability will also be heightened". Nikoopour, Amini Farsani and Nasiri (2011) published their study of Critical Thinking and Language Learning Strategies in 2011; they found a significant relationship between Iranian use of language learning strategies and their way of thinking. "This positive relation may be a replication of many previous studies concerning the effectiveness of critical thinking on the ultimate success of language learners in the challenging process of foreign language learning". In a study on the relationship between collaborative learning and critical thinking of Iranian EFL learners, Naeini (2005) tested 144 adult English language learners. She divided the participants into two groups: the control group and the

experimental group. The findings revealed that the experimental group outperformed the control group. Alagozlu (2007) analyzed Turkish students' critical thinking and individual voice in writing, in her study titled critical thinking and voice in EFL writing in which she concludes that students tend to memorize and write what they read rather than filter it through their judgment and reasoning. She declares that the situation fits into the didactic approach or concept-based instruction in the classic educational system where learning is centered on the retention of previously learned information and where no thinking is required. The study suggests seeking remedies to integrate critical thinking into the classroom and the curricula.

After the existence of a significant relationship between critical thinking and different English language skills was indicated, researchers began studying the impact of critical thinking on improving those skills. In a quantitative study conducted by Malmir and Shoorcheh (2012) on the impact of teaching critical thinking on Iranian learners' speaking skill, it was concluded that critical thinking training had a crucial impact on promoting the speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners. They also observed that, "Critical-thinking strategies helped the learners to become active participants in the interaction process by listening carefully to other students' lectures, by judging on those utterances, and by making the best decisions about what to say in response to what has been said in the conversation by other interactants". Shangarffam and Mamipour (2011) studied the impact of teaching critical thinking on Intermediate EFL learners' writing skill and reported that the participants who had had the opportunity to become familiarized with critical thinking techniques and procedures had outperformed the participants with lack of knowledge about critical thinking. Needless to say, in both of the latter studies critical thinking techniques were employed to teach the participants the skills of speaking and/or writing, this was done through debates, media analysis and problem-solving tasks, however, no explicit and exclusive teaching of critical thinking took place.

Though critical thinking is universally regarded as a pillar of higher education (including by employers seeking college graduates), the results of some research studies show that students are not developing their critical thinking skills to the extent that the researchers expect. For their 2009 book, Academically Adrift: Limited Learning on College Campuses, Arum and Rocksa (2009) followed a little over 2,300 college students through their first two years of school. They found "a barely noticeable impact on students' skills in critical thinking, complex reasoning, and writing" and "no statistically significant gains [in these skills] for at least 45 percent of the students."

It is concluded that some studies show outstanding results by teaching learners skills to improve their critical thinking; however some show that the success does not include all learners. This could stem from the methods used by researchers to teach critical thinking. Marin and Halpern (2010) studied two groups of American high school students and concluded that the students receiving explicit instruction showed much larger gains than those who had received imbedded instruction in critical thinking. Cosgrove (2011) conducted a study in Oxford University and concluded that there was a need for an explicit and systematic approach to teaching critical thinking as the students internalized the explicit and required aspects of critical thinking and largely missed those that were implicit. Therefore, research shows that explicit methods of instruction in critical thinking have been more effective.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the present study were 30 female Iranian intermediate- level learners of English, studying at an English institute situated in the north-east of Tehran. Fifty intermediate students were initially tested on their English proficiency through the Cambridge PET test. Those who scored within one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected for the study as a homogeneous group and then randomly assigned to two groups of 15 students, one as the control group and the other as the experimental group.

Both classes were held at the institute and were taught by the researcher. The control group received the mainstream instruction given in all first intermediate level classes of the institute within 20 sessions. The experimental group received the same training in general English as the control group with an additional treatment in critical thinking for 16 sessions of the total 20 sessions. The sixteen sessions of treatment were carried out within the one and half hour of class time and no additional time was devoted to teaching the experimental group.

B. Instrument

The Preliminary English Test (PET) from Cambridge ESOL exams, by Cambridge University was adopted in this study to a) determine the homogeneity of the participants before the treatment starts, and b) to measure their speaking proficiency before and after the treatment.

The mainstream instruction of general English taught to students of all intermediate classes in the institute includes units one and two of Cambridge Total English course books for Intermediate Students which is covered in twenty sessions of classes held in one month, with each session lasting one and half hours.

The material employed to explicitly teach critical thinking and train the learners in the experimental group was based on the general approach of critical pedagogy. In the general approach, direct and explicit instruction in critical thinking skills is provided as a separate course, where critical thinking skills and abilities are emphasized outside the context of specific subject matter. Some content is involved to contextualize examples and tasks (Ennis, as cited in (Lai, 2011). Strands of simplified literature were combined with real life stories and situations for which the participants were asked

to think about, analyze and make decisions based on their own judgments. Their decisions were then analyzed through debates and discussions and conclusions were drawn in class. It was intended to create a clear concept of critical thinking in the minds of the participants and the exercises and examples given were designed to trigger critical thinking in students when making decisions or analyzing situations through debates and group/pair discussions.

C. Procedure

The study involved taking two groups of female Iranian adult intermediate learners, with one group attending 20 sessions of general English training as the control group, and the experimental group receiving additional training in critical thinking during sixteen of the general English sessions. The students' level of speaking proficiency was assessed before and after the training sessions to determine any changes made as a result of the treatment that they received. In order to avoid any threats to the reliability of the scores, the pretest and posttests were scored by the researcher and a second scorer. The mean of the two scorers' scores for each participant was calculated and reported as the participant's test score.

After the posttest results were collected, in-depth interviews were conducted with the participants for their opinion on the sessions in critical thinking, their on-going thoughts and how, they believe, thinking critically affected their speaking outcome in the posttest. The interview questions are listed in appendix A. The interviews were recorded on tape and were later reviewed to produce field notes in conjunction with observations, and casual encounters with subjects. It is expected that other data will be obtained throughout the study, such as comments from the subjects, papers or other materials they care to give in, and ongoing literature review.

A mixed-methods design was employed in this study. Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) defined mixed methods research designs as those that include at least one quantitative method (designed to collect numbers) and one qualitative method (designed to collect words). This study includes a qualitative and a qualitative approach. In the quantitative approach of this study a quasi-experimental design was utilized; and for the qualitative approach, in-depth interviews were conducted and studied.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Quantitative Analysis

In the quantitative approach of this study, the answer to the following question was pursued: Does teaching critical thinking explicitly have an impact on the speaking proficiency of female Iranian adult intermediate EFL learners?

The data was collected through a quasi-experimental design and were analyzed using a quantitative approach. The SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software was employed to analyze the data collected from the control group and the experimental group.

Forty-eight intermediate students took the PET test, the scores varied from 21 to 98 out of 100. All those who scored between one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected and randomly assigned to two groups.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; PET

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
PET	48	21	98	67.74	14.151

A speaking test was given to the participants before the experiment was carried out. The same test was repeated after the twenty class sessions were over. The total number of scores was increased to 30 for each group by bootstrapping the scores of the control group and the experimental group. An independent t-test was run to compare the experimental and control groups' mean scores on the gained score of the speaking test. As displayed in Table 1 the mean scores for experimental and control groups on gained score of speaking are 3.53 and 1.87 respectively.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS GAINED SCORE OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	30	3.53	3.421	.625
Control	30	1.87	2.209	.403

The results of the independent t-test ($t_{(58)} = 2.27$, $P = .029 < .05$, $r = .28$), with an almost moderate effect size, indicated that there is a significant difference between experimental and control groups' means on the gained score of speaking. Thus, the first null-hypothesis as the experimental group does not make a significantly better progress in their ability to speak English than the control group is rejected. As displayed in Table 1 the experimental group shows a higher gained score on the speaking test.

TABLE 3:
INDEPENDENT T-TEST GAINED SCORES OF SPEAKING BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	3.153	.081	2.242	58	.029	1.667	.744	.178	3.155
Equal variances not assumed			2.242	49.594	.029	1.667	.744	.173	3.160

It should be noted that the assumption of homogeneity of variances is met (Levene's F = 3.15, P = .081 > .05). That is why the first row of Table 2, i.e. "Equal variances assumed" is reported.

B. Qualitative Analysis

The qualitative approach in this study was meant to answer the following questions:

1- How is the impact made on the speaking proficiency of the participants by raising critical thinking awareness explained?

2- What are the different attitudes that learners have towards critical thinking training and effectiveness of the training sessions?

In-depth interviews were conducted in pursue of answers to the above questions. The interviews were then transcribed and thoroughly studied. The results are revealed in the following.

Participants A, C, D, E, F, G, I, L, M and N claimed that they had previously not heard the term critical thinking (either in English or Persian), nor the concept of critical thinking or any of the principles. Participants B, H, and K claimed that they had not heard of the term "critical thinking" prior to the training sessions, but were slightly familiarized with some of the concepts through experience. Only participant J stated that she had been familiar with all the underlying principles of critical thinking previously through research, but stated that she was not aware that they were labeled as critical thinking.

All the participants found the training sessions in critical thinking extremely fruitful, except for participant J who claimed that they had slightly influenced her and revised what she had already known. All the other participants believed that the training they received in critical thinking had somehow influence their thinking or their mind and found the training very useful. Participants F, M and N described the experience as life-changing and explained that it had had a huge impact on their lives and the decisions they made.

Participants A, B, D, E, F, I, L, M and N thought that the new vocabulary which they had to use to express their ideas in the discussions and analyses were greatly internalized, helping the improvement made in their speaking proficiency. They claimed that the vocabulary learnt in these sessions will not be forgotten. Participants A, B, C, F, G, H, K and M also pointed out to the importance of the discussions carried out during the training sessions and mentioned that they practiced speaking in a very fruitful way and that is how the improvement in their speaking ability was made. Participant E believed that the English material used to teach critical thinking help her speaking ability most. Participant L claimed that listening to the teacher speak had had the most influence on her speaking ability (as the teacher spoke native-like English) and Participant J believed that the course as a whole was beneficial to her English speaking proficiency and that the critical training sessions, in particular, did not have a significant impact.

Participants E, G and I felt that the critical thinking material could not be self-studied and that the help of a teacher was essential. Participants A, B, C, D, I, J, K, L and M believed that the discussions and analyses of the subjects in class were more fruitful and informative than the reading the literature. However, participants E, F, G, H, K and N stated that the literature and the discussions and examples given were intertwined and one would not be as efficient without the other.

Participants A, B, C, E and N stated that critical thinking must be taught in classes for all people in society and participant E insisted that the classes be compulsory for all. Participants D, F, G, I, J, H, M and N believed that critical thinking must be taught explicitly at universities in Iran in exclusive courses. Participants D, F, I, J, L and N thought that critical thinking training must start at schools to give students an earlier insight into the issue. Participants D, F and G believed that explicit critical thinking training must take place at English language institutes. Participant M believed that critical thinking had better be taught in English as the resources are mostly in English.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The first finding of this study revealed that raising critical thinking awareness explicitly has a significantly positive impact on the speaking proficiency of female Iranian adult intermediate EFL learners. This aligns with the findings of a similar study conducted by Malmir and Shoorcheh (2012) in which they concluded that a critical thinker is a better language learner. The findings are also in agreement with the results of the study carried out by Cosgrove (2011) in Oxford University who concluded that there was a need for an explicit and systematic approach to teaching critical

thinking as the students internalized the explicit and required aspects of critical thinking and largely missed those that were implicit. Drawing from the literature on expertise, Van Gelder (2005) argued that students need "deliberate practice" in exercising critical thinking skills and abilities. This type of practice can only occur when critical thinking is taught as a separate and explicit part of the curriculum. Similarly, Halpern (as cited in Lai, 2011) argued that instruction in general thinking skills taught as a "broad-based, cross-disciplinary" course, as done in the treatment in this study, is the most effective way of teaching critical thinking. However, the findings disagree with Pithers and Soden (2000) who rejected the view that critical thinking could be taught as a separate subject and believe that critical thinking should be viewed as a way of teaching and learning in any domain.

Based on the finding of this study, it is concluded that critical thinking must explicitly be taught at schools or universities in Iran. Lai (2011) went beyond this and included that explicit instruction dedicated to critical thinking skills, abilities, and dispositions should be built into all levels of the K–12 (kindergarten to the twelfth grade) curriculum, rather than being limited to junior high or high school students.

In this study deeper learning of the new vocabulary was observed in the course of critical thinking training. Fahim and Komijani (2010) also found a positive correlation between L2 vocabulary knowledge and critical thinking ability. In addition, they declared that the participants' critical thinking ability also correlated positively with their self-assessed degree of determination, memorization, cognitive, and meta-cognitive strategies of L2 vocabulary learning. Accordingly, Malmir and Shoorcheh (2012) revealed that enhancing critical thinking strategies can directly lead to learning a language better. They concluded that language teachers should try to include the explicit instruction of critical thinking strategies in the classrooms. Paul and Elder (2005) approve these results and declare that the utilization of critical thinking skills would help EFL students learn L2 vocabulary more effectively and profoundly."

In order to teach critical thinking skills, teachers need to possess these skills and be trained in critical thinking themselves (Lai, 2011). Therefore, to establish courses for explicit critical thinking training, it is necessary that teachers at English Language institutes attend sessions on explicit critical thinking instruction as a part of their teacher training course or their in-service training.

Several pedagogical implications emerged from the results of the present study. To start with, critical thinking can be explicitly taught in the English class, as an accelerator of the thinking ability as well as the speaking ability of the learners. This explicit instruction of critical thinking in the English class, according to the findings of the present study, can not only improve the quality of life of the students, but can also integrate higher order thinking into the process of language learning, and English speaking in particular, which can make a deeper impression of the language taught and therefore, benefit the students in various ways.

Critical thinking can be explicitly taught in Teacher Training Courses as a part of their pre-service or in-service training. Teachers can benefit from the positive effects of explicit critical thinking instruction and convey this to their students when they teach English language skills.

Critical thinking can be explicitly taught at universities in Iran as an individual, exclusive course. According to the participants in this study, it is expected that universities attempt to equip their students with critical thinking skills, and this can be more effective if the instruction takes place in exclusive courses for explicit critical thinking instruction,

Dual courses of critical thinking and English speaking, or critical thinking and English vocabulary could be held in English language institutes or at universities in order to equally improve critical thinking abilities and the speaking proficiency or knowledge of vocabulary of the learners as they are interchangeably effective in learning one another. The integration of explicit critical thinking instruction and English language skills, particularly speaking, not only creates a more profound impact on the students in learning English more effectively, but can be more intriguing and motivating for the students as they may find the instruction and the material more attractive, and they may find the classes more useful as more than one subject is being taught.

A shift can be made from the banking system of education in Iran to a more modern, problem-posing system of education, in which more thought is triggered by the educators into the learners. Although it sounds like a huge leap, establishing exclusive critical thinking courses to the curricula can accelerate the shift to a more modern, critical system of education in the country. As some of the participants of this study also noted, explicit instruction in critical thinking at an earlier age can be better internalized and can affect the society and communication among its members positively.

English language teaching supervisors should facilitate the process of explicitly teaching critical thinking skills in the classroom. This can make the English language classroom more effective, accelerate language learning, and motivate students to stay with the English language program for a longer period and prevent them from losing interest.

In order to complement the findings of the present study, some further research can be suggested:

1- The same kind of research should be done on a larger scale to support generalizations.

2- The same kind of research should be done on male Iranian EFL learners.

3- Further qualitative research should be done on how explicit training in critical thinking improves the speaking proficiency of learners.

4- Further qualitative research should be done on how explicit training in critical thinking improves the knowledge of vocabulary of learners.

5- Research studies should be done on the problems of teaching critical thinking skills, both implicitly and explicitly, in the system of education in Iran in in order to better understand why critical thinking is not currently taught in the system of education in Iran.

6- Research studies should be done on the problems of teaching critical thinking skills, both implicitly and explicitly, in EFL classes in Iran.

7- Studies should be done on the attitudes of EFL teachers of employing critical thinking techniques in the EFL class.

8- A correlational study can be conducted to compare the level of critical thinking in Iranian students who have studied ELT books which employ critical thinking strategies and those who have never studied English outside school.

APPENDIX A

Qualitative Interview Questions
Personal Background
1- How old are you?
2- Are you married?
3- What is your job?
4- What is your highest qualification and in what field?
Critical thinking
5- What do you think about critical thinking?
6- Had you heard of critical thinking or its concept before?
7- What do you think about the session we spent studying critical thinking? Did you find them useful? In what way?
8- Did you find the critical thinking sessions influential on your English speaking ability? If so, how?
9- Which part of the training did you find more useful? The literature or the discussions and examples?
10- Do you think critical thinking should be taught at schools or universities or English institutes?

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A Sociology of Translation: From Text World to Life World[*]

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Abstract—**A sociology of translation is not a pure theoretical research nor a logical deduction, but an applied research facing the life world. A sociology of translation calls for new subject, methodology and concepts to comply with it, so that it can surpass the text world. A sociology of translation centers on the social nature of translation, aiming at promoting reciprocity between translation and society.**

Index Terms—**a sociology of translation, social nature, text world, life world**

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, "a sociology of translation" has emerged in the West. Some scholars began to view "translation as a social practice" and incorporate the idea into the framework of "a sociology of translation". Although they have in real sense set a step toward a new research paradigm in translation studies, they have not got a unanimous understanding of the notion of "a sociology of translation". What is its exclusive subject? What methodology should be adopted in this field? What is the research goal in this regard? In this paper, we will make a general survey within the present framework of "a sociology of translation", and try to answer these questions, with the purpose of bringing forth a new research paradigm beyond linguistic approach and cultural approach in translation studies.

II. A SOCIOLOGY OF TRANSLATION IN THE WEST

In May 2005, a translation symposium was held in University of Graz, Austria, with the theme "translation and interpretation as a social practice". After the meeting, Wolf and Fukari collected the papers contributed and had them printed with the book title *Constructing a Sociology of Translation* in 2007 by John Benjamins Publishing Company. The publication symbols the emergence of "a sociology of translation".

Constructing a Sociology of Translation centers on the subject of "translation as a social practice". In Part I (The debate on the translator's position in an emerging sociology), Erich Prunč (2007) investigated the historical, social and cultural reasons for the discrepancy between the rather marginal status of the translator. The study is characteristic of social constructivism. In the paper "Translation, Irritation and Resonance", Theo Hermans (2007), drawing upon Luhmann's social system theory, viewed translation as a social system and held that translation contributes to society's construction of reality.

In Part II (Bourdieu's influence in conceptualizing a sociology of translation), Gouanvic (2007) discussed the application of Bourdieu's "habitus", "field" and "illusion" to translation studies and analyzed the habitus of three agents operating in the translation of American literature in France. Adopting Bourdieu's field theory, Johan Heilbron and Gisèle Sapiro (2007) discussed the power relations between language groups and the international hierarchy of languages. Wolf (2007A) argued that Bourdieu's theory of symbolic goods was not sufficient for the conceptualization of a "mediation space" and tried to employ Homi Bhabha's "Third Space" to develop it.

In Part III (Mapping the field: Issues of method and translation practice), Mirella Agorni (2007) used the concept of localism to mediate between systems and individuals, exploring the possibility of developing a model which could bring together the socio-cultural and the individual aspects of translation. Buzelin (2007), inspired by Bruno Latour's actor-network theory, proposed to focus on the production end of translation activities. Andrew Chesterman (2007) argued that a sociological approach in translation studies centered on translation quality and united the notions of causality, translation practice, discourse and habitus, translation norm, brief, and strategy.

In Part IV (Constructing a sociology of translation studies: Overview and perspectives), Daniel Simeoni (2007) conducted a review of translation studies in the fields of sociology and history, elaborating why it took translation scholars so long to pay attention to the "social" in translation. Yves Gambier (2007) outlined the prerequisites for the creation of socio-translation studies: self-analysis of scholars, a historiography of the field, and an analysis of institutions and publications which shape and identify the discipline.

A sociology of translation has added a dimension to translation studies. However, in the brief survey, we find that although a sociology of translation in the West views translation as a social practice, scholars did not study translation

activities against the social contexts. They merely adopt some sociological research methods or theoretical framework to study translation activities. Wolf also remarked in *Constructing a Sociology of Translation*: "A more important purpose of this volume, however, is to improve the conjunction of translation studies and sociology and thus foster the development of a methodological basis." (2007B, p. 1) Since translation is acknowledged as a social practice, we should investigate translation activities against the broad social context and interpret the social conditions behind translation activities.

Scholars in the West mainly adopt theories from sociologists like Bourdieu, Luhmann and Latour in a sociology of translation. Judging from the developmental context of sociology, these sociologists fall into the category of social constructionism. Social constructionism is "an academically anti-oppotimistic trend" (Yan Zhigang, 2006, p. 24), which assumes the presupposition of phenomenology. According to social constructionism, the social reality does not represent itself by means of the objective reality but via the interpreted reality. New social realities are continually constructed through the interpretation of social reality. The fundamental assumption of this paradigm is that "reality is socially constructed" (Berger & Luckmann, 1966, p. 1). In the theory of social constructionism, the social problem does not exist as an objective reality or condition but as a social activity or process. The so-called "reality" is the result of social construction. People's understanding of things varies because of the history, region, situation and different experiences. So, the social reality constructed cannot be judged genuine or not, but rather suitable or not. The research goal is not to control, predict or transform the objective reality, but to interpret and construct the reality.

The research conclusions of social constructionism are created, so they are doomed to be local. In terms of research methods, there are also some problems. The concepts of translation field proposed by Gouanvic and translation as a social system put forward by Hermans both isolate translation from social structure. It seems that translation has become a separate entity outside social structure. Although the dualist approach is positive in epistemology and conducive to understanding of the seemingly isolated characteristics of translation, it neglects the fact that the real translation environment and social structure are overlapped and that their connections are complicated. If the two are separated, the nature of translations and social structure will be distorted. What's more, researchers, leaving the temporary logical separation in the study alone, have forgotten to reflect the research conclusion after their study. Once the subsystem has been detached from the whole social system, it has been isolated from the social context. In so doing, we cannot reveal the complicated relation between translation and society. Translation studies cannot be only limited to theoretical discretion, but should enter into real life.

III. A SOCIOLOGY OF TRANSLATION IN CHINA

In recent years, there have emerged some comments on and introductions to a sociology of translation in China. Wu Guangjun reviewed the application of Bourdieu's social practice theory, Luhmann's social system theory and Latour's actor-network theory in a sociology of translation and remarked: "A sociology of translation has expanded the bound of translation studies and at the same time brought a more dialectical thinking mode and more rational research approach. This is a big step forward for translation studies." (Wu Guangjun, 2008, p.79) Li Hongman (2008) made a comment on *Constructing a Sociology of Translation* edited by Wolf and Fukari, thinking that the book is theoretically insightful. Having compared the notion of "a sociology study of translation" and "socio-translation studies", Wang Hongtao (2011) holds that the a more proper title should go to "socio-translation studies" and that Bourdieu's relationism can be adopted as a guiding principle in exploring mutual influence and reciprocal transformation of various subjective and objective factors in translation. Although Chinese scholars' introduction of a sociology of translation in the West is conducive to widening the vision of Chinese researchers, their study, merely clinging to comments, review, interpretation or advocating, has not gone beyond that of the western scholars. And China's cultural tradition, social institution and translation mechanism are quite different from those of western countries. Even though the theories proposed by western scholars are very effective in interpreting translation events in the West, those theories may put a force upon China's translation reality, thus, ineffective.

In fact, there has emerged a tiny trend in studying the social aspect of translation in China. Professor Lv Jun proposed: "With regard to translation studies, we should give more attention to the study of the social aspect of translation, because in the long past, when doing translation study, people have placed it on a naïve foundation – translation is done in vacuum without any distraction." (2001, p.9) And some translation symposiums in China have also begun to take interest in a sociology of translation. In the symposium of Translation Teaching and Research in the Global Horizon held in October 2010 at Zhejiang Normal University, one of the topics in calling for papers is "such special issues as a sociology of translation and translation ethics". Unfortunately, we did not find any contribution concerning the issue of a sociology of translation at the symposium. Perhaps the research findings in this regard have been premature and were not presented at the symposium.

IV. FROM TEXT WORLD TO LIFE WORLD

A sociology of translation in the West, though viewing translation as a social practice, has not embedded translation activities in the broad social context. The narrow vision is not conducive to understanding and deeper research of translation activities. The academic circle in China, only confined to simple introduction of and comment on Western

translation theories in this regard, has not come up with any new understanding or interpretation of translation activities, nor put forth any new perception for translation theories.

The reflection of any event has its own social context. With the development of society and the changing of the times as well as the ever-enriching of cross-cultural communication, translation activities and their relation with the social context have become increasingly complicated. As an indispensible part of the social structure, translation activities have undergone some changes and will continue to change. All these changes require that we should interpret translation activities in a new approach. In other words, if we merely confine our understanding of translation activities to the area of linguistic study, we can hardly have any break through in our understanding of translation activities and we cannot make any improvement in translation studies. Only if we discuss translation activities on a multi level can we have a new understanding of translation.

Targeting the intention that linguists separate language from other activities, Bourdieu pointed out: "I think one cannot fully understand language without placing linguistic practices within the full universe of compossible practice." (Bourdieu & Wacquant , 1992, p. 149) Wittgenstein (1953) used the term "language-game" to designate forms of language simpler than the entirety of a language itself. And Wittgenstein elaborated further: "Here the term '*language-game*' is meant to bring into prominence the fact that the *speaking* of language is part of an activity, or of a form of life." (ibid, p. 23) In other words, language is inseparable from life.

Language is life. We should study language through the observation of life world. As an activity of language transfer, translation is life as well. Unless we place translation activities into the life world where various social activities co-exist, we cannot investigate and fully understand translation activities. Translation studies should, via the investigation of life world, keep up with the times. The key for a theory to remain alive is to connect the life world for new information. For the same reason, we should break through the framework, concepts and methodology in the text world, and introduce a new research paradigm into translation studies so that our research can enter into the life world from the text world.

Compared with linguistic perspective, a sociology of translation should stay away from the tendency in which translation studies have been trapped within text translation and focuses on the relation between translation and the life world. Latour already pointed out: "If I want to be a scientist and reach objectivity, I have to be able to travel from one frame of reference to the next, from one standpoint to the next. Without those displacements, I would be limited to my own narrow point of view for good." (2005, p. 146) The switch of research perspective requires a new set of concept category and analytical framework to accommodate it.

A. Research Subject: Social Nature of Translation

Translation activities have never been performed in the "vacuum". From the determination of translation goal, motivation of translators, launching translation task to the admittance of translation products into society, we can deem that as a social operation. Since the goal of translation is to communicate knowledge and culture, translation activities can never be separable from our society.

Translation activities are embedded in society. Translation activities are performed by human beings, who embody some social relations as always. The trajectory and condition of translation activities are determined by the interests of communities, cultural choice, value orientation and power pattern. Translation activities play a bridging and bounding role in promoting social progress, economic growth and cultural communication. In this sense, the social nature is one of the fundamental natures of translation.

However, the social nature of translation has long been neglected. This has much to do with the status of translation studies. First as a sub-discipline of contrastive linguistics, linguistic study has long been prevailing in translation studies. The linguistic approach focuses on text, treating translation as a linear operation. This approach is interested in such concepts as equivalence, naturalness and fluency and in finding regularities to put the meaning in the source language into target language.

With the arrival of "cultural turn" in translation studies in the 1990s, the scope of translation studies has been expanded. On the cultural level, with culture representing the environment of translation, translation studies focus on the transfer of cultural factors between different repertoires or polysystems and on unveiling the inequality behind texts. This approach is interested in ideology, cultural identity, the relation between the center and periphery, power, and ethics. Although in the cultural turn the scope of translation studies has been expanded, with the focus on uncertainty of textual meaning and interperception of cultural factors, the social conditions have been placed aside, and the study on social implicature of translation activities has not got its due recognition.

Due to negligence of the social nature of translation, current translation studies outrun the life world by keeping to the fixed research methods without regard to the problems in real-life translation operation. In this regard, people do not study translation activities according to the real-life requirements, but cling to disciplinary boundary. They do not carry out research in accordance with social needs, but choose the issues in the framework of current research methods. The notion that methods determine subjects has brought about the fact that translation studies stay away from life world and the requirements of social practice.

Translating is not only a cognitive process, but also an open system consisting of cooperation, communication, negotiation, argument, compromise and consensus. In the life world, translation assumes the task of serving society via communication. The internal activity of any event is bound to be restricted or influenced by external conditions.

Translation is a complex and open activity. If we do not break through the internal bound or surpass the text world, we could not understand the real sense of translation activities.

A translation product, from the choice of the original and translation strategy to the production and release of translation products, is the result of social negotiation and construction. A translation activity in any society or period will reflect the structure or relation in that society or period. Translation activities operate in society, correlating with the life world. In contemporary society, the relation between translation activities and society are becoming increasingly close. The social problems triggered by translation and problems in translation caused by social context and changes are more and more complex. So priority should be given to the social nature of translation.

B. Research Methodology: System Thinking

Economic globalization has changed people's outlook on life and the world. In the era of economic globalization, nothing is isolated. Everything is embedded in the inter-relationship with others. In observing an activity, we must not take a solitary or partial view. An individual or special event can only be understood properly when correlated with the life world.

By the same token, we cannot solve the problems in translation activities in an isolated way. If the factors in translation activities could not interact properly, the whole translation system might end up with a disaster. Therefore, to solve the problems in translation activities in the life world, we should adopt the methodology of system thinking. "System thinking is a discipline for seeing the wholes. It is a framework for seeing interrelationships rather than things, for seeing patterns of changes rather than static 'snapshots'." (Senge, 1990, p. 68)

From the perspective of system thinking, simple solutions are rarely effective because they only focus on one part, neglecting the interaction with other parts of the whole system. The weakness of partial thinking is that people merely transfer the problem from one place to another without solving it radically. In interpreting the effect of one activity, people tend to examine the factors of the activity, neglecting other factors that are relevant to it. The labels posted by people to the causes and effects of translation activities are often arbitrary, because the effect of one activity is usually random or unexpected. A translation activity is a complicated organic whole, which involves many factors. The functional effect depends on the interaction of the factors in the system and their relation with those outside of the system. In other words, the various problems in translation activities are not isolated but brought about from the irrational social operation in society.

Translation activities are an open system. Operating in society, translation activities involve complicated relations----the results might go against the purposes; the controlling measures might not reach the expected effect. Therefore, to solve problems in translation, we cannot merely explore individual factors. As a social practice, translation activities have some connections with the life world and we must interpret translation activities against these connections. At the same time, facing the future, individuals and the whole society will have to make a variety of options, which will exert influence on the future development. Multi-options will bring about an unstable context for translation system. If we do not take into account of these problems on the whole, the optimization of one link will cause instability to the entire translation system. Therefore, targeting various problems in translation activities, we should reflect and address them systematically.

By adopting system thinking, we can study the systematic characteristics displayed in the indirect effects when the various elements of translation activity surpass the dimension of time and space and interact with one another. Then we will employ an integrated and organic research framework to construct and optimize the operating mechanism for translation activities.

C. Research Goal: Serving Society

With the introduction of new research paradigms, translation studies can be expanded and innovated. Holmes has already pointed out: "…translation studies thus has two main objectives: (1) to describe the phenomena of translating and translation(s) as they manifest themselves in the world of our experience, and (2) to establish general principles by means of which these phenomena can be explained and predicted."(2000, p. 176) Because of our different perspectives and perceptions of translation activities, there should have been different perspective levels in translation studies. In order to better understand various translation activities in the life world, it is necessary for us to view translation activities as an organic component of the whole life world and systemically study various translation activities in real life.

A sociology of translation is closely related to the quality of translation products. The findings are of great help for us to understand the interaction between translation and society, as well as for translation to serve society better. A sociology of translation provides a special perspective for us to examine translation activities and their interaction with social context. Through the observation of the interaction, it is helpful for us to discover, describe and explain the complex problems in translation activities with a new insight.

A sociology of translation attaches great importance to the empirical materials in translation activities. By describing and analyzing these materials, we can authentically represent various maps in translation activities. Besides, a sociology of translation aims at addressing problems. And the findings can forecast the possibilities and provide constructive advice and proposals for future translation activities.

V. CONCLUSION

The social nature of translation activities and their role in social development have not received their due recognition. Although efforts have already been made in this regard, they tend to be contingent solutions. Seldom have translation activities been studied from the perspective of the overall social development. The unawareness of the social nature of translation activities has, to a large extent, limited the range and depth of current translation studies, and many problems cannot be resolved within the present text world of translation studies. In order to better understand translation activities and address problems in this regard, we should break through the text world and examine translation problems in the life world. This is the task of a sociology of translation.

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The Study of Verbal Allusion Translation in Film Subtitle: Based on Relevance Theory

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Abstract—**This dissertation attempts to find a proper way of translating allusions in a film based on Relevance Theory through the comparison of two Chinese versions of *The Simpsons Movie*. According to Relevance Theory, the key of translation is to search and achieve the Optimal Relevance, thus allusion subtitle translation is considered as a process of achieving Optimal Relevance between the allusions in subtitles and the Target Language Viewers.**

Index Terms—**Relevance Theory, the Simpsons Movie, Optimal Relevance, verbal allusion**

As the advancement of the globalization, movie subtitling plays a key role in improving people's awareness of cultural diversity. People may achieve language acquisition and experience culture communication through watching a foreign movie. Most of the movies are rich in allusions which are originated from various fields, including mythology, historical events, fables, religion and literary works. Thus, more attention should be paid to the translation of allusion subtitling to make people better understand and enjoy the original intended meaning of the movie. *The Simpsons Movie*, which is also known as the Encyclopedia of American life, is a flash comedy produced by Twentieth Century Fox Company and its film version was first shown in 2007. The film shows us the American's lifestyles through the life of The Simpsons in a sarcastic way, and many allusions used in the film have made the film funnier and more impressive.

The translation of allusion subtitle cannot proceed well without the guidance of a proper theory. Good translation techniques guided by proper theory could make it much easier for the target viewers to understand the film just as the original viewers do. Thus, the dissertation attempts to find a proper way of translating allusions in a film based on relevance theory through the comparison of two Chinese versions of *The Simpsons Movie*.

I. SPERBER AND WILSON'S RELEVANCE THEORY

Relevance Theory was originally one of the four cooperative principles put forward by Herbert Paul Grice in 1960s for the Conversational Implicature Theory. RT is based on one of Grice's central claims that utterances automatically create expectations, which guides the hearer towards the speaker's meaning. Grice put forward the maxim of relevance, that is, make your contributions relevant. Based on this theory, in 1986, the French linguist and philosopher, Dan Sperber and English linguist Deirdre Wilson proposed their own theory for communication and cognition, the RT, which was later developed into the cognition-oriented theory on human communication.

According to Sperber and Wilson (1986), the notion of relevance was defined as a useful theoretical concept in a technical sense. Relevance is comparatively defined in terms of contextual effect and processing effort as "an assumption is relevance in a context if and only if it has some contextual effect in that context" (Sperber and Wilson, 1986, p.122). And its two extent conditions are as follows:

An assumption is relevant in a context to the extent that its contextual effects in this context are large. An assumption is relevant in a context to the extent that the effort required to process it in this context is small. (Sperber and Wilson, 1986)

The definition shows that: when other things are equal, the relevance is depending on two factors, that is, the greater the cognitive effects, the greater the relevance; the smaller the processing effort, the greater the relevance.

Example:

A: How much is the red hat?

B1: 2 dollars.

B2: 1 dollar cheaper than the blue one.

Obviously, B1 takes less processing effort than B2 does because B1 is linguistically simpler and contextually clear than B2. The understanding of B2 is based on the implicated context: how much is the blue hat? Thus, the relevance between A and B1, is larger than that of A and B2.

According to Sperber and Wilson (1986), Optimal Relevance is the key principle of the RT. The pursuit of OR between the communicator and the addressee makes communication succeed. OR means obtaining adequate contextual effects with minimum processing effort. It could be defined on two presumptions according to Sperber and Wilson

(1986, P. 270):
(1) The ostensive stimulus is relevant enough for it to be worth the addressee's effort to process it;
(2) The ostensive stimulus is the most relevant one compatible with the communicator's abilities and preferences.

Here the ostensive stimulus is a behavior. It can only be explained on the assumption that the communicator wanted to give evidence of his intention to convey some information.   Thus, both the communicator and the addressee should adjust the explicit and implicit information mutually in the expectation of optimal relevance.

II.   THE FEATURES OF *THE SIMPSONS MOVIE*

The Simpsons Movie, which was directed by David Silverman, is an American animated comedy film made in 2007 based on the animated cartoon sitcom *The Simpsons*. The film describes a recognizably American family in a fictional American town named Springfield. The Simpson family is a middle-class white family with a typical family structure of two adults, three kids, a cat and a dog. Using the environmental pollution as a clue, the movie describes the evil head of the Environmental Protection Agency who intends to destroy Springfield, in which a lake was polluted by Homer. At last, Homer succeeds to regain his dignity by stopping Cargill's scheme after being abandoned by his family and chased by the townspeople.

As have mentioned above, the film is based on the TV series *The Simpsons* which was regarded as "the Encyclopedia of America". Thus, the film is full of allusions which play a key role in adding the fun and humor of the movie, making the movie a bit difficult to understand, especially for a foreigner watching a translated version. Lepphalme (1997) believes that a cultural barrier can be a barrier in understanding an allusion, unless the receivers know well about the two cultures. The audience of *The Simpsons Movie* is of various types, even in the original target culture. The translator should take the different age, gender and nationality of the audience into consideration when choosing the translation strategies. Being such a popular movie, its subtitle translation, especially allusion translation, is of great importance.

III.   A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF VAT OF THE TWO CHINESE VERSIONS IN THE SIMPSONS MOVIE

A.   Verbal Allusion

As for Leppihalme (1997) who has been studying allusions and contributed a lot to this area, verbal allusions could be further divided into two groups: proper name allusions (PN) and key phrase allusions (KP). The allusions in *The Simpsons Movie* are shown mostly in dialogues as PN allusions or KP allusions.

PN allusion refers to the frame that carries the allusive meaning. Numerous examples are included in *The Simpsons Movie*, typically names of people (real-life and fictional), titles of fictional works, and names of organizations. Almost every character in *The Simpsons Movie* is a reference to someone. For example:

"This is **Kent Brockman**, reporting to you on a crisis so serious......it has its own name and theme music."

This is a reference to the TV series *The Simpsons* in which Kent Brockman is a TV guy who is stupid and silly and always broadcast the news without his own opinion.

Some PN allusions within subtitles and their correspondent Chinese translations are to be analyzed later.

KP allusions could be all other allusions which do not contain a proper name within the verbal allusions. In *The Simpsons Movie*, there are more PN allusions than KP allusions; it has a rather wide net.

Some allusions in the movie are also performed in the background sounds or some allusions in the movie are also performed in the background sounds or music for adding emotional effects or creating humorous atmosphere, but it is always difficult to translate them out.

Some PN allusions and their correspondent Chinese translations are to be analyzed later.

B.   The Techniques Used in the Translation of PN Allusions in Both Versions

Leppihalme (1997, P.79) classified the techniques used in the translation of PN allusions into three kinds: to keep the name unaltered, to change it, or to omit it. The following sections will discuss about whether these techniques are properly adopted in the translation of PN allusions by the principle of RT. There are totally 17 examples of the PN in this movie, and 7 typical examples are listed here.

Example 1

When the mouse *Itchy* defeated the cat and went back to his own country, the supporters shouted "**Itchy! Itchy!**" to elect him as their new president.

Version 1: 依奇！依奇！
Version 2: not translated

The *Itchy & Scratchy Show* is a show within a show that appears in *The Simpsons Movie* with a form of 100-second cartoon that is filled with much violence in the war between the mouse *Itchy* and the cat *Scratchy*. In version 1, it is transliterated into "依奇" while in version 2 the name is omitted. Many English names have transliterated Chinese corresponding terms, Chinese names, including "Itchy" in example 1, so translators can just replace the name with the conventional TL form. In this way, the target viewers can easily identify with the help of the scene that *Itchy* is just the name of the mouse. It needs little efforts of the target viewers yet they can totally enjoy the plot. However, in version 2, the name Itchy is improperly omitted in translation. Since the viewers are looking at the pictures on the screen and

meanwhile they can hear the shouting, the viewers would wonder what they are shouting for if we do not translate the name. According to the principle of RT, the greater the contextual effect is and the smaller the effort is, the more achievement of relevance.　Thus, version 1 uses a better technique than version 2 does by retaining the name.

Example 2

When in the church, grandpa shouted: **EPA...EPA....**Believe me!.

Version 1: **EPA...EPA**...相信我！

Version 2: **EPA...EPA(美国环境保护署)**...相信我！

EPA is the abbreviation of the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency, which is an agency of the federal government of the United States in charge with protecting human health and the environment. Both versions adopt the technique of retention of name with Version 1 using the name as such while version 2 adding further explanations. When the Chinese viewers see the subtitles "EPA", they may not know the meaning of it. However, they may get some clues of the grandpa's words from version 2 by the adding guidance that it may be something related to environment. From this aspect, version 2 succeeds in making OR between the target viewers and the film.

Example 3

Somebody is not sure of whether he should go in or out when the dome is about to cover the Springfield where he lives: Oh God, in, out, in out, I never saw **Venus**.

Version 1: 天啊，是走是留，是走是留？**我总是这么犹豫不决**。

Version 2: 哦，上帝，进来，出去，进来，出去，我还没见过**维纳斯**呢。

Venus, which is named after the Roman goddess of love and beauty, is mainly associated with love, beauty, sex, sexual seduction and fertility, which plays a key role in many Roman religious festivals and myths.　Version 1 adopts the technique of omitting the proper name and the allusion altogether; however, it adds a sentence to describe the situation at that time.　However, this translation has nothing to do with the cultural elements of original text and is more or less inappropriate.　Version 2 adopts the technique of replacing the name by a TL name.　To a foreign language viewer, he may not know who Venus is, thus, he could not understand why the man said so at that situation. Since Venus stands for love and beauty, the translation should make the target viewers pay attention to this point and feel the humorous scene just as the SLVs would do.　Thus, both of the two versions fail to search relevance between the target viewers and the original film.　It seems that "我还没见过爱神维纳斯呢" would be better by adding additional information of "爱神".

Example 4

Somebody of the Springfield Book Club says: Ok, let's discuss *Tuesdays with Morrie.*

Version 1: 我们来讨论《周二与莫里同行》一书吧。

Version 2: 好吧，我们来和**莫瑞聊聊礼拜二**吧。

The non-fiction novel *Tuesdays with Morrie*, which was written by American writer Mithch Albom in 1997, is mainly about the story of the retired sociology professor Morrie Schwartz and his relationship with his students. On one hand, Chinese people may not be familiar with the book; on the other hand, the book has been read for many times to the club members and they are not interested in it any more. Therefore, it is enough for the viewers just to know that it is a name of a book. The best way for the translators is to translate it just as a book name, and the version 1 does so.

Example 5

Flander: Oh, Homer, I don't mean to be **Nervous Pervis** or anything, but if he falls, couldn't that make your boy parallel prejorino?

Homer:　Shut up, Flander!

Version 1:

Flander: 侯默，我不是**神经病或者变态**啥的，可是如果他掉下去了，他会不会落个半身不遂啊？

Homer:　闭嘴，佛兰德！

Version 2:

Flander: 哦，荷马，不是我**紧张**，但是如果他摔下来，可能会得脑震荡什的。

Homer: 闭嘴，佛兰德！

Pervis Ellison is a former college and professional NBA basketball player. After he played with the University of Louisville he was given the nickname "Never Nervous Pervis". He was regarded as the most outstanding player when he led Louisville to its second national championship in his freshman year, which was the second time a freshman had ever been awarded that honor. Thus, Nervous Pervis here means being nervous. Due to the time and space limits, both of the two versions have omitted the original allusion. However, the translation in version 1 is not faithful to the original text and meaning, while version 2, which adopts the technique of omitting the name but transfer the sense by its meaning, expresses the meaning exactly. From the second version the target viewers will get the same contextual information as the original viewers do and achieve the OR by minimal efforts, so version 2 is proper.

Example 6

Tom Hanks: Hello, I'm **Tom Hanks**! The U.S. government has lost its credibility, so it borrows some of mine.

Version 1: 你好！我是**汤姆 汉克斯**。美国政府已经丧失了他们的公信力，所以他们想借用点儿我的。

Version 2: 你们好！我是**汤姆 汉克斯（美国著名影星）**，美国政府已经没有信誉度了，所以我来出点小力。

Tom Hanks is an American writer, producer, actor, and director. He is famous for his films such as *Big*, *Philadelphia*, and *Forrest Gump*. While the original author may have assumed that their primary audience is well versed in, for example, the names of most famous Hollywood actors, a "culture bump" (Leppihalme, 1997, P.3) would probably occur since the TL viewers would be puzzled of who Tom Hanks is. As a familiar actor to the original viewers, Tom Hanks appears here as a satire of the American government who has no credibility to its citizens. But it will not raise the familiarity effect and achieve humorous result for the target viewers who may know little about Tom Hanks. Version 1 adopts the technique of replacing the name by the TL name. Version 2 adopts the technique of using its conventional TL form and adding explanation. With the adding information, the target viewers could use less effort in getting the greatest contextual effect. Thus, version 2 is much better than version 1.

Example 7

Russ Cargill: I want roving **death squads** around the perimeter 24/7.

Version 1: 我要**敢死队** 24 小时在罩子外巡逻。

Version 2: 我要在周围部署**巡逻队**，不间断巡逻。

Death squad is a military term which refers to the armed military, insurgent, police or terrorist squad who make killings such as assassinations of persons when there is a war, insurgency or terror campaign. Simply, the death squads usually focus on big issues or influential people. In the movie, the death squads of one thousand persons which are made of both tough guys and soft guys are ordered by the head of EPA, Russ Cargill, to find and bring the Simpsons who are just common people with the parents and three children back to the dome. The exaggeration used here is sarcasm of EPA. Both of the two versions adopt the technique of replacing the name by a TL name. However, it is translated as "敢死队" in Version 1 while "巡逻队" in version 2. In fact, "敢死队" is a name we used to describe those who contribute their lives for their big tasks rather than "巡逻队" which has a relatively weaker emotion. The image will appear in their minds when the target viewers see the words "敢死队", which help them enjoy the film with more contextual effects. In a word, the target viewers would reach the OR with fewer efforts with version 1 translation.

C. The Techniques Used in the Translation of KPA in Both Versions

Leppihalme (1997) has listed nine techniques for translating the KP allusions, which are based on the three categories of translating PN allusions, including using literal translation; replacing the key phrase in its standard TL form; adding additional information to the allusion; adding more explanation to explain the allusion; reduction of the allusion to sense by rephrasal; or omit it. There are 13 KP allusions in *The Simpsons Movie*, and 6 of them will be analyzed comparatively one by one.

Example 8

Billie Joe Armstrong: **Gentlemen, It's been an honor playing with you tonight.**

Version 1: 先生们，演奏今晚的告别曲吧。

Version 2: 先生们，很荣幸今晚能与你们一同演出。

At the beginning of the movie, the rock band wanted to talk about the environment after having been sung for three and a half hours, but were beaten by the things the audience threw and the boat they were standing on was about to sink. At this time, the band leader said the last words, which is a reference to the film *Titanic*. The film Titanic as well as its Chinese subtitles is very familiar to the Chinese people, of which the subtitles are almost the same words with version 2. Therefore, the viewers can easily recognize the scene and the subtitles by version 2 which adopts the technique of replacing the allusion in its standard TL form; hence they can enjoy it totally. Besides, version 1 fails to express the likeness between the scene in this movie and in Titanic which may not get the relevance between the target viewers and the film Titanic.

Example 9

Schwarzenegger: Gotten himme! **I'll have to go back making family comedies.**

Russ Cargill: Don't worry, I have a solution for you, sir. In fact, I have five solutions.

Version 1:

President Schwarzenegger: 见鬼，**我就只能回去演家庭喜剧了（施瓦辛格是好莱坞著名演员）。**

Russ Cargill: 别担心，我已经为您想好对策了。总统先生，事实上，我有五个对策。

Version 2:

President Schwarzenegger: 老天啊，**我又得回去演情景喜剧了。**

Russ Cargill: 别担心，我为您准备了解决方案。总统先生，事实上我有五套方案。

Arnald Schwarzenegger is a very famous actor of Hollywood, later he has been the governor of California from 2003 to 2011. Thus, in the movie, Schwarzenegger is positioned as the president of the United States, and if he can not deal with the problem he is facing, he would have to go back to his former career to be an actor. Version 1 chooses to add further explanation for the subtitles so as to show who Schwarzenegger is in real life, while version 2 just replaces it with its TL form. According to RT, a translator should try to coincide his informative intention with viewers' expectations. He must analyze the cognitive context and the expectations of the target viewers so that he could determine to what extent he should convey the original intention of the film. Hence, the translation of version 1 is based on the cognitive context of the target viewers and delivers the intention of the film successfully.

Example 10

Marge: What are you doing up here?

Bart: Looking through people's luggage. **I am the mascot of an evil corporation**.

Version 1:

Marge: 你跑到上面去干什么？

Bart: 检查别人的行李。**我是邪恶公司的吉祥物**。

Version 2:

Marge: 你在上面干什么？

Bart: 翻别人的行李啊。**我是恶魔集团的吉祥物**。

When Bart is on the train, he wears a black bra on his head like Disney-style ears. This is a reference to the scene of the film *Mickey Mouse* in which the Mickey Mouse calls himself "the mascot of an evil corporation". It is not difficult for the target viewers to recognize the Mickey Mouse because it is very familiar to everyone in the world. Thus, the target viewers could understand that it is just a imitation of Mickey Mouse by looking at the image on the screen and hearing the voice Bart imitates without paying much effort. Both of the two versions adopt the technique of translating it into the TL form which is appropriate.

Example 11

Policeman: Well, they are **China's problem** now.

Version 1: 现在他们是**中国的麻烦**了。

Version 2: 好了，现在他们是**中国的麻烦**了。

When the Simpsons get out of the dome through a sinkhole in front of their house, the sinkhole expands and causes a big damage. At this time, the policeman in Springfield says it is China's problem now. In fact, it is just a joke to claim it as China's problem. In North America, a common belief exists among small children that if they keep digging a hole in the ground they will emerge right through the planet to the other side of the world, which is presumed to be China. However, it would confuse the TL viewers. They may wonder: what does it have to do with China? Thus, the translator should add some explanation or additional information so that the target viewers could get the laugh point as the source target viewers will do. For example, it could be translated as "好了，现在他们是地球另一端中国的麻烦了".

Example 12

Lisa: Dad, do something!

Homer: This book doesn't have any answers!

Version 1:

Lisa: 爸，快想想该怎么办！

Homer: 《圣经》上根本没写该怎么办！

Version 2:

Lisa: 老爸，快想想办法啊！

Homer: 这书里找不到答案啊！

When grandpa says some crazy words in church, Lisa asks Homer to do something to stop it. But Homer opens the book Bible and says that the book does not have any answers. Bible is not only a very important book for those who believe in God, it is also a book that has great influence on the English literature and people who speaks English. Everybody who goes to the church will bring a Bible with himself. They believe that Bible is guidance for them in their daily life. Thus, Homer wants to find the answer from Bible when grandpa becomes crazy. As it is a common sense for the TL viewers to understand what Bible is since there are also Bibles in the TL form, the allusion here should be translated by replacing it with its TL form. Therefore, version 1 is a good translation. Version 2 does not translate it, which will make the target viewers feel confused of what "这本书" in refers to. According to RT, version 2 will cost the TL viewers of more processing efforts than needed to get the enough contextual effects, which decides that it is not a good translation.

Example 13

At the beginning of the film, Green Day plays "**Nearer, My God, to Thee**" on violins when the barge is sinking caused by the pollution. This is an allusion to the film *Titanic*, within which the band plays the same music.

From the above comparative analysis on the examples of VA we could conclude that both of the two versions have succeeded in translating the allusions to some extent. They all adopt several kinds of techniques in their translation of allusions, despite some of them are not properly used if evaluated by the principle of RT.

IV. CONCLUSION

According to RT, the key of translation is to search and achieve the OR, thus allusion subtitle translation is considered as a process of achieving OR between the allusions in subtitles and the TLVs. Based on this principle, some translation techniques below are concluded from the analysis of *The Simpsons Movie*, which could be also suitable for the translation of allusions in all movies of this kind:

a. When translating PN allusions, five techniques could be used in different condition, which includes:

(1) Retain the name in its TL form when it can be understood directly by the TLVs, such as in example 1;

(2) Retain the name as such and add further explanation when needed, such as in example 6;

(3) Retain the name in its conventional TL form and add additional information to make the allusion more clear, such as in example 2, 3, 4; Replace the name by a common name in TL form to achieve the OR without paying efforts in getting the allusion, such as in example 7;

(4) Omit the name but transfer the sense by its meaning when there is no need to translate the allusion since the TL viewers can achieve the same contextual effects without knowing the allusion, such as in example 5,.

   b. When translating KP allusions, six techniques can be adopted accordingly:

(5) Use literal translation when it is easy for the TL viewers to get the allusions, such as in example 10;

(6) Replace the key phrase in its standard TL form since there are conventional forms for these allusions which can stimulate the TL viewers with the similar context with the context the allusion carries on, such as in example 8;

(7) Add additional information to the allusion to describe the context more clearly when the meaning of the allusion can be make concise by the additional information, such as in example 11;

(8) Use further explanation to supplement the allusion when it allowed by time and space limits, and when further explanation is required for the understanding of the context, such as in example 9;

(9) Reduce the allusion to its sense by rephrasing when the attempted meaning should be expressed in another way, such as in example 12;

(10) Omit the allusion when songs are used to create the atmosphere for some special scenes which need not to be translated, such as in example 13.

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The Relationship between Extrinsic vs. Intrinsic Motivation and Strategic Use of Language of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract—This study aims to identify the learning orientations and language learning strategies of the students, to determine whether there are any significant differences in the motivational orientations and language learning strategies preferences between male and female learners, and investigate whether there is a relationship between students' motivational orientations and strategy preferences. A total of 206 intermediate level students who studied in English in private language institutes were asked to complete two questionnaires. One was used to identify students' motivational orientations and the other was used to identify students' learning strategies. Statistical analyses demonstrated that most frequent type of motivation was extrinsic motivation-identified regulation; and the most frequent used strategy was social strategy; and that both types of motivations, namely extrinsic motivation and intrinsic one revealed positive correlation with six language learning strategies. However, amotivation demonstrated negative and significant correlation with all the six language learning strategies. Finally, the findings indicated significant difference between male and female students in terms of employing language learning strategies. Female students used more language strategies and they applied cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, and social strategies more often in comparison with male learners while male students used more compensation strategies. Based on the results, the study suggested that teachers should attempt to detect learners' language motivation and their choice of language learning strategies so as to provide them with more effective learning materials and opportunities which may enhance their language learning.

Index Terms—language learning strategy, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, individual difference variables

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning a foreign language is one of the most prominent needs and it has become a crucial component in people's lives. Studying at an English medium university or living in a foreign country are among numerous reasons which makes people all over the world try to learn it as a second language.

Several scholars in the field have been attempting to detect some teaching methods, techniques, and instructional materials that promote better language instruction (Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Chamot & Kupper, 1989, Ramsey, 1980). However, despite all these efforts there has been an increasing concern that learners have not had progress as much as it was expected. Since there exist considerable individual differences in language learning such as gender, age, motivation, attitude, aptitude, culture, etc., what can be productive for one might be counterproductive for another. Therefore, according to Reiss (1983), none of the methods and techniques has proved that they can work all the time, in all classes, with all students. As a result, it might be appropriate to consider Grenfell and Harris' (1999) statement that "Methodology alone can never be a solution to language learning. Rather it is an aid and suggestion" (p. 10).

Having this point in mind some other researchers (e.g., Deci & Ryan, 2000; Gardner, 1985, Dornyei, 2000; Littelwood, 1996) shifted the focus from the language teaching methodology to the language learner and individual difference variables that influence language learning. This change of the main point has led to an increase in the number of studies carried out with respect to the learner characteristics and foreign or second language learning. Language Learning Strategies (LLS) have been one of the most crucial points researchers have focused on. However, they investigated them along with some other variables such as gender, achievement, motivation, attitude, aptitude, learning styles, and so on in order to show whether there is any relationship between the LLS choice and these kinds of variables.

Oxford (1989) suggested a synthesis of the studies conducted with respect to the LLS and the variables that affect strategy choice. She focused on the results of studies carried out with regard to LLS choice and language being learned, duration, degree of awareness, age, and gender, affective variables such as attitudes, motivational level, personality characteristics, and general personality type.

According to Willing (1988), classroom practice can lead to the development of good and appropriate learning strategies. He defined it in this way:

a) Exploration of strategies which learners are already making use of, which derive from their previous education and their own cognitive individuality; this exploration can be done through questionnaire and discussion.

b) Exploration of the relation between individual learning style and the person's existing strategies. (p. 172)

Motivational orientation of the students can be reflected in their choice of language learning strategies. Braten and Olaussen (1998) conducted their study on the Norwegian to examine the relationship between motivation and language learning strategies. They found intelligent as an important in learning factor that affect both motivation and language learning strategies use. They also found high correlation between student's motivational belief and their choice of language learning strategies.

Pintrich and Garcia (1991) posited that motivated students tend to use more learning strategies compared to less motivated one. Besides, they suggested that intrinsically motivated students employed more cognitive strategies such as elaboration and organization.

Fleming and Walls (1998) stated use of metacognitive strategies contribute to the learners' self direction, autonomy, and independency. In fact, those learners who adopt metacognitive strategies more are more autonomous learners that are more responsible for their own learning through monitoring their learning process.

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) also asserted formal practice strategies are the most frequent strategies among the learners while functional practice strategies which are related to the authentic use of language are the least frequent one. Furthermore, they claimed that motivation can influence students' choice of language strategies. They also assumed that those students, who are more motivated, use more learning strategies in comparison with less motivated students.

Pong (2002) found that intrinsic motivation had closer relationship with language achievement and influence the choice of strategies more than extrinsic motivation. It was also found that more intrinsically motivated students had tendency to use cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies while extrinsically motivated one prefer to use affective strategies more.

On the other hand, McIntosh and Noels (2004) reported significant as well as positive correlation among self-determination, motivation and the kind of language learning strategies.

Bacon and Finnemann (1990) concluded motivation plays an important role in the choice of language learning strategies. They probed the correlation between motivation, attitude, and language learning strategies. More specifically, integratively oriented students were reported to use more global and synthetic strategies while avoiding analytic strategies.

Chang and Huang (1999) in their study on the Taiwanese students found that there was significant correlation between motivation and language learning strategies. Further, they suggested more intrinsically motivated students use more cognitive and metacognitive strategies while extrinsic motivation highly correlated with cognitive and affective strategies.

Chang (2005) also found that more motivated students used more learning strategies and both extrinsically and intrinsically motivated students tend to use evaluating and planning strategies more than the other strategies.

In addition to motivation, gender is another variable that was taken into account in the present study while determining students' language learning strategies. A wide variety of studies have already been conducted with respect to the effect of gender on students' choice of language learning strategies. In the following paragraphs some of these studies are considered.

Kaylani (1996) found significant differences between male and female students in terms of strategy use. The results of his study with 225 participants using MANOVA analysis showed that gender exerts an effect on the students' choice of language learning strategies. Female students used memory, cognitive, compensation, and affective strategies more than male students while with regard to metacognitive and social strategies, no significant difference was found between two genders.

Oxford and Nyikos (1989) also found significant difference between male and female students with regard to language learning strategies. They reported two kinds of learning strategies, namely general study strategy and formal rule based strategies were used more by female students. They attributed this result to the females' desire for good grades, a need for social approval, their verbal superiority to males, and females' greater willingness to conform to norms.

Ehrman and Oxford (1989) also conducted their study on adult language learners and they found females students preferred to use general study strategies, functional practice strategies, strategies for searching for and communicating meaning, and self-management strategies more than male students.

In another study carried out by Green and Oxford (1995), the findings demonstrated that female students used higher levels of strategy more than male students. It was reported that female students used some strategies including using flashcards to remember words, reviewing English lessons often, connecting words and locations, skimming and reading carefully, seeking L1 words similar to L2 words, making summaries of information, etc., more than male students. However, male students used watching TV programs and video movies in English more often than females.

Tabanlioglu (2003) found no significant difference between male and female students in terms of choosing language learning strategies. He found that both male and female students prefer to use cognitive strategies more than other kinds of strategies.

Chang, Liu, and Lee (2007) also found significant difference between female and male students in terms of cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, social strategies and overall strategies with regard to gender. In fact, male learners presented less frequently in using overall strategy than did female learners. They found no significant difference between male and female students with regard to memory strategies, compensation strategies, and affective strategies by gender. Finally, they reported that female students used cognitive, meta-cognitive, and social strategies more than male students.

In a separate study, Lee (2003) also found significant difference between Taiwanese male and female students with respect to the range of language learning strategies. Male students were more strategic users than female ones.

To recognize and teach according to each student's strengths and preferences allows for the maximum potential in learning to occur. The presents study is an attempt to broaden teachers' understanding of students' strategies use and enhance students' learning. Furthermore, it helps students with some preferences of employing effective learning strategies to enhance their learning.

Since insufficient study has ever examined this important issue in Iran, the present study aimed to investigate the language learning strategies the students prefer to use, and to investigate whether there exists any relationship between language learning strategies and individual difference variables such as motivation and gender to fill the gap in the literature in the related field of second language learning.

II. METHODOLOGY

The present study was designed to examine language learning strategies used by Iranian EFL language learners. Motivational orientations and gender differences in language learning strategies were also taken into account.

A. Participants

A total number of 206 students in Iran participated in the present study. All the participants were intermediate students based on the results of Nelson proficiency test (200A). Of the 206 recruited students, 115 were female (55.8%) and 91 were male students (44.2). Their age ranged from 18 to 25 years old.

B. Instruments

Questionnaires were employed for the purpose of data collection on students' language learning strategies, motivational orientation, and their background information.

1. Language Learning Strategies Inventory

Strategy inventory for language learning developed by Oxford (1990) was utilized to identify learners' language learning strategies. The second version of the questionnaire, which is used with learners of English as a foreign language, was administered. It includes 50 items with Cronbach reliability of .94. It consists of six subsections and each section represents one of the six categories of language learning strategies. The 50 statements in the inventory follow the general format and students responded based on 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 "Never or almost never true of me" to 5 "Always or almost always true of me".

2. Motivational Orientation Inventory

The instrument employed for collecting data on students' motivational orientations was a questionnaire, language learning orientation scale, including 21items. The questionnaire was developed by Noels, Pelletier, Clement and Vallerand (2000) based on the claims and criteria of Vallerand, Pelletier, Blais, Briere, Senecal, and Valliers (1992). There are seven sub-scales in the inventory including amotivation (items 1-3), external regulation (items4-6), introjected regulation (items 7-9), identified regulation (items10-12), intrinsic motivation-accomplish (items13-15), intrinsic motivation-knowledge (items16-18) and intrinsic motivation-stimulation (items 19-21). It is based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from, "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" and the first three items on the questionnaire were negative statements and interpreted reversely.

In the present study amotivation was measured through three items, intrinsic motivation was measured through nine items in terms of three indicators, including motivation-knowledge, intrinsic motivation-accomplishment, and intrinsic motivation stimulation. Extrinsic motivation was measured through nine items in terms of three components such as external regulation, introjected regulation, and identified regulation.
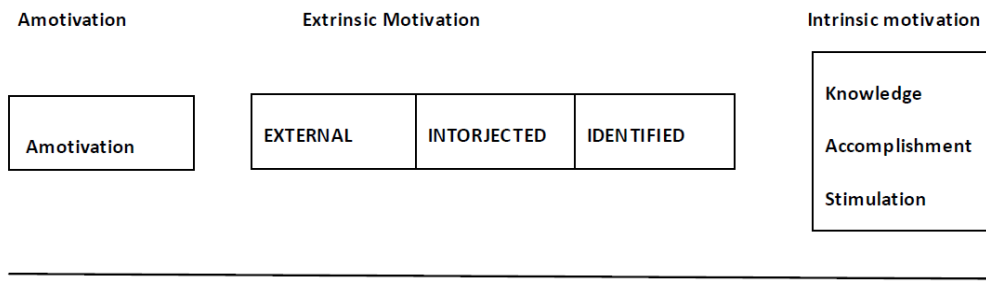
Figure 2.1: The self-Determination Continuum and the Different Types of Motivations (Deci & Ryan,1985;Vallerand et al., 1992)

C. Procedure

Quantitative approach was followed with regard to the process of data gathering and analyses. The data were gathered in two main stages. The first stage focused on the completion and collection of the questionnaires related to motivational orientations.

In the second stage, language learning strategies inventory including 50 items was administered to respondents to choose their preferred langue learning strategies. The participants were also informed about the purpose of the study to make their best contribution. Furthermore, the researcher provided the consent form which presented detailed information about the research and assured confidentiality. Then, the questionnaires, which were numbered to provide confidentiality, were randomly administered to 206 language learners who were learning English as a foreign language at intermediate level. Students who participated in the study were required to choose statement ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5(strongly agree) on the motivational orientation scale. They were also asked to choose statement from 1(never) to 5 (always) on the language learning strategies inventory.

III. Results

In this section, statistical information based on the analyses of students' responses to the Motivational orientations questionnaire and the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning was explained. Furthermore, the relationship between students' motivational orientations and language learning strategies was examined. Finally, the effect of gender on students' choice of language learning strategies and strategy usage was reported.

Research Question 1: Which language learning strategy is the most commonly used strategy and which one is shunned?

As able 3.1 illustrates, the mean of frequency of overall strategy use was 3.30, which was approximately at a medium degree (with a range from 1 to 5). According to the results of Table 3.1, the most frequently used strategy was social strategy (M=3.75), and followed by cognitive strategy (3.55), meta-cognitive strategy (M=3.46), memory strategy (M=3.14), compensation strategies (M=3.02), and affective strategies (M =2.88). As Table 3.1 displays, there was not a big difference among the frequency of each strategy that Iranian learners report using.

TABLE 3.1:
SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY USE

Strategy use	Mean	Standard Deviation
Memory strategy	3.14	.148
Cognitive strategy	3.55	.250
Metacognitive strategy	3.46	.271
Affective strategy	2.88	.272
Social strategy	3.75	.321
Compensation strategy	3.02	.176
Overall Strategy Use	3.30	.239

It was indicated form the results that students tended to use social strategy most frequently in comparison with other language learning strategies. Besides, affective strategy was found to be the least commonly used strategy among Iranian students. The mean and standard deviation for each item on learning strategies were shown in Table 3.2.

TABLE 3.2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EACH STRATEGY ITEMS

Strategy Items	Mean	SD
1. I think of the relationship between what I already know and new things I learn in English.	2.76	1.29
2. I use new English words in a sentence so I can remember them.	3.63	1.33
3. I connect the sound of a new English word and an image or picture of the new word to help me remember the word.	2.59	1.11
4. I remember a new English word by making a mental picture of a situation in which the word might be used.	3.50	1.19
5. I use rhymes to remember new English words.	3.13	1.16
6. I use flashcards to remember new English words.	3.46	1.27
7. I physically act out English words.	2.58	1.26
8. I review English lessons often.	3.81	.87
9. I remember new English words or phrases by remembering their location on the page, on the board, or on a street sign.	3.0	1.37
10. I say or write new English words several times.	2.76	1.29
11. I try to talk like native speakers.	3.70	1.38
12. I practice the sounds of English.	3.17	1.29
13. I use the English words I know in different ways.	3.39	1.00
14. I start conversations in English.	4.00	1.48
15. I watch English language TV shows spoken in English or go to movies spoken in English.	4.50	.68
16. I read for pleasure in English.	3.02	.92
17. I write notes, messages, letters, or reports in English.	3.32	1.44
18. I first skim an English passage (read over the passage quickly) then go back and read carefully.	4.04	.78
19. I look for words in my own language that are similar to new words in English.	3.67	1.20
20. I try to find patterns in English.	4.00	1.22
21. I find the meaning of an English word by dividing it into parts that I understand.	3.15	1.41
22. I try not to translate word-for-word.	3.05	1.34
23. I make summaries of information that I hear or read in English.	3.99	1.10
24. To understand unfamiliar English words, I make guesses.	2.86	.86
25. When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I use gestures.	3.24	1.20
26. I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.	2.84	1.17
27. I read English without looking up every new word.	2.14	1.41
28. I try to guess what the other person will say next in English.	3.50	1.21
29. If I cannot think of an English word, I use a word or phrase that means the same thing.	3.58	1.16
30. I try to find as many ways as I can to use my English.	3.19	1.46
31. I notice my English mistakes and use that information to help me do better.	3.39	1.09
32. I pay attention when someone is speaking English.	3.93	1.21
33. I try to find out how to be a better learner of English.	2.53	1.15
34. I plan my schedule so I will have enough time to study English.	4.00	.94
35. I look for people I can talk to in English.	3.80	1.52
36. I look for opportunities to read as much as possible in English.	3.45	1.61
37. I have clear goals for improving my English skills.	3.24	.82
38. I think about my progress in learning English.	3.57	1.05
39. I try to relax whenever I feel afraid of using English.	2.77	0.83
40. I encourage myself to speak English even when I am afraid of making a mistake.	3.21	1.27
41. I give myself a reward or treat when I do well in English.	3.06	1.12
42. I notice if I am tense or nervous when I am studying or using English.	2.53	1.15
43. I write down my feelings in a language learning diary.	2.99	1.57
44. I talk to someone else about how I feel when I am learning English.	2.75	1.47
45. If I do not understand something in English, I ask the other person to slow down or to say it again.	2.77	.83
46. I ask English speakers to correct me when I talk.	3.35	1.36
47. I practice English with other students.	3.86	.64
48. I ask for help from English speakers.	4.19	.95
49. I ask questions in English.	3.63	1.07
50. I try to learn about the culture of the English speakers.	4.71	.45

RQ2: Are Iranian learners more intrinsically motivated or extrinsically motivated?

The motivation questionnaire was composed of three main components, namely amotivation, intrinsic motivation (in terms of three sub-scales, including intrinsic motivation-knowledge, intrinsic motivation-accomplishment, and intrinsic motivation-stimulation), and extrinsic motivation (including three sub-components, namely external regulation, identified motivation, and introjected regulation). Descriptive statistics for each motivation item is presented in Table 4.3.

TABLE 3.3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR EACH MOTIVATION ITEM

Variables	Mean	SD
1. I cannot come to see why I study a second language, and frankly, I don't give a damn	3.34	.86
2. Honestly, I don't know, I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying a second language.	2.82	1.39
3. I don't know; I can't come to understand what I am doing studying a second language.	3.12	1.26
4. Because I have the impression that it is expected of me.	2.94	1.07
5. In order to get a more prestigious job later on.	3.53	1.49
6. In order to have a better salary later on.	4.01	.71
7. To show myself that I am a good citizen because I can speak a second language.	2.52	.87
8. Because I would feel ashamed if I couldn't speak to my friends from the second language community in their native tongue.	2.86	1.36
9. Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know a second language.	2.52	0.87
10. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.	3.51	1.11
11. Because I think it is good for my personal development.	2.84	1.34
12. Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak a second language.	3.53	1.13
13. For the pleasure that I experience in knowing more about the literature of the second language group.	2.76	1.29
14. For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.	2.81	1.11
15. Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring knowledge about the second language community and their way of life.	2.74	1.11
16. For the pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in my second language studies.	2.73	1.27
17. For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct in the second language.	2.79	1.11
18. For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in the second language.	2.75	1.28
19. For the "high" I feel when hearing foreign languages spoken.	2.79	1.11
20. For the "high" feeling that I experience while speaking in the second language.	3.28	.84
21. For the pleasure I get from hearing the second language spoken by native second language speakers.	3.03	1.23

Furthermore, Cronbach's alphas of the scales, the means and standard deviations, and the intercorrelation among them were estimated (Table 4.4). The pattern of intercorrelations is similar to Noels, Pelletier, Clement, and Vallerand (2000)'s results that reported a simplex pattern and more positive and higher correlations among adjacent scales. Another similarity lied in the fact that that identified regulation reveals a higher negative correlation with amotivation than the intrinsic motivation subscales.

TABLE 3.4:
MOTIVATION SUBSCALE MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, INTER-CORRELATIONS, AND CRONBACH'S ALPHA INDICES OF INTERNAL CONSISTENCY

		M	S	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
				Subscales						
Cronbach's alpha				(.78)	(.79)	(.61)	(.78)	(.85)	(.80)	(.90)
1.	Amotivation	3.09	1.17							
2.	EM-External regulation	3.23	1.09	-.33**						
3.	EM-Introjected regulation	2.64	1.03	-.74**	.76**					
4.	EM-Identified regulation	3.29	1.19	-.76**	.85**	.88**				
5.	IM-Accomplishment	2.77	1.17	-.21**	.84**	.72**	.41**			
6.	IM-Knowledge	2.76	1.22	-.17**	.58**	.68**	.38**	.97**		
7.	IM-Stimulation	3.03	1.06	-.28**	.87**	.80**	.56**	.96**	.93**	

Note: N=206   **$P<0.01$

As table 4.4 illustrates, among the seven motivation subscale, the mean of identified regulation as one of the sub-scale of extrinsic motivation was the highest (M=3.29), followed by extrinsic motivation-external regulation (M=3.23),

Amotivation (M=3.09), intrinsic motivation-stimulation (M=3.03), intrinsic motivation accomplishment (M=2.77), intrinsic motivation- Knowledge (M=2.76), and finally extrinsic motivation- introjected regulation (M=2.64).

The results showed that students were more extrinsically motivated, implying that most of the students learned English for external reasons instead of intrinsic ones.

RQ3: Is there any relationship between gender and frequency of strategy use?

T-test of equality of means was run to examine the relationships between gender differences and the use of language learning strategies. The results of this t-test analysis are illustrated in Table 4.5.

Based on the findings, significant differences were reported between male and female learners concerning overall strategy use. The obtained value for *t* is 2.52, *p*= .012 (see Table 4.5). This value is higher than the critical value of 1.96 for *t* with 204 degrees of freedom at .05 level of significance. In fact, female students employed more language learning strategies than male students.

Male learners revealed less frequently in using overall strategy than female ones and the means of frequency for male and female learners in overall strategy were 3.19 and 3.31, respectively. According to the results of six subcategories of language learning strategies, significant differences did not exist in the use of memory strategies (t=1.80, P=.07>.05) and affective strategies by gender (t =-.28, p=.77>.05). However, significant differences existed in the use of cognitive strategies (t=-4.37*, p=.000<.05), meta-cognitive strategies (t=3.65*, p=.000<.05), compensation strategy (-.208*, p=.03<.05), and social strategies (t= 3.08*, p=.002<.05). The means of frequency of male learners in using cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, and social strategies were (M=3.47, M=3.10, M= 3.17, and M= 3.63), respectively; the means of frequency of female learners in using cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, and social strategies were(M=3.66, M=3.40, M=2.99, and M=3.84), respectively. Consequently, female learners employed more cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, and social strategies than male learners. On the other hand, male students employed compensation strategies more than their female counterparts.

TABLE 3.5:
SUMMARY OF VARIATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGY USE BY GENDER

Strategies	Gender	N	Mean	SD	*t*	*P*
Memory strategy	Female Male	115 91	3.20 3.00	1.21 1.13	1.80	.07
Cognitive strategy	Female Male	115 91	3.66 3.47	0.71 0.69	-.37 *	.000
Compensation Strategy	Female Male	115 91	2.99 3.17	1.19 1.22	-.208*	.03
Meta-Cognitive Strategy	Female Male	115 91	3.40 3.10	1.08 1.18	3.65*	.000
Affective strategy	Female Male	115 91	2.77 2.80	1.22 1.17	-.28	.773
Social Strategy	Female Male	115 91	3.84 3.63	.90 .83	3.08*	.002
Overall Strategy Use	Female Male	115 91	3.31 3.19	1.05 1.03	2.52*	.012

Note: *p<.05

RQ 4: Is there any relationship between motivational orientations (Extrinsic vs. Intrinsic) and the learners' choice of language learning strategies?

Pearson product moment correlation analysis was run to survey the relationship between motivation and language learning strategies. The results were summarized in Table 4.6.

Results indicated that Amotivation was negatively and significantly correlated to all six language learning strategies, in the sequence of affective strategy (r=-.60), met-cognitive (r=-.54), cognitive (r=.-44), memory(r=.-43), compensation (r=.-36), and social (r=-.26) at the .01 level.

Furthermore, the findings shed light on the fact that three indicators of extrinsic motivation, including external regulation, identified, and introjected regulation showed positively and significantly correlation with all six types of language learning strategies. External regulation correlated with language learning strategies in the sequence of affective strategy (r=.79), meta-cognitive strategy (r=.56), social strategy (r=.51), cognitive strategy (r=.45), memory strategy (r=.33), and compensation strategy (r=.30).

Same with external motivation, identified motivation showed positively and significantly correlation with all six language learning strategies in the following sequence: affective strategy (r=.82), meta-cognitive strategy (r=.72), cognitive strategy (r=.56), memory strategy (r=.54), compensation strategy (r=.51), and social strategy (r=.38) at the .01 level.

Introjected motivation also showed positive and significant correlation with all six strategies in the sequence of affective strategy (r=.93), meta-cognitive strategy (r=.72), cognitive strategy (r=.55), memory strategy (.48), compensation (r=.43), and social strategy (r=.42) at the .01 level.

Finally, three sub-scales of intrinsic motivation showed high and significant correlation with all six language learning strategies. Intrinsic motivation-accomplishment showed correlation in this order: affective strategy (r=.78), meta-

cognitive (r=.47), social strategy (r=.42), cognitive strategy (r=.36), memory strategy (r=.24), and compensation strategy (r=.20) at the .01 level.

Intrinsic motivation-knowledge revealed significant correlation with language learning strategies in this way: affective strategy (r=.75), meta-cognitive (r=.45), social strategy (r=.44), cognitive strategy (r=.35), memory strategy (r=.23), and compensation strategy (r=.20) at the .01 level.

The last component of the intrinsic motivation, namely stimulation also revealed positive and significant correlation with all six language learning strategies in the sequence of affective strategy (r=.85), meta-cognitive strategy (r=.57), social strategy (r=.43), cognitive strategy (r=.41), compensation strategy (r=.31), and memory strategy (r=.29) at the .01 level.

Moreover the results showed that both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations were highly correlated with affective and met-cognitive strategies. It was also revealed that learners with stronger motivation tended to use more language learning strategies. In the present study female learners were found to be more motivated and they employed more language learning strategies in comparison with their male counterparts.

TABLE 3.6:
CORRELATION BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

	Amotivation	External	Identified	Introjected	Accomplishment	Knowledge	stimulation
Memory	.-43**	.33**	.54**	.48**	.24**	.23**	.29**
Cognitive	-.44**	.45**	.56**	.55**	.36**	.35**	.41**
Meta-cognitive	-.54**	.56**	.72**	.72**	.47**	.45**	.57**
Compensation	-.36**	.30**	.51**	.43**	.20**	.20**	.31**
Affective	.-60**	.79**	.82**	.93**	.78**	.75**	.85**
Social	-.26**	.51**	.38**	.42**	.42**	.44**	.43**

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

In a nutshell, Pearson product –moment Correlation was conducted to examine the relationship between types of motivation (Amotivation, Extrinsic motivation-external regulation, Extrinsic motivation- identified regulation, Extrinsic motivation- introjected regulation, Intrinsic motivation-accomplishment, Intrinsic motivation-knowledge, and Intrinsic motivation- stimulation) and use of strategies in language learning (Memory, Cognitive, Meta-cognitive, Compensation, Social, and Affective strategies). The results showed that the most common type of motivation was extrinsic motivation- identified and extrinsic motivation- introjected was the least frequent type among Iranian language learners.

Learners reported to use social, cognitive, and meta-cognitive strategies most frequently; and memory, compensation, and affective strategies least frequently. Based on the findings, significant correlation was found between motivation type and strategy use. It was found that both extrinsic motivation subscales and intrinsic motivation subscales were correlated positively and significantly with all six language learning strategies. However, amotivation demonstrated negative and significant correlation with all types of language learning strategies.

Finally, significant difference was found between male and female learners in terms of language learning strategies use. Female learners were found to be not only more motivated but also more language learning strategies users.

IV. DISCUSSION

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the relationship between language learning strategies and type of motivation. It also aimed to examine the effect of gender on the choice of language learning strategies among Iranian EFL learners.

In the present study, students were found to be more extrinsically motivated rather than intrinsically motivated. It seemed that most of the students wanted to learn English for external purposes such as getting job, rewards, or satisfying expectations. These results were in congruence with previous studies such as (Chang, 2005; Chang & Huang, 1999; Chung, 2000; Liao, 2000; Pong, 2002) that students were reported to be more extrinsically motivated.

It is worth mentioning that the means for two sub-scales of intrinsic motivation, namely knowledge (M=2.76) and accomplishment (M= 2.77), were somewhat low in comparison with Amotivation (M=3.09) and two extrinsic motivation sub-scales, namely identifed motivation (M=3.29) and external motivation (M=3.23). It can indicate that students in this sample did not show strong enthusiasm for English learning. The phenomenon may be due to the environmental fact that English is viewed as foreign language in Iranian EFL context and it is not the immediate medium of communication among Iranian people. Some students may think that it is not necessary to learn English in an EFL context because they are provided with scanty opportunity to use English in their daily life. This result was consistent with previous studies (Cetinkaya, 2005; Chang, 2005; Alemi, Tajeddin, & Mesbah, 2012).

By investigating the relationship between motivation types through Pearson product moment correlation analysis, it was found that there was a positive correlation among motivation types including, external motivation, introjected motivation, identified motivation, intrinsic motivation-knowledge, intrinsic motivation-accomplishment, and intrinsic motivation stimulation. However, amotivation showed negative correlation with all types of motivation. The findings can confirm the point that though extrinsic and intrinsic motivations are always viewed as opposite motivation, it is still possible for learners to learn English for both intrinsic and extrinsic purposes. According to Chang (2005), learners may learn English for obtaining instrumental goals, but they may still get a sense of fulfillment from the process of learning.

With regard to language learning strategies, statistically significant differences were found between male and female learners in their overall strategy use. In the present study, female learners indicated significantly greater use of language learning strategies than male learners in three categories of SILL, namely cognitive strategies, meta-cognitive strategies, and social strategies. However, male learners revealed greater use of compensation strategy. The finding of gender differences is in accordance with previous research studies (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995; Kaylani, 1996; Noguchi, 1991; Nyikos, 1990; Oxford, 1993; Oxford & Ehrman, 1993; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Politzer, 1983; Willing, 1988; Yang, 1994). According to Oxford (1993), this finding can be attributed to female's social skills, stronger verbal skills, and greater conformity to academic and linguistic norms.

The results of current study with respect to the significant relationship between motivation and language learning lent support to the previous studies (Ames & Archer, 1988; Bacon & Finnemann, 1990; Fleming & Wall, 1998; Chang & Huang, 1999; McIntosh & Noels, 2004). Based on the results of the present study it was shown that students with stronger motivation tend to use more language learning strategies than learners with less stronger motivation (Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Nykos, 1989).

V. CONCLUSION

Broadly speaking, while some of the results of the present study are in agreement with the findings of previous research on strategy use (Green & Oxford, 1995: O'Malley & Chamot, 1990), the current study broadens the pattern of strategy more than previous studies. Like previous research (Khalil, 2005), the current results demonstrated that English students were totally aware of the utmost importance role of using learning strategies to the development of their language learning; social strategies were the most frequent kind of strategies among the students. Further, a similar result regarding the least frequent strategies, was obtained by Hong-Nam & Leavell (2006), indicating that the least preferred strategies were affective and memory strategies. Thus, the use of social strategy and metacognitive strategy, the most frequent ones, should be incorporated in curriculum design, especially through the beginning stages of learning a second/foreign language, where accomplishing some type of declarative knowledge is critical in order to create "heightened understanding of the what and how of successful language learning" (Hong-Nam & Leavell, 2006, p. 412).

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that Iranian EFL learners were more extrinsically motivated and they tried to learn English for instrumental goal rather than for inner enjoyment. As to language learning strategies, the students appeared to use social strategy and meta-cognitive strategy most frequently. In other words, learners tend to communicate and make interaction with each other to and to make plan and evaluate their performance to facilitate their language learning process.

The relationship between type of motivation and language learning strategies were also investigated and it was found that both extrinsic and intrinsic subscales were correlated positively and significantly with all six language learning strategies. However, amotivation demonstrated negative and significant correlation with all six language learning strategies.

Gender was found to have influential effects on language learning strategies. Female students tended to use more language learning strategies in comparison with their male counterparts. Furthermore, significant difference was found between male and female students in terms of four language learning strategies, including cognitive, met-cognitive, social, and compensation strategies. Female students employed more cognitive, met-cognitive, social strategies while male students used more compensation strategy.

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A Case Study of College Teacher's Politeness Strategy in EFL Classroom

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Abstract—In the process of teaching and learning activity, teachers' language plays a very important role in EFL classroom, such as teachers' academic instructions, motivating the class and evaluating students. No exaggeration to say that teachers' language is indispensable to effective communication in class. Adopting Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies through class observation, the researcher aims to reveal how the teacher applies politeness strategies to his teaching practice in the language use. Through analyzing the data collected, the researcher finds out the college teacher conducts his class on term of positive politeness and negative politeness in a practical way. Evidently the adoption of politeness strategies shortens the teacher-student social distance, makes the class interesting, and in turn facilitates English teaching and learning.

Index Terms—application, positive politeness, negative politeness, EFL classroom

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, numerous scholars at home have conducted many researches on China college English teaching in various ways, such as the present situation and the direction of reformation. No matter where the reformation might go, it doesn't go without teachers' practical work without teachers' language used in the classroom. According to Numan (1991), teachers' language is of crucial importance, not only for the organization of the classroom, but also for the process of acquisition. Politeness is a common social phenomenon, and is regarded as a moral code in human communication and social activities. As we know, a positive learning atmosphere is encouraging both to teachers and students. Consequently it is of much importance to know about the extent in which how teachers apply politeness strategy to their language use in EFL classroom.

During the twelve years of EFL teaching at a west China university, I feel more and more puzzled. Why students show no more interest in English learning though its importance is especially stressed since the first day of their stepping into school? For each academic year's freshmen, better scores in the National College Entrance Exam (NCEE) don't encourage them to study harder in a more liberal college classrooms; instead, those scores become their primitive capital for future laziness at college. As a result, each year when freshmen's university days starts, I pay special attention to their response to each class, reflect on my teaching activities, and correct what might be inferred negative and destructive for their fragile enthusiasm in English class. What's more, I participate in my colleagues' class, learn about others' EFL teaching techniques, and most important of all, experience as much as how students want of English teachers and their class.

In a specific language learning environment, classroom activities hosted (not controlled, but guided) by teachers shapes like a special interpersonal relationship. It is similar to any other social relationship in that interlocutors have to work hard to promote their effective communication. What is the difference are teachers' dominant advantages in much of the communication as a result of their social status, knowledge and relative power. Random questions asked before class might prove something. Why don't you raise your hand since you know the answer? Why don't you stand up and correct teachers' wrong answers? Their answer is "I dare not because teachers look unapproachable" or "We are afraid to challenge teachers because they may be introducing 'new knowledge' though seemingly it is a wrong answer". This sounds ridiculous but it is understandable as teachers used to be "any of them".

II. RELEVANT THEORIES

Brown and Levinson's Politeness Theory

Politeness is a very important code of conduct in human society. In any social activity human language use has to obey this code too. Researches on politeness is closely related to Grice (1975), Leech (1983), and Brown and Levinson

(1978, 1987). Among them, Brown and Levinson's politeness theory is claimed to be universally valid. Since the publication of their politeness research, many later researchers are following their track more or less. That is why the researcher builds its politeness research on it and tries to find out how college teachers apply politeness strategies in their language use.

Based on Goffman's (1987) notion of face, the core of Brown and Levinson's politeness theory (1978, 1987) is face-saving. They start from the idea of model persons, who are rational agents (1987:58). They think more strategically and are very conscious of their language choices. They have positive face and negative face, which are termed as the involvement and independence of face. According to Brown and Levinson, Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) are acts which inherently damage the addressee's (or the speakers') face against the wants and desires of the other. Everyone has his own face wants. Face is something that can be easily emotion-affected and can be saved, preserved, enhanced, lost or threatened and it must be constantly taken care of through interactions. Face is so tender and vulnerable that both participants in communication should try to save each other's faces. In this case, politeness strategies are employed to save the hearer's face when FTAs are unavoidable or unexpected. They (1978) formulate four politeness strategies and analyze four strategies: bald on record (without any redressive action), positive politeness (solidarity-seeking), negative politeness (freedom-given), and off record (indirect).

Normally in EFL classrooms, teachers are unavoidable to correct something that a student has said, done, or written. When this correction involves a negative evaluation of a student's trying, a face-threatening act happens. When the student is asked for further explanations, teachers' instructions might be a threat to him/ her because teachers are threatening the student's freedom of action, thus further threaten his/her negative face. Teachers' offering for help might also regarded as an FTA because it threatens students' negative face when teachers suggest that students may owe a debt to teachers and threaten students' positive face when teachers imply that students are in need of help.

III. TEACHERS' LANGUAGE IN EFL CLASSROOM

A. The Role of Teachers

Started in the middle of 1990s, researches on teachers have been carried on by many western scholars (TESOL Journal, 1994). Undoubtedly this trend shows that teachers play an important role in language teaching and learning. In China an ancient scholar Han Yu defined the role of teachers as "knowledge spreader, skill instructor, and problem solver". The advent of twenty-first century doesn't change the role of teachers intrinsically, but it requires the teachers to develop more qualities and traits. More specifically, the role of teachers is supposed to be a patient motivator, a helpful facilitator and a positive counselor.

B. The Importance of Teachers' Language

Since 1970s, lots of scholars both home and abroad have been conducting the studies of teachers' language. According to Rod Ellis (1985), teachers' language can be termed as teachers' talk, teachers' speech, or teachers' utterance, which is all about the language use in class. Flanders (1970) defines teaching activity as "acts by the teacher which occur in the context of classroom interaction". Hakansson (1986) and Ellis (1990) also claim the importance role of teachers' language in managing classroom interaction. Nunan (1991) illustrates the importance of teachers' language, both for the management of classroom and in the process of acquisition; for classroom management teachers' language may succeed or fail to carry out the teaching activities, while during the course of acquisition teachers' language is the major medium for understanding knowledge input that the learners are able to receive.

In EFL classroom teaching, English is not only the target language for students to learn, butt also a medium for teachers to teach English. EFL teachers are the models for the students to imitate while their language is the most important source for students to gain the knowledge of the language. Teachers' language is a language applied in a special language situation, while politeness is regarded as a most favorable strategy in interpersonal relationship. Combining Brown and Levinson's politeness strategy with teachers' language use, the researcher aims at what politeness strategies are applied in EFL classroom and how this combination facilitates teaching and learning activities and benefits both teachers and students.

IV. THE FACTORS AFFECTING TEACHERS' APPLICATION OF POLITENESS STRATEGY

In Brown and Levinson's theory, the strength or weightiness of a particular FTA (e.g. a request, an invitation, or a refusal) is the sum of these factors (1987, p.76-80): 1) social distance (D) between speaker and hearer, refers to the degree of familiarity and solidarity they share; 2) relative power (P) of hearer over speaker in respect to hearer means the degree to which the speaker can impose his/her will on speaker; and 3) absolute rating (R_x) of imposition in the culture, in terms of the expenditure of goods or services by hearer, the right of speaker to perform the act, and the degree to which the hearer welcomes the imposition.

$$W_x = D (S, H) + P (H,S) + R_x$$

(From Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.76)

Following Brown and Levinson, three factors are calculated to determine the weight of the FATs (i.e., the degree of

risk to students' face) in the classroom context and are expected to influence its redress (i.e., the execution of politeness strategies). In the classroom context, teachers are supposed to have much knowledge and experience, they are the guiders in the classroom learning activities, and therefore to enjoy more authority over students and have more power than students. It is teachers' prevailing status in the classroom that brings on relatively great distance between teachers and students. However, the value of distance is changeable; teachers and students can be familiar with each other as time goes on. Rating of imposition in the classroom interaction is referred to as the degree of burdens that teachers put on students' shoulders or the extent of seriousness of any criticism or blame. With regard to EFL classrooms, when applying politeness strategies, the teacher should take three other factors into consideration. The first factor is age. It is easier to understand the younger a person is, the less awareness he/she has in term of politeness. The second one is students' ratio of gender. As Lakoff (1975) points out, women's language represents an overall conventional politeness. The more girls a class has, the higher degree of politeness is supposed to be used. The third is students' level of English proficiency. EFL context is a special place where non native language is used more frequently. The higher students' overall level of English proficiency, the better students can understand teachers' talk, and the higher awareness students may have in teachers' politeness strategy.

V. METHOD AND DATA COLLECTION

EFL classrooms are special context for the application of politeness strategies in teachers' language. To better understand how the teacher conducts his class, I decided to collect data through non-participation class observation but recording the whole process of class activity in order that later on it is easier to pick out teachers' language used in class.

Since each academic year freshmen are younger and their English overall level is better (most students are lazy in learning English and thus their English is getting worse each semester at college.), I assume younger teacher are more conscious of the use of politeness strategies in class, and thus I observe two 45-minute classes given by a 30-year-old male teacher. There are 30 students in his class, and their major is computer science. It is interesting but not strange 28 boys outnumber 2 girls, and boys nickname girls panda. The English class is about Generation Gap in Unit 2, *New Horizon College English Book I*. It is an easy and a popular topic among teenaged freshmen. The whole class the teacher designed many open questions like "how does the generation gap happen?" and "If you were a parent (a child), how can you solve possible problems with your children (parents)?" I was greatly infected by their friendly class environment.

In order to make teachers' language more specifically, after class observation when decoding the recording into written form, the researcher adopts the method used by Jiang Xiaoqing (2010). According to her, teachers' activities can be classified as four categories: 1) academic instructions, which shows how teachers direct students' learning activity, for example: the teacher's academic presentation, answering students' academic questions, and supportive and corrective feedback; 2) motivation, which refers to various illocutionary acts aimed at activating students such as their participation, academic questions, and initiative feedback; 3) evaluation, referring to teacher's positive and negative feedback which can encourage as well as discourage the students; and, 4) classroom management, which refers to disciplines of instructions or directives (orders, requests, questions, and calls), procedural instructions, and procedural directives). (Table 1, Table 2)

TABLE 1
POSITIVE POLITENESS IN TEACHERS' FOUR ACTIVITIES IN LANGUAGE

Positive Politeness	
Academic Instructions	1. Let's begin our class. 2. Today we will learn Section A, Unit 2. 3. Could you please read *New Words* to us? 4. Who would like to read *New Words* to the class? 5. Please read carefully and find a similar word for "disgusting". 6. Shall we move to the topic of the text? 7. Talking about the generation gap, I think we all are familiar with this. 8. Now I would like to ask one golden flower? Miss Xie, could you please give us an example of different views over clothes (or make-up) between parents and children?
Motivation	1. Would you like to answer this question? 2. Why don't you translate what you are thinking about the generation gap into English?
Evaluation	1. You all have done a wonderful job in *New Words*. 2. All of you have done a perfect job. 3. Excellent! 4. Impressive! 5. Keep working hard and good luck in next time's vocabulary quiz.
Classroom Management	1. Quiet please! 2. (Time is up!) Would you please stop talking? 3. Now group discussion time. You three are group one.

TABLE 2
NEGATIVE POLITENESS IN TEACHERS' FOUR ACTIVITIES IN LANGUAGE

Negative Politeness	
Academic Instructions	1. Now please read *New Words* after me. 2. That's all for *New Words*. Please stop here. 7. Now look at the blackboard and think about questions here. 4. I appreciate your trying, but you are supposed to illustrate the problem-solving of the generation gap. 5. This question is kind of difficult. Please think carefully. 6. That's all for the questions. Now I want you to do *translation* on page 18.
Motivation	1. Gentlemen please, what are your opinions? 2. "*Is* my father enjoy classical music?" Maybe you can correct this sentence? 3. I'm thinking, perhaps, you can have a try.
Evaluation	1. Well-done, Mr. Wang. You are a great father.
Classroom Management	1. Now please practice this sentence structure with your desk-mate. 2. You, please come here. 3. Can you sit here?

When organizing the teacher's language, I was amazed (also in class) at student could manage to understand the teacher's difficult English sentences. The young male teacher is energetic, humorous and pro-English. So I decided to go back to his class, requesting that every student hand in a small piece of paper with their English score in the National College Entrance Exam (NCEE) but without their names on the paper. Studying their scores, I understand what I haven't before: I observed "good" students with an overall higher level of English proficiency. The total score for English NCEE is 150, and score 90 is "pass line". In China we measure 80-89 as "bad", 90-99 as "so-so", 100-109 as "O.K.", 110-119 as "good", 120-129 as "excellent" and 130-above as top (Table 2)

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTION OF STUDENTS' SCORE IN NCEE

Range of Scores	80-89	90-99	100-109	110-119	120-129	130-Above
Number of Students	2	11	7	8	2	0

VI. DISCUSSION

A. The Application of Positive Politeness

According to Brown and Levinson (1987) Positive politeness refers to any effort to meet a person's positive face wants, minimizing face-threatening acts to one's positive face in order that the speaker wants what the hearer's wants. For example: For example: *No one can deal with this situation naturally like you can? We want you to stay with us. Could you still come along tomorrow?* Speaker makes use of positive politeness in order to be consistent with hearer's positive face wants so as to satisfy hearer's positive face. During EFL classrooms teaching, appropriate strategies that the teacher adopts can help promote students' learning, help students know what they are doing and how to do it, reinforce proper learner behaviors and extend learning opportunities. Through class participation, I notice the teacher mainly adopted two positive strategies: the address and the compliment.

1. The address

e.g. Now I would like to ask one golden flower (In Chinese we have a famous film entitled *Five Golden Flowers*. Flowers symbolize pretty girls.). Miss Xie, could you please give us an example of different views over clothes (or make-up) between parents and children?

While calling the girl student's last name added Miss in front, the teacher walked to her seat with smiling face. He hit the target, the girl laughed with shyness, but she did a good job in answering the question.

e.g. Gentlemen please, what are your opinions? (*Try to encourage boy students to participate voluntarily.*)

Brown and Levinson define honorifics as "direct grammatical encodings of relative social status between participants, or between participants and persons or things referred to in the communicative event" (1987:179, 276). As we know, calling someone a name with respect (and nice jokes) makes him/her feel better and more important. In reality the address is determined by the interculators' social distance or relative power, while in the teacher's case, his address for students help establish an equal teacher-student status, build up their confidence and create a relaxing and friendly atmosphere for teaching and learning activities.

2. The compliment

In any culture where social face or individual face is of great significance, praises and compliments play a vital important in encouraging interpersonal relationships. As educators in traditional classroom teaching, the goal as teachers is to help students believe that they have the skills to succeed. The way teachers compliment students has an impact on how successful students perceive themselves. In the teacher's class, he never forgot to praise students with "positive" words like *well-done*, *impressive*, *awesome* and *excellent*. One funny thing in class was that after a boy student shared his opinions in how to solve different views over one thing with "his children", the teacher praised him with applause "Well-done, Mr. Wang. You are a great father." The whole laughed with joys. In China most youngsters are shy to act as "dad" or "mom" though when we are children we play the game of "mom-dad-child" family life.

Afterwards more "father" or even "mother" stood up contributing their solutions to the generation gap with their child generation.

In general through class observation we see the teacher is quite aware of students' face wants. She takes the active attitudes towards her teaching language and tries to use appropriate words to show respect to her students and save their positive face.

B.   The Application of Negative Politeness

Negative politeness can be similarly defined as any attempt to meet one's negative face wants, minimizing FTAs to one's negative face by means of speaker's retreat and avoidance of imposition on the hearer. For example: *Could you please pass the paper to Mary?* The speaker uses the formula of "Could you …?"

Through class observation we can see hedges or questions are mostly used by the teacher to minimize the imposition. Hedge was first appeared in Lakoff's research paper. Brown and Levinson illustrate "hedges" as a "particle, word, or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or noun phrase in a set; it says of that membership that it is partial, or true only in certain respects, or that it is more true and complete than perhaps might be expected (1987:145)". Hedges can soften performatives. Hedges may be encoded in particles or appear in form of adverbials like "in fact", "in a way" and "if" clauses, such as "if you want/can".

In the teacher's class terms, they have adopted many sentences with hedges.

e.g. Could you please read *New Words* to us?

e.g. Would you like to answer this question?

e.g. "*Is* my father enjoy classical music?" Maybe, you can correct this sentence?

e.g. I think, perhaps, you can have a try.

e.g. Now I want you to do *translation* on page 18.

From the examples above, it is easy to understand the teacher's negative politeness strategy. Many of his sentence patterns are suggestive or added model verbs, which make the serious question-answer atmosphere less stressful, and students have more freedom of choices. For students' incorrect answers, the teacher gave a positive remark on the effort and then proposed his real thinking. e.g. *I appreciate your trying, but you are supposed to illustrate the problem-solving of the generation gap*. In this way students' face has been saved but the teacher hit the target to correct the student's mistake too.

C.   Further Discussion

From Table 1, we can find out that positive strategy is preferable to negative strategy. Why does that happen? As we know, positive politeness is oriented towards an individual's positive self-image and emphasizes the need for association between teachers and students. By adopting more positive strategy, the teacher means to reduce the threat of FTAs and shorten the distance between them. As the teacher is getting to know her freshmen students, she wants to establish higher degree of familiarity with students.

In class the teacher uses many different linguistic means of positive politeness strategy in an attempt to claim common ground by seeking agreement, sharing interests and treating students as members of an in-group and friends. Besides, the teacher utilizes positive politeness strategy to claim association by virtue of the fact that teachers and students are cooperators in most cases. Positive politeness can make teachers satisfy students' positive face and save their negative face by offering help, asserting understanding of students' needs, showing sympathy for students when students have difficulties or when they suffer embarrassment.

VII.   CONCLUSION

Through the case study of a young male teacher's classroom activities, we notice that his classroom language is full of witty humor. Most importantly, we can conclude that teachers place much emphasis on the application of politeness strategies. As a young teacher, he succeeds in creating a comfortable language learning environment by using lots of positive politeness and negative politeness. He is skillful in: for one thing, using honorifics, cute addresses and encouraging compliments to stimulate students' learning enthusiasm, and build up their self-confidence; for another, he uses many hedges and questions to diminish the imposition and succeed in maintaining students' face.

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Naturalistic Color in Edith Wharton's *Ethan Frome*

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Abstract—**Edith Wharton is an outstanding American realistic woman writer. She is the first female writer who won the Pulitzer Prize for Fiction in 1921. Her first novel *Ethan Frome* vividly describes the miserable situation of the poor who are living in the New England town. This paper discusses family misfortune, poverty and the restriction of social morality that are the three factors contributing to the hero's loneliness and conflicting life. The paper also analyzes the tragic meanings conveyed by typical images and symbols in the novel, thus to fully present the deterministic naturalism manifested in *Ethan Frome*.**

Index Terms—**Ethan Frome, domestic misfortune, social morality, naturalism**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth century, the literary trend of naturalism had an influence on American writing. The greatest naturalist writers at that time such as Stephen Crane and Theodore Dreiser "directed attention to inherited attributes conditioned by social and economic forces, thus formed an attitude of despair which characterized American literature at the turn of the centuries" (Wu Dingbo, 1998, p.87). The younger generations of the 1890s were coming to the forefront. "In their works, readers can learn that people are strangled and ruined by a kind of irresistible power. And they can also learn that this power determines people's life and fate to certain extent" (Chang Yaoxin, 2005, p.136). Edith Wharton was also among them.

Edith Wharton is the first female writer who won the Pulitzer Prize for Fiction in 1921. She has written a lot of world-famous novels such as *The House of Mirth*, *The Age of Innocence* and so on. Most of her novels describe the luxurious and deceptive life of American upper class, which is her major concern. *Ethan Frome*, Wharton's first novel, was published in 1911. It reflects the poor people's brutal living condition in a small New England town called "Starkfield".

A number of scholars at home and abroad hold great interest in *Ethan Frome* and study it from different aspects. Some analyze the three major characters' personalities and psychology. Some explore the influence of Wharton's early life on the subject of her works. Some hold that the novel reflects Wharton's support of female rights. Most of the studies make a conclusion that *Ethan Frome* is a ruthless but real reflection of the poverty-stricken people's useless struggle for survival. This paper aims to focus on the naturalism conveyed in *Ethan Frome*.

II. NATURALISM IN *ETHAN FROME*

Ethan Frome is Edith Wharton's first novel. It tells readers about the poor people's hard living condition in a small New England town called "Starkfield". Ethan Frome is the protagonist in the novel. He was born in an ordinary family whose parents were both farmers. He used to enjoy a happy childhood and college life until the death of his father. Later, life always goes against his wishes. He could establish a comfortable life in a big city after his graduation from college if his father did not pass away. He could marry a girl whom he really goes after if he were not dependent on Zeena, a woman older than him and looking after his sick mother. He could pursue his true love for Mattie and establish a new life with her if he were not restricted by social morality. In a word, Ethan's life turns out to be a fated tragedy.

The body of the paper is made up of four parts. The first part explains the negative influence of Ethan's family misfortune on his ambitious future life. The second part studies the influence of the extremely poor economic condition on his marriage. The third part describes how social morality clears up Ethan's courage to pursue a new life filled with passion and mutual love. And the last part is a further presentation of Ethan's unchangeable fate through a study of the typical images and symbols in the novel.

A. Domestic Misfortune

Parents' death and the wife's illness, as two major incidents of Ethan's family misfortune, shape his loneliness and really bring him so much suffering. Ethan leads a happy life with his parents in his childhood. He is entitled to education and shows great interest in physics in a college in Worcester, a city bigger than Starkfield. He aims to work in a big city, because there are big libraries and he would have more opportunities to earn more money. However, his beautiful dream is broken by his father's death. "First his father got a kick, and went soft in the brain, and gave away money" (Wharton, 2004, p.17). For this reason, Ethan has to give up his study and returns home to take on the

responsibility of managing the whole family.

Doing hard work on barren lands all day long, Ethan becomes increasingly lonely and self-abased. When he studies in the college, though keeping silent most of the time, sometimes he merrily gives out a tune as he walks at night alone. However, even would not like to share with others his thoughts. What occupies his mind is just to work for money to support the whole family. In the eyes of his neighbors, Ethan lives in solitude and can seldom be approachable. He remains mysterious and removed apart from his world.

What's more, Ethan is anxious for his lack of the sense of security. Under that circumstance, he is easily misled and involved in a loveless marriage and his anxiety and sense of insecurity are strengthened. Ethan's mother, who used to be cheerful and talkative, becomes queer and feeble since her husband's death. At first, she is not isolated from the outside world because she likes to sit at the gate of the door to see the pedestrians walking by. Later on, for the development of industry, roads are built for transportation, so seldom does anyone go by frequently. She drags along for years as weak as a baby. Zeena, Ethan's cousin, is willing to take care of her sick aunt so that Ethan may devote all his energy to the land. Zeena has done an excellent job managing the housework and caring the sick old woman, which impresses Ethan a lot and gradually makes him rather dependent on his cousin. Consequently, when his mother dies, at the critical moment of Zeena's departure, Ethan is so anxious and frightened that he eagerly asks Zeena to live with him for the rest part of his life, regardless of the fact that Zeena is seven years elder than him. He feels sure that "with a 'smart' wife like Zeena, it would not be long before he had made himself a place in it" (Wharton 62). However, it turns out that Zeena is the last person to whom Ethan can confide with his thoughts and feelings. With the passage of time, Zeena becomes sick and fussy. Mutual affection and heart-to-heart communication do not exist between the couple. It is obvious that Ethan's solitude and anxiety originated from the death of his parents further strengthen his timidity, anxiety and weak mind, which paves a way for more suffering he will surely encounter in later years. To conclude, Ethan's family misfortune dispels his ambition and shapes his negative personalities. It is the most profound root of his tragic fate beyond his control.

B. Poor Economic Condition

People can hardly live in this world without money, thus economic condition determines whether we can enjoy a comfortable and carefree life. In Starkfield, a backward town where Ethan was born and lives throughout his life, people's social status and activities are closely associated with their economic condition. Each poor family has to apply themselves to hard labor work so as to feed the whole family. "In the book *Ethan Frome*, poverty is the most significant theme and recurs throughout the story" (Wang Hongning & Zhao Yuzhu 2006, p.41).

The Fromes struggle for survival with painstaking efforts. They own a few lands and a small saw-mill, from which they barely make the life go on. The family goes in heavy debt after the father's death and nearly all of the valuable goods are mortgaged. The serious economic situation forces Ethan to devote himself to the saw-mill from day to night. No wonder that his friend, Harmon says, "I don't know as he would; but I know he wouldn't be sorry to earn a dollar" (Wharton, 2004, p.17). Unfortunately, "people's awful living condition is determined by the industrialization" (Fang Cheng, 2007, p.125). No matter how diligent Ethan is, he still can achieve nothing from several barren lands without advanced instruments and more helpful hands. "The universe is cold, godless, indifferent and hostile to human desires. Life becomes a struggle for survival" (Wu Dingdo, 1998, p.86). Ethan's desire for a comfortable life is depressed due to his worsening economic condition, which he is unable to change.

Due to the poverty, Ethan leads a life filled with nothing but quarrels and complaints. As a matter of fact, Zeena's physical health is not as poor as she has pessimistically imagined. However, because of over sensitiveness to her health, she always buys medicine to cure her illness and even sometimes buys useless products. "Her last visit to Springfield had been commemorated by her paying twenty dollars for an electric battery of which she had never been able to learn the use" (Wharton, 2004, p.56). Therefore, expense of treatment, medicine and something else accounts for a heavy financial burden to the poor family. Still, Zeena complains that she is not allowed to receive good treatment. Ethan gradually realizes that his marriage is a marriage without love and that he has simply exchanged the responsibility of a sick mother for the responsibility of a sicker wife. Their daily life leaves little talks.

When she spoke it was only to complain, and to complain of things not in his power to remedy; and to check a tendency to impatient retort he had first formed the habit of not answering her, and finally of thinking her of other things while she talked. (Wharton, 2004, p.63)

The pessimistic economic condition is a bondage to Ethan's pursuit for a truly passionate and meaningful life with Mattie, a girl his heart really goes for. It takes him long time to be determined to elope with Mattie. While considering certain amount of money left to Zeena as her allowance and expense for medicine, Ethan becomes timid and reluctant once again. He is quite aware of the fact that without money, he is by no means allowed to leave his sick wife and the isolated Starkfied. It can be predicted that his elopement with Mattie is to be hopeless and unblessed. The true reality is only found when the forces of environment are dominant in suppressing human wishes and preventing them from accomplishing their aspirations.

Throughout his life, Ethan is an honest and hardworking man and he wants to sell his house and lands to look for chances in big cities. But economic situation at that time becomes more and more serious. He has to stay in Starkfield living a hard and suffocating life with his stern, fussy and nagging wife.

C.   Social Morality

The pressure of social morality and convention is the irresistible barrier against Ethan's passion and desire. On the one hand, he feels that he has the obligation to be faithful to Zeena and look after her all her life. On the other hand, he longs to live with Mattie whose vigor gives rise to his hope for a new beautiful life. Finally, confined and disciplined by social morality, Ethan and Mattie have no other choice but commit suicide so as to fulfill their wish of being together forever.

To the minds of Ethan, Zeena and other local people, looking after the sick wife is Ethan's unshakable responsibility. Zeena always ascribes her poor health to the hard housework she has undertaken when caring for Ethan's sick mother. Consequently, Ethan feels he owes Zeena a lot and should be responsible for her forever. Although he is quite clear that their marriage is a terrible mistake and a kind of calamity, he may never betray and desert Zeena. When he tries to borrow from Mr. Hale money as Zeena's allowance and charge of medicine, the neighbour's inquiry about Zeena's health reminds him of his obligation to the wife. "Throughout Ethan's life, it is the factors like social convention and morality that make Ethan's effort in vain" (Quan Lan, 2006, p.147).

The mutual affection between Ethan and Mattie is declared as a forbidden love by conventional codes and ideas of the backward Starkfield. Ethan faces a dilemma and cannot make a decision whether he should follow his heart to establish a new life. Sometimes, he is determined to get rid of the bondage to marriage. Later on, his determination is challenged and gradually dispelled.

Ethan's courage and confidence is regained by Mattie's arrival and accompany. The innocent girl brings not only her luggage, but also her impressive smile and energy which Ethan has been deprived for a long time and still long for. Most of people in the town occupy themselves in earning a life. Seldom can they afford the luxury of talking and share with each other the joy and sorrow. As time goes on, Ethan and Mattie get more familiar with each other. Accompanied by the girl, Ethan feels interior warmth and does his work more energetically. A sharp contrast between Mattie and Zeena promotes Ethan to tell what he really desires to get and deserves. On one hand, Mattie is young and vigorous, and she brings life to Ethan's family and wins Ethan's deep love for her.

The girl was more than the bright serviceable creature he had thought her. She had an eye to see and an ear to hear: he could show her things and tell her things, and taste the bliss of feeling that all he imparted left long reverberations and echoes he could wake at will. (Wharton, 2004, p.33)

On the other hand, Zeena passes like a feeble old woman and behaves like a ruthless witch:

The light, on a level with her chin, drew out of darkness her puckered throat and the projecting wrist of the hand that clutched the quilt, and deepened fantastically the hollows and prominences of her high-boned face under its ring of crimping-pins. (Wharton, 2004, p.49)

Aware of the strict social morality, Ethan dare not express his affection for Mattie directly. What he can do is to observe the girl and conceal his passion. In a cold and chilly winter night, he waits for Mattie outside the dancing hall. He watches young people dancing through a window and admires their happiness. On the way home, Ethan has several chances to express his love for Mattie, but he has no courage to do it eventually. Another occasion when Ethan loses the greatest chance to promote his relationship with Mattie is the precious night in which Zeena spends in Bettsbridge buying medicine. Ethan is very excited to enjoy the night with Mattie. He even thinks he and Mattie may enjoy the night just like a couple. But social morality is deeply implanted in their mind and constantly emerges. Ethan and Mattie feel uneasy, and their communication and actions become meaningless. It is only for the reason that Ethan has married and can do nothing to violate morality although the marriage is unjustifiable and unfortunate. "Human beings' nature is tortured by the forces of their environment" (Mao Xinde, 2004, p.124).

Zeena is the very representative of social morality. She supervises Ethan and Mattie as long as they stay at home. Noticing Ethan starts to pay attention to his appearance since Mattie comes, Zeena feels uneasy and jealous. She says to Ethan suddenly and incisively when he goes toward the door: "I guess you're always late, now you shave every morning" (Wharton, 2004, p.37). What's worse, the night when Zeena is out, her cat becomes her agent seating itself in her chair between Ethan and Mattie as if Zeena were there herself. Most importantly, the cat breaks the pickle dish that Zeena cherishes. This episode alerts the two lovers to the ill consequence of their forbidden love and puts a quick end to the night which should be quite romantic and beautiful. It also marks a turning point for Ethan and Mattie's life because Zeena insists on sending Mattie away. Ethan and Mattie could never get rid of supervision and grip from Zeena, who stands for the social morality and the punishment of the society they live in.

Ethan and Mattie eventually submit to social convention and make a fatal mistake. When Zeena forces Mattie to leave away, the triangular relationship comes to its peak. Ethan finds no good excuse to let Mattie stay with them. He believes that they can do nothing but commit suicide. What is more tragic is that they fail and become disabled. They are punished and get into the endlessly painful life. His wish is unfulfilled and behaviors unwise, which is pre-determined by the prevailing social morality.

D.   Images and Symbols

Wharton is good at creating symbols to implicate powerful and irresistible forces. Typical images and symbols can further disclose Ethan's tragic fate. Starkfield reveals a strong sense of infertility from the formation of the name. The image of "L" symbolizes Ethan's hopeless living state. Tombs and the dead cucumber-vine are associated with death.

Spruce is the witness of Ethan's forbidden love. All these imply that Ethan's tragic experiences are doomed. He is just a victim who cannot control his fate in the society.

Starkfield, the name of the town, is made up of "stark" and "field" which means a place devoid of hope and profit. "The story mainly happened in 'Starkfield', and it only has barren land here" (Pan Jian, 1999, p.98). The winter is rather long in Starkfield, lasting for half a year. And summer days are temperate. The harsh weather is not suitable for farming and planting, thus it barely brings profit for the local people. No wonder that Ethan's living condition goes from bad to worse. Besides, the snow which usually lasts for a long time in winter has already mastered people living there. Ethan has to transport woods to support his family in winter. Working from day to night on the road covered with ice and snow provides more chances of accidents for him. It is not hard to imagine that after years of living under such a harsh circumstance, people will be completely isolated from the outside world. Their will is sure to be turned down and passion frustrated. Therefore, the town becomes more and more silent and hopeless.

In Starkfield, "L" has a significant meaning, which symbolizes large quantity of food and something to support the family. But the lands here are not abundant and generous, and any living needs must be ruined by the soil. Meanwhile, Ethan once says to his hirer that "the house was bigger in my father's time: I had to take down the "L," a while back" (Wharton, 2004, p.23). When Ethan takes down the "L", it declares that his family is nearly coming to an end. "Ethan and Zeena have no child, which proves their infertility, just as the grey image implies" (Zhang Jianhong, 2007, p.102). Although Mattie's coming brings him hope and vigor, if they lived together, they would make this family continue. But all these are destroyed by Zeena as well as the cruel environment to which Ethan is forced to give in.

Tombs and cucumber-vine around Ethan's house symbolize death and the three major characters' miserable endings. Ethan comes across the side of the tombs everyday. "For years that quiet company had mocked his restlessness, his desire for change and freedom" (Wharton, 2004, p.47). While there was no other sound he could feel his ancestors are beckoning him. It is very strange to see that Ethan and his wife's names had already been carved on the gravestone. Therefore, their tragic fate is predetermined. Since there are just two names on the gravestone, Ethan's love with Mattie is doomed to be impossible and forbidden. Moreover, the wagging dead cucumber-vine displays Ethan's unstable life. He does not know what will happen, but he has to work and then die without any attention by others.

Spruce that witnesses both the romantic and tragic love is another important symbol. It leaves Ethan and Mattie a good memory when the two lovers are standing shoulder to shoulder and hope to stand there forever. It is under the spruce that Mattie does not reject Ethan for drawing her arm. But on the other hand, When Ethan sees Mattie off and they go by the spruce, it just looks on their separation indifferently. The chilly and sad atmosphere created by the tree arouses their pessimism and reminds them of the extreme way to get rid of the suffering from being separated. In short, all these typical images and symbols foretell the doomed fate of Ethan and his family.

III. CONCLUSION

To conclude, this paper focuses on tragic people, incidents and symbols in *Ethan Frome* to illustrate the naturalistic color of the novel. The protagonist is molded by Edith Wharton as a simple, soft-hearted and hardworking but unfortunate man. Throughout his life, he never stops his endeavor to improve his life and change his fate, but all his efforts are in vain. Three factors contribute to Ethan's tragedy. Family misfortune, poor economic condition and strict social morality stop Ethan from getting what he wishes for and deserves.

Firstly, ambitious and optimistic as Ethan is, his family's misfortune forces him to give up his ideals and shoulder on the responsibility at an early age. Deprived of parents' love and care, Ethan suffers solitude and anxiety and falls in a marriage without consideration of the ill consequence.

Secondly, no matter how carefully he manages the saw-mill and how hard he works on the lands, poverty always haunts the whole family and strengthens Ethan's physical and mental burden. Lacking money to remedy for his wife if he really deserts her, Ethan has to stay in Starkfield, continuing the tedious and loveless life. He is confined in the backward and isolated small town.

Thirdly, stiff social morality suppresses his forbidden love with Mattie and keeps him in bondage to a tragic marriage with Zeena. He could have chances to change his unfortunate life, but he chooses to surrender to social convention at last.

Fourthly, typical images and symbols in the environment Ethan lives in leave the readers great space to study the naturalistic color manifested in the novel. These images and symbols remind the readers of death, hopelessness and infertility. Ethan spends his whole life in the endless winter in Starkfield. There is no hope for him to enjoy spring in his life.

To conclude, an idea is conveyed in *Ethan Frome* that people's life is controlled by the law of environment rather than themselves. "Wharton's understanding of God is very similar to Darwin's theory, and they also point out that people's fate are controlled by a kind of mysterious and undefeated power" (Wang Beng & Yao Zhenjun, 2006, p.25). Shockingly pessimistic as the novel is, *Ethan Frome* earns popularity for the writer, because it is a vivid depiction of people's frustrated ideals and unfulfilled wishes and a realistic reflection of the deterministic influences of the economic and social factors. From the study above, the naturalistic color is obviously manifested in the protagonist's pessimistic personalities, doomed tragic marriage and images symbolizing death.

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Na Li was born in Zhenjiang, Jiangsu, China in 1982. She received her bachelor degree in linguistics from Guilin Industrial College China in 2006. She has been teaching English for 6 years in Watercraft College, Foreign Language Teaching Office Zhenjiang. Her research interests include English Linguistic and Literature Translation.

Explore the Relationship between Strategy Use and ESP Reading Test Performance of Two University Majors (Humanities vs. Science)

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Abstract—This paper focuses on exploring the relationship between strategy use and ESP reading test performance of two university majors (humanities VS. science). To fulfill the purpose of the study, 240 intermediate students were selected out of a population pool of 360 ESP students studying in three universities in Iran, Esfahan based on their performance on Oxford Placement Test. After 5 sessions of teaching and practicing 8 reading comprehension strategies for instance, summarizing, linking with prior knowledge or experience, a multiple choice reading comprehension test plus a cognitive and metacognitive questionnaire were given to experimental groups. Pearson product moment correlations and *t*-test was used. The results showed the positive effect of using strategy on ESP reading comprehension test performance. Regarding major, science groups outperformed humanities. The findings have significant implications for ESP learners, teachers and material developers.

Index Terms—reading strategies, strategy, cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, ESP

I. INTRODUCTION

Language learning strategies have received a particular attention since the late 1970s. Studies showed that L2 learning could be enhanced by selecting appropriate strategies. Hosseini Nezhad (2006) found that awareness of reading strategies of Iranian students had positive effect on their performance in reading test so the outcome of the research into the strategies used by successful language learners showed that teaching strategies during language learning lead to effective learning. Although their effectiveness depends on learners. Teng (1998) also found that teaching cognitive and metacognitive leaded to improvements in comprehension. Shoery and Mokhtari (2001) also stated that strategic awareness and monitoring of the comprehension are important for efficient reading. Cohen (1998) and Macaro (2001) found that, teachers can help better to students if they know what strategies students are using. Therefore, knowledge about what goes on in students' minds during reading is very essential for teachers.

There are many factors that are important in strategy choice like learner factors, situational and social factors, and academic factors. One of the academic factors is field study. Several studies that investigated the field of study or career orientation of EFL or L2 found that there were significant differences in language learning strategy choice and use among different majors like humanities, social sciences and education on the one hand and science and technical majors on the other hand. (Mochizuki, 1999; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Peacock, 2001; Peacock & Ho, 2003; Psaltou-Joycey & Kantaridou, 2011). The findings of another study by Oxford ,Nyiko and Ehrman (1988) also revealed that engineering students choose more analytic strategies than humanities, so by reviewing literature of the study it was concluded that there were not enough researches in regard to the relationship between reading comprehension test and application of strategies between different majors in Iran, and according to Noorzadeh (2005) most of the learning teaching activities are led by the teachers and students do not have the knowledge of strategy use. According to (Tuckman, 2003) learning strategies are more important for college students because educational tasks at the college level require powerful thinking and more self reliant learning. In addition, according to (Grabe and Stoller, 2001), educational reading requires developing strategic readers who are aware of their goals in reading and able to administer strategies effectively.

The present study first, intended to explore the relationship between ESP reading comprehension test performance and the application of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Furthermore to investigate whether there was significant difference between different university majors (humanities VS. science) in term of application of strategies in their reading comprehension test performance. So, this study was an attempt to investigate appropriate answers to the following questions:

1- Is there any significant relationship between ESP reading comprehension test performance and the application of cognitive and metacognitive strategies?

2- Is there any significant difference between different university majors (humanities VS. science) in reading comprehension test performance due to strategy use?

To investigate the above research questions, the following null hypotheses have been addressed:

H_{01}: There is no significant relationship between ESP reading comprehension test performance and the application of cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

H_{02}: There is no difference between different university majors (humanities VS. science) regarding their reading comprehension performance due to using strategies.

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

Two hundred forty male and female students aged 20-23 were screened out from among 360 ESP students from totally two majors , humanities and science in Iran, Esfahan through administering the OPT in order to choose the intermediate level. The selected participants in each major (i.e. humanities VS. Science) were randomly divided into four groups as shown in figure 1 and 2.
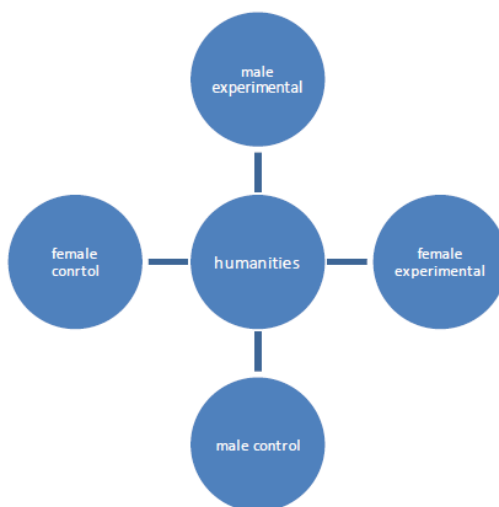
Figure 1 Humanities Groups Division
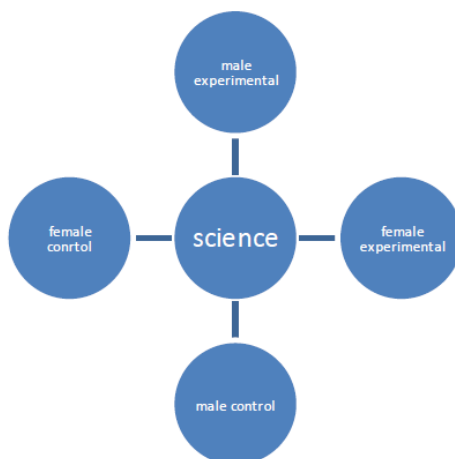
Figure 2 Science Groups Division

Materials

Several instruments were used in order to collect data. First, OPT was taken to choose the intermediate level of students. The second instrument was reading comprehension text that was according to the reading comprehension texts that were taught during the term in the class by their professor and 7 multiple choice questions related to it. Another instrument was cognitive and metacognitive questionnaire. In detail the questionnaire items in the study were similar to Purpura`s (1999), but modified to adjust a reading test.

Since, in pilot study the English form took a long time and caused problem for the participants in order to understand and complete it, the questionnaire was translated to Farsi in order to prevent misunderstanding. The questionnaire included 35 items, but items 1, 3, 10, 11, 12, 13, 34, 35 were excluded due to their low item correlation and relatively low alpha. The questionnaire used a 5 Likert scale: 1 (never) 2 (sometimes), 3 (often) 4 (usually) and 5(always). Table one presents a taxonomy of cognitive and metacognitive strategy questionnaire. Nine items were related to cognitive

strategies and eighteen items related to metacognitive strategies. Comprehending and retrieval related to cognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies included planning and monitoring. So, students use the items that were suitable to themselves when they were reading the text and answering the questions in order to indicate how they thought.

TABLE 1
A TAXONOMY OF THE COGNITIVE- METACOGNITIVE STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE

Processing		Subscale	Item used
1-	Cognitive	Comprehending	5, 2, 6, 7, 8, 9
		Retrieval	4, 20, 28
2-	Metacognitive	Planning	14, 16,18, 21, 22, 24,25,29, 31,32,33,
		Monitoring	15,17,19,23,26,27,30

Procedure

The OPT was administered to choose the intermediate students. Then they were divided into four groups in each major. Then the selected participants in experimental groups were taught 8 reading comprehension strategies with the help of teacher, but the participants in control group did not receive any treatment. After 5 sessions of classes , the test of multiple choice reading comprehension were given into both experimental groups with the cognitive and metacognitive strategy questionnaire.

III. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Pearson product moment correlations were conducted to simply investigate the relationship between strategies and the reading test performance. Table 2 reveals the results of the correlation analyses. It should be mentioned that the correlations for different groups were calculated separately so that the researcher could see if correlation exists for each group.

TABLE 2
THE RESULTS OF THE CORRELATION ANALYSIS

		Humanities-Male-Quest.	Humanities-Female-Quest.	Science-Male- Quest.	Science-Female-Quest.
Humanities-Male-Reading	Pearson Correlation	.431[*]			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.017			
	N	30			
Humanities-Female-Reading	Pearson Correlation		.589[**]		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001		
	N		30		
Science-Male-Reading	Pearson Correlation			.544[**]	
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.002	
	N			30	
Science-Female-Reading	Pearson Correlation				.377[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.040
	N				30

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to Table 2, there exist significant correlations for all groups (Humanities-male: r= .431, p= .017; Humanities-female: r= .589, p= .001; Science-male: r= .544, p= .002; Science-female: r= .377, p= .040). The Pearson product moment correlations revealed that there was significant relationship between reading comprehension test results and employing cognitive and metacognitive strategies in the test of reading. Therefore, the first hypothesis stating that, "there is no significant relationship between EFL reading comprehension test performance and the application of cognitive and metacognitive strategies" can also be rejected, and it can be claimed that there is a significant relationship between reading comprehension test results and employing cognitive and metacognitive strategies in the test of reading.

A *t*- test was employed to find out the differences between different university majors regarding their reading comprehension performance due to using strategies. The *t*-test results demonstrated that different university majors perform differently on the test of reading comprehension regarding employing reading strategies. Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics for this comparison, and Figure 3 presents the means graphically.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR HYPOTHESIS TWO

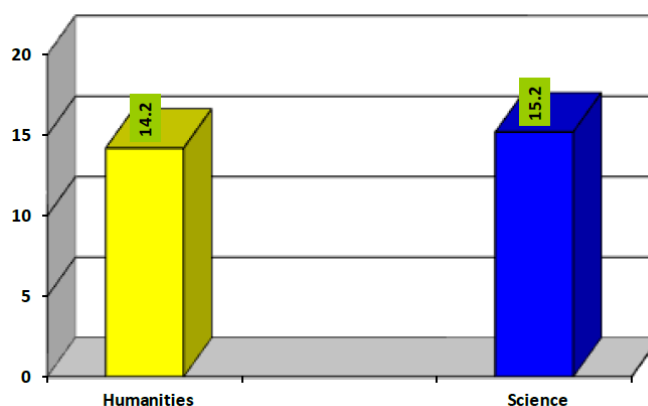| Group	N	Mean	SD	SEM
Humanities	60	14.20	2.516	.325
Science	60	15.20	2.517	.325

Figure 3 Graphical representation of the means for hypothesis two

The data in Table 3 reveals that there is some difference between the two means. In order to make sure that this difference is statistically significant, *t*-test was employed. Table 4 depicts the results of this *t*-test.

TABLE 4
THE RESULTS OF T-TEST FOR HYPOTHESIS TWO

t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference
-2.177	118	.032	-1.00

According to Table 4, the amount of t-observed (-2.177) is significant at the probability level of p= .032 which denotes a statistically significant amount. In other words, since t-observed is negative, it means that the participants in science group outperformed the participants in humanities group.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The correlational between reading comprehension scores and the results of the questionnaire for each group was significant .The participants in the experimental groups who were exposed to strategy instruction highly outperformed the control group who taught reading comprehension through traditional way (i.e. without teaching and practicing strategies).The selected participants were taught 8 reading comprehension   strategies for instance, previewing or over viewing tasks, evaluating their thought, making prediction, translating, summarizing, linking with prior knowledge or experience, applying grammar rules and guessing meaning from contexts in five sessions and every session thirty minutes with the help of their professor then practiced the strategy in the text of their reading comprehension. The researcher explicitly explained what a strategy is, and with the help of teacher modeling how to use it; students applying the strategy in the reading comprehension text. In a research conducted by McNawara et al. (2006), improving students' strategies critically led to a better reading comprehension, so in this study the researcher explained the reading strategies to experimental groups. Although because of time limitation the researcher requested the students in experimental group to apply the strategies autonomously in other contexts at home.

Therefore, the above mentioned results seem to reject the hypotheses of the study and they revealed that there was significant relationship between ESP reading comprehension test performance and the application of the cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Hosseini Nezhad, (2006); Malcome, (2009); Park, (2010); uzunmak, (2005); Zhang & Wu, (2009) also showed that high achievement in reading comprehension is correlated with the high use of reading strategies. Therefore, if teachers explicitly teach reading strategies, it would help students to perform good reading habits in order to success in academic reading.

The results of *t*-test indicated that participants in science group highly outperformed the participants in humanities group. Therefore, the second null hypothesis which stated that "there was no difference between different university majors regarding their reading comprehension performance due to using strategies" rejected, so it can be stated that different university majors perform differently on the test of reading comprehension regarding employing strategies. This is due to the findings of Nyikos and Ehrman(1988). They indicated that engineering students choose more analytic strategies than the humanities students do.

Another study (Peacock & Ho, 2003) that compared learners of eight disciplines (building and construction, business, computer studies, engineering, English, math, primary education, science), Learners of English demonstrated the highest frequency of strategy use, especially cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies.

There were several reasons for high performance of science groups in comparison to humanities.

The first one was that the science groups may be having more aptitude than humanities. The tendency factor will show a strong relationship with second language proficiency in monitored test situations and when conscious learning has been stressed in the classroom. Gardner (1960) concluded that aptitude is a necessary factor in the acquisition of second language learning skills .Carroll(1963) defined aptitude as degree of learning , i.e. Learners that have higher aptitude will learn faster than learner with lower aptitude. So besides age, ability seems to be the best predicator in adult

second, third, fourth language .Carroll (1962) believed that aptitude in foreign language refers to talent or a group of talents separated from intelligence. Oxford (1995) found that among individual differences, it is language aptitude that correlated most closely with foreign language performance.

Another reason was that maybe the science major had higher motivation, thus, they strived to do well. Motivation seems to have a very correlation with overall marks and marks in reading, writing and listening, but not as high in speaking. So, it can consider as one of the most significant predicator of overall performance in English as a foreign language. (Mounawar Al Sayed, 2003). Gardner and Lambert (1972) reported that aptitude and motivation have a great influence on second language acquisition. Burstall, et al. (1974), Backman (1976), and others have implied that high achievement causes positive manner and high motivation, while the Gardner (1985) model explicitly suggests correspondence between these variables.

Another reason, maybe related to the left hemisphere that is related to the language, logical, and rational facts and the science students mostly use the left hemisphere of the brain and they analyses the facts better than humanities.

Another related to multiple intelligence (MI) that focuses on differences between learners and the need to recognize learner differences in teaching. MI is based on the work of Gardner.

Gardner (1985) posits eight native intelligences as follows:
1- Linguistics
2- Logical/mathematical
3- Spatial
4- Musical
5- Bodily/kinesthetic
6- Interpersonal
7- Intrapersonal
8- Naturalist

Engineers have the logical, mathematical intelligence, so their ability in thinking rationally is stronger in comparison to the humanities major.

The people who use their left hemisphere more can understand text better, they also can analyses things and their rational, science, and mathematics are better so maybe because of these reasons the science groups performed better in their reading comprehension test performance because they maybe use the strategies effectively and understand the text more. They also noticed the details more, because the other groups (humanities) paid attention to general facts and did not apply strategies in detail to help them understand the text better.

Another reason may be related to the nature of the books. The natures of science books were different from humanities.

In conclusion, the purpose of this research was to explore the relationship between cognitive and metacognitive strategies use and reading comprehension test of two university majors. The study was implemented across three universities between two university majors (humanities VS. science). There was an important relationship between the results of reading comprehension test and employing cognitive and metacognitive strategies in the test of reading. Moreover, science groups performed better than humanities in their reading comprehension performance, so it can be stated that if ESP teachers embed strategies into everyday class activities it encourages students to use strategies in order to increase their comprehension .So, this study may have some hints for English teacher and ESP learners. It would also have some implications for material developers in order to understand the learner's need and make English language learning more learner centered.

V. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study investigated the cognitive and metacognitive strategies which were used by intermediate students across totally two majors (science V.S. Humanities).The results of the study showed the positive effect of strategies on reading comprehension test performance of ESP learners.

This study, according to the obtained results, may have some hints for English teachers who might, for sure, pay attention to teaching strategies and practicing during reading comprehension. Since it is highly recommended that L2 teachers and material developers understand L2 learning needs of different individual learners (Hutchinson & Waters,1987); EFL and specially ESP classroom teachers and material developers should know their learners language learning process in order to understand their students learning needs and make English language learning more individualized and learner centered. Teachers should know that applying strategies by learners would improve their reading comprehension. So it persuades ESP classroom teachers to understand their students need and make the class more learner centered instead of just teach according to the traditional ways like read the text, explain and translate it. The findings of this study will encourage teachers of EFL in ESP classes to the explicit teaching of reading strategies in order to help students promote reading strategies and design good reading manners. Although learning strategies help to develop learning, but it's better to use eclectically, in conjunction with other techniques, Griffiths (2001). The suggested point also for teachers in school and language centers and institutes is that they change the way they teach and assess the students and move toward a more learner-oriented method or approach.

The findings of this study would also have implications for ESP learners in that they would be informed about their English reading strategic processes; increase their confidence and enables them to self–regulate their own learning (Winograde, 1990). It also encourages students that in order to succeed in academic reading, it's necessary that they get familiar with reading strategies, however according to some researchers like cohen (2003, 2007), Grable (2004), Hdwine, Winne, stockley, Nisbit, Woszczyne (2001), Paris (2002) and Zhang (2003) strategies are not absolutely good or bad but it depends on the learners in order to use strategies powerfully or uselessly in different situations.

The other implication is for EFL learning program in order that the ESP books and materials should developed base on strategy training and learners should have a more active role in their learning process.

VI. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study intended to explore the relationship between ESP reading test performance and cognitive and metacognitive strategy use. It was done between two majors (i.e. humanities and engineering science).

The following are some tentative suggestions for future research:

1- The researcher collected data from two university majors, therefore subsequent research could be done with participants from other fields of study.

2-The researcher considered cognitive and metacognitive strategies which is not enough; therefore the future research could consider the effect of other strategies on reading comprehension test.

3-The same study could be done in order to collect the data through triangulation in order to gain more valid results.

APPENDIX A

پرسشنامه استراتژیهای شناختی و فرا شناختی

اسم و فامیل:------------

سن : ....   جنسیت مونث ⃝ مذکر ⃝   تاریخ:.............

یکسری از عبارات که افراد جهت توضیح افکارشان زمانییکه در حال انجام تستی که به انها داده شده درادامه داده شده است. هر عبارت را بخوانید وافکارتان را در حال انجام دادن تست بیان کنید.

گزینه 1(هرگز) ، 2(گاهی اوقات) ،3(اغلب)،4(معمولا)،5(همیشه) انتخاب کنید.

1	2	3	4	5	فکر شما
1	2	3	4	5	1-از نکات مهم یادداشت برداری(نکته برداری) کردم یا زیر نکات مهم در حین تست می کشیدم.
1	2	3	4	5	2- متن وسوالات را به فارسی ترجمه می کردم.
1	2	3	4	5	3-از تصاویر و عنوانها جهت کمک به درک متن و سوالات استفاده می نمودم.
1	2	3	4	5	4- از نکات گرامری که یاد گرفته بودم برای درک متن استفاده می کردم.
1	2	3	4	5	5- برای سوالات مهم زمان بیشتری صرف می کردم.
1	2	3	4	5	6- متن و سوالات را سعی می کردم بدون توجه به دامنه لغاتم بفهم.
1	2	3	4	5	7- عنوان اصلی و هدف اصلی از متن را با خواندن سریع از روی متن ویکبار با دقیق خواندن متن درک می کردم.
1	2	3	4	5	8- متن و سوالات را چندین بار خواندم تا متوجه شوم.
1	2	3	4	5	9- از دانسته های قبلی برای فهم سوالات درک مطلب استفاده نمودم.
	1	2	3	4	5	10- محتوای سوالاتی که مشکل بود و همچنین سوالات آسان را مشخص می کردم.
1	2	3	4	5	11- نمره هر قسمت را قبل از کامل کردن سوالات بررسی نمودم.
1	2	3	4	5	12- قسمتهای مهمتر که نیاز به توجه بیشتری داشت را قبل از جواب دادن به سوالات بررسی می کردم.
1	2	3	4	5	13- زمانی که شروع به کامل کردن سوالات نمودم جهت انجام سوالات برنامه ریزی نمودم سپس طبق برنامه عمل کردم
1	2	3	4	5	14-در حین انجتم تست از چگونگی و نحوه انجام کار اگاه بودم.
1	2	3	4	5	15- انجام کار و پیشرفت تست را در حین کامل کردن بررسی می نمودم.
1	2	3	4	5	16- سعی کردم نکات مهم از متن و سوالات را مشخص کنم.
1	2	3	4	5	17- به معانی سوالات چند گزینه ای و سوالات دیگر بل از پاسخ دادن فکر می کردم.
1	2	3	4	5	18- از نوع استراتزیهاچگونگی وزمان استفاده آن آگاه بودم.
1	2	3	4	5	19- اگر جواب اشتباهی پیدا می کردم سریع آنرا تصحیح می نمودم.
1	2	3	4	5	20- از خودم می پرسیدم که چطور سوالات و متن به دانسته های قبلی من ارتباط پیدا میکند.
1	2	3	4	5	21-آنچه را که لازم بود در حین انجام سوالات انجام دهم را مشخص می کردم.
1	2	3	4	5	222- از اینکه نیاز است برای روند کار برنامه ریزی شود اگاهی داشتم.
1	2	3	4	5	23- از تعداد سوالاتی که هنوز کامل نکرده بودم اطلاع داشتم .
1	2	3	4	5	24- سعی می کردم سوالات را به قدر کافی قبل از اینکه سعی در پیدا کردن جواب کنم بفهم(یعنی اول سوال را خوب متوجه شوم بعد به ان جواب دهم.
1	2	3	4	5	25. کاملا مطمئن می شدم که انچه باید انجام دهم و چگونگی انجام انرا درست متوجه شده ام.
1	2	3	4	5	26- از فرایند فکر کردن اگاهی کافی داشتم.
1	2	3	4	5	27- به مسیر پیشرفت کار برای اینکه سوالات را سر وقت کامل کنم توجه داشتم.
1	2	3	4	5	28- از چندین استراتزی فکری کمک گرفتم تا سوالات را جواب دهم.
1	2	3	4	5	29- مطمئن شدم که هدف را خوب فهمیدم و می دانم که چطوری آنرا کامل کنم.
1	2	3	4	5	30- از استراتزیهایی که انتخاب کرده بودم اگاه هستم که مرا در کامل کردن سوالات قبل از حل ان کمک میکند.
1	2	3	4	5	31- در حین جواب دادن به سوالات دقیق بودن پاسخ را چک میکردم.
1	2	3	4	5	32- اطلاعات مرتبط را بهگونه ای انتخاب می کردم که جهت فهم متن . جواب به سوالات بهمن کمک می کرد.
1	2	3	4	5	33- نحوه حل کردن سوالات را دقیقا براورد می نمودم.
1	2	3	4	5	34- قبل از تحویل دادن سوالات جوابهایم را کاملا دقیق چک کردم.
1	2	3	4	5	35- در مورد اینکه چطوری سوالات را کامل کنم فکر کردم.

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A Contrastive Study of Time as Space Metaphor in English and Chinese[*]

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Abstract—**Time is an abstract concept which is invisible and intangible. The cognitive linguistics holds that the temporal concept is originally projected through the spatial concept. In the spatial temporal metaphor aspect, the traditional cognitions and theories are based on dynamic mode with facing the future: the time moving metaphor and the ego moving metaphor. Such cognition is generalized and not exact enough, unable to explain many English and Chinese temporal metaphors. Therefore, based on this problem, according to the cognition to the spatial position and the different visions of the observer, on the one hand a supplement is made to analyze the identifications and differences in English and Chinese temporal metaphors at the horizontal level with the static spatial-temporal mode in which the observer facing the past; on the other hand at the vertical level the spatial temporal metaphors are expounded with different observation points and the observer's states.**

Index Terms—**a contrastive study of English and Chinese, time, space metaphor**

I. INTRODUCTION

Time is an abstract concept which is invisible and intangible. The cognitive linguistics holds that the temporal concept is originally projected through the spatial concept. Therefore, in comparative studies on English and Chinese temporal metaphors, the aspect with most importance is the 'spatial-temporal metaphor'. A great many papers are specialized to focus on this field. For example, Chen (2007) studies the similarities and differences of English and Chinese temporal metaphors on the basis of Lakoff's "time passing is motion" and analyzes it at both the horizontal level and the vertical level. Zhen (2009) researches two classical metaphorical ways-"time is moving" and "ego is moving", as well as the metaphors with the reference point of time and that of the observer. Nearly all of these researches followed Lakoff and Johnson's standpoint that "time passing is moving" and adapt it into the comparative study of English and Chinese temporal metaphors, but these spatial cognitions to the temporal map are not exact and clear enough, especially unable to explain a lot of Chinese linguistic phenomena. For example, most of the analyses explain the "ego-moving" spatial metaphor as a situation that time is an immovable and measurable space and the observer is movable from the past to the present forward the future, and the observer is facing the future. But this metaphorical type is too obscure and generalized, unable to explain clearly the spatial logic of language like the Chinese saying 前无古人，后无来者("unprecedented in history, unsurpassable for posterity"). There are also different opinions. For example, Zheng (2009) in *A Study of Time as Space Metaphor in English and Chinese* explains it with Núñez's (2006) time as the reference point metaphor. This metaphoric way sees the time passing as an axis with 'back' and 'front'. Here the earlier time is in the front and the later time is at the back. However, such an explanation ignores the existence of the observer and diverges from people's cognitive foundation in languages. Also it does not give out a clear time reference point. Moreover, it is confusing to include the "time is moving" and "ego is moving" in the observer as the reference point metaphor. In terms of the spatial vertical level, the analyses are simple and superficial, without elaborate expounds. For example, Chen (2007) in *A Comparative Study of English and Chinese Temporal Spatial metaphors* only explains the opposite situations with "unknown is up" and "known is down" in English and "unknown is down" and "known is up" in Chinese, losing the sight of similar cognitive situations in the two languages. In fact the circumstances are much more complicated. Therefore, this research would give out a rigorous perspective to study the spatial-temporal metaphor cognitions at both horizontal level and vertical level.

II. HORIZONTAL LEVEL: 'BACK' AND 'FRONT' TEMPORAL LOCATION

According to Lakoff's classical metaphorical cognition, there are two types: "time moving metaphor" and "ego moving metaphor". However, the division is not exact enough to analyze the spatial temporal concept exhaustively in the light of the cognition to spatial positions of the observer. For quite some time, in most cultures all over the world, modes for constructing temporal concepts are perceived from the spatial perspective, which are principally reflected as linear, cyclicity and helicity. Time is conceptualized as the general metaphor "Time Passing is Motion". In the linear mode, time is only in one dimension, moving from the past to the present and towards the future, or vice versa. In the

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cyclicity mode, time is obviously in two dimensions, taking shape a circle, along which one can moves forward the past. In the helicity mode, time moves to three directions-'up' and 'down', 'back' and 'front', 'right' and 'left' at the same time in three dimensions. In temporal metaphors with spatial concepts in English and Chinese, the spatial orientations lay at two levels: the horizontal level and the vertical level.

1. Dynamic Spatial Temporal Metaphor Concept

According to the two basic types of temporal metaphor, which are 'time is the mover' (Time moving metaphor) and 'time is the container' (ego moving metaphor) (Lakoff,   1993, P.98), the linear movement at the spatial horizontal level produces the temporal cognition of 'back' and 'front'. Because 'back' and 'front' observe the principle of structural invariance while being projected from the spatial domain to the temporal domain, we would observe the cognitive tactics of 'back' and 'front' in spatial perspective naturally when we make a choice to the tactics of temporal cognition. Such cognition has two reference systems, which are subject reference and object reference, consequently the denotations of 'back' and 'front' of time are different. (Lakoff & Johnson, 1999)

In terms of the property of unremittance of time, time is compared with mobile object at a finite speed permanently. The observer is comparatively static and the future is moving towards us, which refers 'time moving'. In this temporal spatial mode, the observer stands still and faces the coming time; time travels to the observer in the direction from the future to the past. There are back and front positions around the observer along the movement line. In order to understand the concept more explicitly, a scene is assumed in Figure1 that the observer is looking towards the future and watching the object coming up to him. At this moment, the observer would perceive that Object 2 is in front of Object 1; Object 4 is in front of Object 3 and the like; Object 5 is in front of Object 4. As the spatial concept in the source domain projects into the temporal concept in the target domain, Object 4 and Object 5 which represent the future are in front of Object 3 which represents the presence, and Object 3 is in front of Object 1 and Object 2 which represent the past.
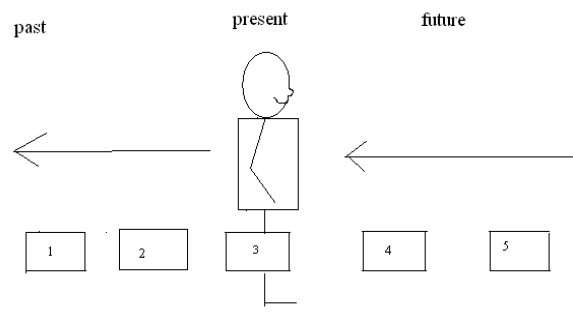
Notes: 1 refers to Object 1
2 refers to Object 2
3 refers to Object 3
4 refers to Object 4
5 refers to Object 5
Figure 1 Time is Moving and the Observer is Static Facing the Future

The 'time moving metaphors' are found abundantly and commonly both in English and Chinese, including a great many verbs and prepositions. In English, words like *come, ago, after, before* and *past*, reflect the temporal concepts in the spatial domain. For instance, in the sentence *The Christmas day is coming to us .*, the time on the Christmas day in the future is conceptualized as the moving thing corporeal, which is traveling towards "us" but has not arrived yet. In the sentence *Because although time passed by minute and second, the sentiments of loving you grow with each passing days.* , the observer "I" stands still and the time is passing over "me". Other similar examples with verbs conceiving temporal metaphors like *The spring arrived earlier.* and *With the passing of time, everything changed.* In Chinese, there are numerous words on time organized by the character 来("come"), for example, 来世("afterdeath"), 来生("the other life") and 来日("days ahead"), which represent the time in the future. Here, 'the future time' is taken as things in the process of walking to the stationary observer. The character 往("go") represents the past time, which is reflected in temporal words like 往事("past events"), 以往("in the past") and 往年("former years"). Common expressions like 考试即将来临("the examination is coming"), 时过境迁("circumstances change with the passage of time"), 时来运转("the luck has turned in one's favor"), 时间飞逝 ("time flies"), which embodies fully the characteristics that 'time is moving' and 'ego is static'.

Secondly, as every time quantum has its starting point and ending point, the observer can move during the limited time quantum, just like in a closed container. According to the spatial temporal metaphor, we take time as an immovable container. At this time the observer is moving from the position projected by the past time to the position projected by the present time till the position projected by the future time. In another word, it is the 'ego moving' metaphor(see

Figure 2).
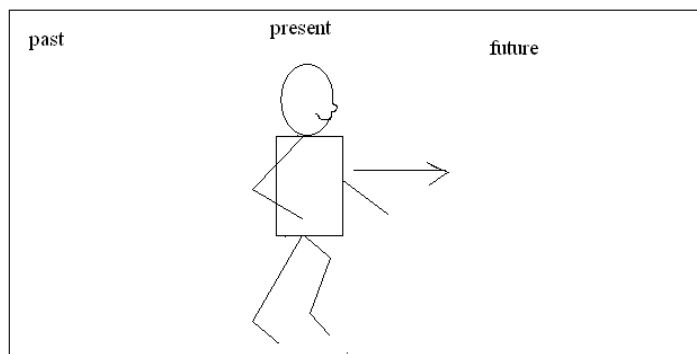
Figure 2 Time is a Stationary Container and the Observer is Moving Facing the Future

In the temporal concept of 'ego moving metaphor', time is seen as a fixed space and is conceptualized as a limited zone. The observer would finish walking the distance across this domain and go forward the further future. He is facing the future, crossing the space in the direction from the past to the present and to the future. Hence, 'ego moving metaphor' is also named as the 'time's landscape metaphor'.

In English there are plenty of 'ego moving metaphors' indicating 'future', such as *get close*, c*ome up on* and *look back*. For example, in the sentence *We have left the gloomy yesterday and are walking towards the bright tomorrow.* Here the time "yesterday" and "tomorrow" are motionless like the background and the observer "we" travels over the past time point towards the future time point till arriving. Taking another example, in the sentence *We are coming up on the Thanksgiving Day. ,* "Thanksgiving Day" is a future time point in the place ahead the observer and the observer "we" is moving towards this time point.

Such similar expressions are ample in Chinese, too. For example, those daily used sayings like 历程 ("course") and 路程 ("journey") reflect that the observer walks over the corridors of time, which shows the state of 'ego moving and time still'. For example, in the sentence 亚洲各国要将一个友好合作的关系带入一个新的纪元。("The Ancient countries will bring a friendly cooperative relationship into a new era."), the observer "Asian countries" is active and will take the friendly relationship and advance towards the stationary "new era". Other frequently-used proverbs with the 'ego moving metaphors' in Chinese such as 人到中年 ("a person reaches middle age"), 过春节 ("spend Spring Festival").

2. Static Spatial Temporal Metaphor Concept

The static spatial-temporal metaphor concept that faces the past time can be represented as that both the observer and the time are in motionless state. The observer faces the past and turns back to the future. If the location of the observer is the present, this position point is in coincidence with the reference point. The two points can be also separated from each other with the specified reference time point. The point relatively near the observer is referred to the 'front' position and the point relatively far from the 'observer' is referred to the 'back' position, which can be shown in Figure 3.
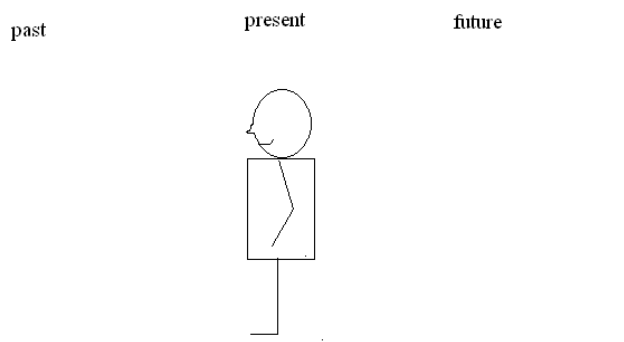
Figure3 Time is Stationary and the Observer is Stationary Facing the Past

Therefore, 'front' is semantically transformed into 'the earlier time' and 'back' is semantically transformed into 'the

later time'. It can be further divided into four sub-varieties.

First, the observer faces the past and against off the 'future' and the 'present' position corresponds with the temporal reference point. For example, in English, there are expressions like *the day before*, *four years ago*, *three minutes ago*; *here after, after 3 years*. In "*four years ago*", the observer stands on the position point 'present' and the 'target' time is in front of the observer with a distance of 'four years'. "*Here after*" takes the position "here" as the reference point and represents the time at the back of the observer. In Chinese there are expressions like 两周前 ("two weeks age"), 以前 ("before"), 从前 ("once upon a time"), 前天 ("the day before yesterday"), 前年 ("the year before last year"), 日前 ("the other day"); 3 年后 ("three years later"), 以后 ("afterwards"), 今后 ("from now on"), 后患 ("future trouble"), 后市("aftermarket"), 后事 ("arrangement for a funeral"). The word "日前" refers to the time earlier than today and "前天" refers to the time before the day before tomorrow; "后市" refers to the stock transaction in the time after today and "后事" refers to the business that has to be dealt with after death.

Second, the observer faces the past and sees two different time intervals. He defines the relatively farther time interval as the earlier period and the nearer time interval as the later period. The two time periods take each other as the time reference. The reference time point can be consistent with the observer's position, too. For example, in Chinese, there are expressions like 前任("predecessor"), 前妻("ex-wife"), 前科("criminal record"), 前辈("the senior"), 前生 ("prolife"); 后任 ("successor"), 后劲 ("aftereffect"), 后辈 ("juniors"), 后记 ("postscript"), 后生 ("after born"). In Buddhism, "前生" refers to the body in the life in the previous existence ; "后劲" refers to the effect after drinking the wine, in which the time while drinking is seen as the earlier period and the time after that is seen as the later period. There are also a great many idioms with the similar cognition like 史无前例("unprecedented in history"), 前车之鉴 ("warning taken from the overturned cart in front"), 革命老前辈("a veteran of the revolution"),前功尽弃 ("waste all the previous efforts"), 前所未有("such as never previously existed"), 空前绝后 ("surpass the past and future"), 前无古人,后无来者 ("A record that has never been approached and will never be approached again"); 后起之秀("a promising youth"), 后继有人("have qualified successors"), 后会有期("There will be time for us to meet again") in Chinese.

Third, the observer faces the past and sees a temporal reference point specified in language. The father point is taken as the front side and the nearer point is taken as the back side. The time reference is often in the past time and can be inferred to the future time. For example, in English, there are expressions like *the day before yesterday*, *before I entered this school*; *before tomorrow's meeting*; *the day after tomorrow*, *after she finished work*, *after she comes back the next year*. The phrase *before I entered this school* means the time when "I" had not but would enter the school. "The day when 'I' entered the school" is the reference time point, which is inconsistent with the present time, and the signified time is in front of the reference point as to the observer. In the phrase "*after she finished work*", the time that she finished work is specified as the reference point. Besides, there are words and affixes in English for representing this cognitive mode, like *former, previous*, *ex-*, *pre-*, *post* and so on.

In Chinese, there are expressions like 昨天午饭后("after lunch yesterday"), 明天考试后("after tomorrow's examination"). There are several representations that are derived from this cognitive mode, like 后工业化 ("post-industry") refers to a society no longer relying on heavy industry after the industrial revolution in 18th century; 填迟 ("post-date") refers to a date fixed on a check that is later than the actual cashed date; 前科学("prescience") and 前资本主义("precaptalism") which refers to the period that before the appearance of science and capitalism respectively;

Fourth, the observer faces the past without clear standing location. He sees a time interval and divides it into two parts. The father part from him is taken as the front side and the nearer part is taken as the back side. The two parts take references with each other. For example, in Chinese, there are expressions like 前半夜("the first half of the night"), 前半生("the first half of one's life"), 战前("prewar"), 前秦("the Earlier Qin Regime"), which are corresponding with 后半夜("latter half of the night"), 后半生("afterlife"), 战后("afterwar"), 后秦("the Later Qin Regime"). It is important to note that in Chinese, some temporal words with this metaphoric type are projected into the spatial directions on account of historic events. For instances, 南宋("the Southern Song Dynasty") and 北宋("the Northern Song Dynasty"), 西汉("the Western Han Dynasty") and 东汉("the Eastern Han Dynasty"). The movements of the capitals for the changes of regime in historical evolution lead to settlement of the directional cognition to the specified dynasties.

From the above analysis, we can see that the 'static spatial temporal metaphor concept' is both shared by in English and Chinese language, but it is more obvious in Chinese than in English, as we can see that certain metaphor modes are absent in English.

English and Chinese share the same metaphorical concept that 'time is space' both in dynamic cognitive mode and static cognitive mode. The events in the past are often settled and cannot be changed, so their temporal orders are referred by spatial metaphors. The future and the events in the future are indeterminate and mutable, so their temporal orders are referred by substantial metaphors. The spatial metaphor is the foundation of various temporal metaphors in English and Chinese languages for they have identical essence of spatial cognition and perception. Nevertheless, when reflected in specific language expressions, the two differ in thousands of ways.

3. Distinctions of Temporal Metaphor Representations at Horizontal Level

First, at the horizontal static spatial level, Chinese is inclined to use the static spatial-temporal metaphor with facing the past to cognize the temporal order, while English is inclined to use specialized temporal words and ordinal numerals, or use the dynamic spatial-temporal cognition with facing to the future. For example, 今后的三年 is with the corresponding English version *in the next three years*; 后患 and 后福 are with *the future trouble* and *future blessing* respectively; 今后的生活 is with the English version *the life ahead*; 好戏还在后头呢 is with *the interesting part is yet to come*. 丑话说在前头 is with *I would like to be strait firstly*.

The static spatial-temporal metaphor with facing the past can be tinted with dynamic quality in Chinese, which cannot be found in English. For example, the Chinese temporal adverbial 十年以来 is with the corresponding English version *in the last ten years* in which the temporal concept is represented with static preposition. Similar expressions are like 时至今日 is with *even today*; 前年以来 is with *since the year before last year*. In the Chinese expression 从今往后, it is in the static spatial- temporal metaphor with facing the past while in corresponding English translation *from now on*, it is in the dynamic spatial- temporal metaphor with facing the future.

In Chinese, '前' ("front") and '后' ("back") represent two cognitive modes that are 'the mode with facing the future' and 'the mode with facing the past'. However, the static cognitive mode with facing the past is more frequently employed in Chinese. '前' ("front") and '后' ("back") can be combined with a great many other characters to be used as nouns, adjectives, adverbs and prepositions. While in English, 'before' and 'after' only can be used as prepositions, but some affixes can refer to the temporal concepts as discussed above like *precedent, ex-wife*. For example, the Chinese versions 一周前，四点后，早餐后 are in correspondence with *a week ago*, *before four*, *after breakfast*.

While representing events that would happen in the future time, the dynamic 'ego moving' temporal metaphors are more likely to be adopted in English to form the metaphorical concept of spatial position 'future in the front' and 'past at the back' as the principal thing. In contrast, Chinese tend to employ the static metaphor system with concepts of 'past in the front' and 'future at the back' while representing temporal scope through spatial scope. For example, the English sentence: *we are getting ahead of the part.* has the corresponding Chinese translation that 我们要说到这一部分的后面去了。. Another example is the English expression *the last news*, with the corresponding Chinese expression 最近的新闻, instead of 最后的新闻. The sentence *The story dates back to two hundred years.* has the Chinese translation 故事发生在两百年前.

Second, the preposition system for indicating spatial positions is very strong in English, but in Chinese it is relatively week. Quirk (1985) considers that when as prepositions of time, 'at', 'on' and 'in' are used in a way as equal as when they used as prepositions of place. Wang (2001) thinks the above discussed prepositions are indicating spatial positions-"spot", "surface" and "body". When they transform into representing time or abstract thoughts, they adhere to the projection regulation in the system of "spot", "surface" and "body".

For example, 'at' refers to the small spot in one dimension while representing position, and it refers to an extremely short time while representing time or time interval, like in expressions: *at 6 o'clock*, *at the age of 10* and *at a strike*.

While 'on' refers to the location of the surface of the object in two dimensions while representing position, and it refers to a certain time point within a time interval or the close contact between two time points, for instance, *My birthday is on June 12th.* ; *On entering into the bedroom, he began to cry.*; *on the morning of March 25th*.

The preposition 'in' refers to the location inside a cube in three dimensions while representing time, and refers to a period of time or a process while representing time, for example, *in the morning*, *in the evening*, *in taking the bus*.

There are many other temporal prepositions in English are transformed from spatial concepts. For example 'around' and 'about' signify the ambiguous meaning of 'around a certain range' temporally and spatially; 'between...and' and 'from...to' refer to the extension from the starting point to the finishing point. 'Over' refers to spanning in distance and time; 'through' and 'throughout' refer to running through the space and time (Zhang & Ding, 2003). To be noticed, these prepositions are employed with clear distinguishment for indicating position and time, with each performing its own functions.

Contrarily, the Chinese prepositions of time, though are transformed from the spatial concepts, are not as accurate in semantics and as regulative in realization of lexical items as English prepositions of time, like '在' and '于'. Therefore, the semantic motivation in English prepositions of time is much obvious than that in Chinese prepositions. This is also a proof for the common standpoint that English language is explicit while Chinese language is implicit.

Third, English verbs 'come' and 'go' are in correspondence with Chinese verbs 来 and 去. In Chinese, words for expressing time made up by 来 and 去 are too numerous to enumerate, such as 来年("the next year"), 来日("days ahead"), 将来("future"); 去("last year"), 去春("last spring"). Furthermore, in Chinese words indicating dimensional orientation and words indicating temporal mapping have a fuzzy boundary in usage. The temporal meanings and spatial meanings co-conceive in most of the words, for example, '前' ("front") and '后' ("back") not only signify the spatial location, but also the temporal mapping. While in English, except a minority of phrases with 'coming' as modifiers like *the coming weekend* and *the coming day*, words 'come' and 'go' do not basically have such a function. There are words used especially for signifying special time, for instance, 'last', 'next' and 'past'. Although these words are extended from the spatial domain in meanings, they only can be used for temporal representations. This is because Chinese is a

language at the morphonemic level and monosyllabic characters have a strong potential to build words. For example, '来' and '去' are able to combine with other characters to form various nouns and adverbs. However, 'come' and 'go' in English cannot be used as verbs.

III.   VERTICAL LEVEL: 'UP' AND 'DOWN' TEMPORAL LOCATION

The analysis of the distinctions in English and Chinese temporal metaphors above is on representing spatial temporal metaphors at the horizontal level. There is also the metaphorical way that the vertical spatial movement is projected into the temporal mapping. In Chinese, the signifying rule is 'known for up' and 'unknown for down'. The metaphor value divides the space and time domain into halves. For example, the spatial word '上' ("up") indicates the earlier time and '下' ("down") indicates the later time, such as 上半年 ("first half year"), 上辈子 ("past life"), 上午 ("forenoon"), 上周 ("last week"); 下半年 ("second half"), 下辈子 ("the next life"), 下午 ("afternoon"), 下周 ("next week"). Other temporal words like '高' ("high"), '低' ("low"), '头' ("head"), '尾' ("end") which make up 高寿 ("longevity"), 低龄 ("young"), 年头 ("the beginning of the year"), 年尾 ("the end of the year"). This type of relation is reflected in Figure 4:
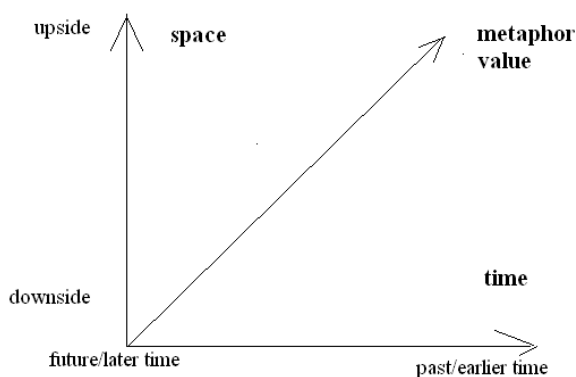
Figure 4 The Temporal Relation in the Lateral Order and Vertical Order in Chinese- 'Known for Up' and 'Unknown for Down'

It is supposed that the production of this kind of metaphor is related with the motion of sun, which means that the sun rises from the horizon in the morning, reaches the highest point at noon, so 上午 ("forenoon") represents the earlier time from that; when the sun begins to set in the afternoon till below the landline in the evening, the word 下午 ("afternoon") comes out (Lan, 1999). The temporal expressions "上午" and "下午" show that Chinese projects the higher and lower positions in space into the temporal mapping, with the past time in the higher place and the future time in the lower place.

By comparison, in English, there are two situations.

First, the spatial position 'up' stands for the future and 'down' stands for the past with 'unknown for up' and 'known for down'. (see Figure 5) For example, *Up to the end of last week, we had learned 8 units.* ; *Up to next month, we will have finished the project.* . In Chinese, such a temporal metaphor concept can hardly be found.

Figure5 The Temporal Relation in the Lateral Order and Vertical Order in EnglishI- 'Unknown for up' and 'Known for Down'

Second, identical with the Chinese, there is a rare spatial-temporal metaphor at vertical level, in which the spatial position 'up' stands for the past and 'down' stands for the future. For example, word *ascendant* (先祖) for older people and *descendant* (后代) for younger people in family trees.

Situations analyzed above in English and Chinese are both in static aspect. As we can see that the static temporal metaphors on vertical space are comparatively rich in Chinese but infertile in English. However, there is another vertical spatial temporal mode in dynamic aspect in English, which is abundant in verb constructions with prepositions 'up' and 'down'. Here, the observer places himself over 'the future' and 'the past' (Radden & Cuycken, 2003). When 'future' is in the downside, it is able to go upside to the position of the observer (see Figure 6).
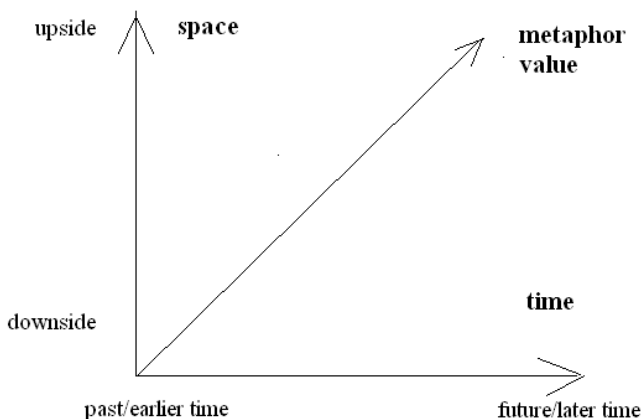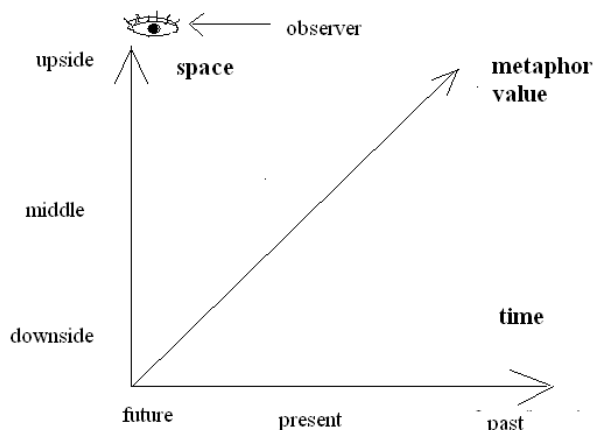

Figure6 The Temporal Relation in the Lateral Order and Vertical Order in EnglishII- 'Known for Up' and 'Unknown for Down'

For example, *The Christmas day is coming up.* (圣诞节即将到来) The future time point "Christmas day" is traveling from the downside to the upside from the visual angle of the observer. *This story went down in a family history.* (这个故事在家族史中流传了下来) Here, "the story" is moving from the past time in the upside when the story came out towards the downside of the present time. Other example sentences like: *The pearl has come down from my grandma.* ; *The festival can be traced up to 500 years ago.* . However, prepositions related with concepts of 'up' and 'down' in English are in a very small quantity. The commonly used words are only *up to* and *down to*, but they are seldom utilized for indicating temporal concepts. Furthermore, there is expression-*down through the ages*, but there is no *up through the past* in English; and there is *Descent of Man*, but no *Ascent of Apes*. In Chinese, there are also several dynamic examples like 往上说("recall the past"), 传下来("hand down"), but they are not used as frequently as those in English.

To sum up, at the vertical level, dynamic spatial-temporal metaphors are much ampler than static spatial-temporal metaphors in English, while static spatial-temporal metaphors are much richer than dynamic spatial-temporal metaphors in Chinese. The temporal concepts expressed by horizontal spatial concepts play a dominant role in English language and the ways for signifying time through vertical dimensions are only a few to count.

IV.   CONCLUSION

Although 'spatial-temporal' metaphors are shared by both English and Chinese, but with the influence of language and culture, the metaphor representations show distinctions in directions and structures, which affect the cognitive way to the time or people. The above analysis has a comparison of the concepts and connotations of the English and Chinese temporal metaphors in dynamic spatial-temporal metaphor mode and static spatial-temporal metaphor mode. The result reflects that at the spatial horizontal level, English has a high frequency to use the dynamic spatial-temporal metaphors with facing the future, including the "ego moving metaphors" and "time moving metaphors", while in Chinese, the "time moving metaphors" are more commonly used than the "ego moving metaphors", but the static spatial-temporal metaphors with facing the past are more frequently used than the dynamic spatial-temporal metaphor mode. While at the vertical level, dynamic spatial-temporal metaphors are much ampler than static spatial-temporal metaphors in English, while static spatial-temporal metaphors are much richer than dynamic spatial-temporal metaphors in Chinese.

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Reconsidering the End-point Approach: (A)telicity and (Un)boundedness Distinction

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Abstract—**The present paper is a discussion of the end-point approach to event-types such as activities and accomplishments. Due to the fact that activities and accomplishments have been grouped into different categories such as events, situations, actions etc., no particular category will be favoured and there can be reference to all of them. In essence, the notion of the *end-point approach* aims at defining telicity in terms of temporal properties of situations, namely, their (reaching of) a temporal limit or end-point.**

Index Terms—**end-point approach, telicity, boundedness**

I. INTRODUCTION

The present paper is a discussion of the end-point approach to event-types such as activities and accomplishments. Due to the fact that activities and accomplishments have been grouped into different categories such as events, situations, actions etc., no particular category will be favoured and there can be reference to all of them. In essence, the notion of the *end-point approach* aims at defining telicity in terms of temporal properties of situations, namely, their (reaching of) a temporal limit or endpoint. As it will be shown, the idea of the end-point is adopted either explicitly or implicitly and under two names in a wide range of theoretical literature: telicity (Dahl, 1981; Declerck, 1989; Krifka, 1992; Depraetere, 1995; Dik, 1997), boundedness (Declerck, 1989; Depraetere, 1995). The paper is structured as follows. Section II deals with the definition of an (a)telic predicate and its properties. This proposal will be adopted in Dik's (1997) work within the framework of Functional Grammar (FG) and followed by presenting ways of testing (a)telicity. Section III is an attempt to contrast Dik's (1997) proposal with a more encompassing theory of the end-point approach. Summary and conclusion will be made in Section IV.

II. TELICITY AND ATELICITY DISTINCTION

The distinction between telic and atelic predicates is perhaps best captured by the algebraic definition proposed by Krifka (1992). His approach to (a)telicity is traditionally regarded as lexical and has to do with cumulativity and quantization of nominal arguments that stand in incremental relation with verbal predicates. More to the point, Krifka (1992, p.32) says what follows:

"A predicate P is cumulative if whenever it applies to entities x and y, it also applies to the sum of x and y (provided that it applies to at least two distinct entities)";

"A predicate P is quantized if whenever it applies to x and y, y is not a proper part o x".

Krifka (1992) provides the following examples of cumulative and quantized arguments:

Cumulative arguments	apples, houses, tea, whisky
Quantized arguments	two apples, a house, a cup of tea, a glass of whisky

Krifka argues that if a predicate has a direct object/theme which designates something that has a structure with a temporal ending to it (like *two apples* in *eat two apples*, or a *cup of tea* in *drink a cup of tea* etc.), the expression verb-plus-object is telic. If the complement of the verb is atelic (like *apples* in *eat apples*, or *tea* in *drink tea* etc.) or if there is no object the expression is atelic. It may thus be concluded that in Krifka's terms, cumulative predicates represent situations as activities whereas quantized predicates denote accomplishments. Suppose, for example, that *John is building two houses*. Then each of the two building events can be described as *build a house*. But the building of the one house is not, and indeed cannot be thought of a proper part of the building of the second. This contrasts with situation such as *John is building houses*. If John is building houses, then there will be many proper parts of it, that is to say after 10 minutes, or 1 hour etc. which also can be described as *build houses*. Thus, for *build houses,* there will be many choices of x and y, where x is a proper part of y. Accordingly, *build two houses* is correctly characterized as telic, and *build houses* as atelic by this definition.

Earlier, similar criteria underlying the difference in telicity were proposed by Vendler (1972). He makes distinction between **homogeneous** and **non-homogeneous** predicates (quantized and cumulative predicates in Krifka's terms) on the basis of entailment relations which he defines as follows:

"If it is true that someone is running or pushing a cart now, then even if he stops in the next moment it will be still true that he did run or did push a cart. On the other hand, even if it is true that someone is drawing a circle or is running

a mile now, if he stops in the next moment it may not be true that he did draw a circle or did run a mile. In other words, if someone stops running a mile, he did not run a mile; if one stops drawing a circle, he did not draw a circle. But the man who stops running did run and who stops pushing the cart did push it" (Vendler, 1972, p.100).

The property underlying the difference in telicity is known as the **homogeneity property**. According to Vendler (1972), a predicate is called homogeneous (atelic) if parts of the predicate's denotation can be referred to by the same predicate. For instance, parts of running can also be described as running, whereas the predicate 'run a mile' can only be used for a description of an eventuality of running a mile, but not, for instance, the one of running 300 metres.

Within the framework of FG, the end-point approach to events is decided on the basis the semantic structure and aspectual character of the predicate at the nuclear predication layer. More specifically, telicity and atelicity character of a predicate is decided on the basis of given types of argument expressions inserted within the predicate frame and the adjunction of certain semantically marked types of Level 1 (Direction satellite) and Level 2 (Duration) satellite. According to Dik (1997), the nuclear predication as a whole designates a set of *states of affairs* (SoAs), which can be of different types. Dik (1997) outlines a typology of SoAs in terms of a number of parameters characterizing various types of predications. The figure below shows the different SoAs distinguished in FG and the major parameters determining them.
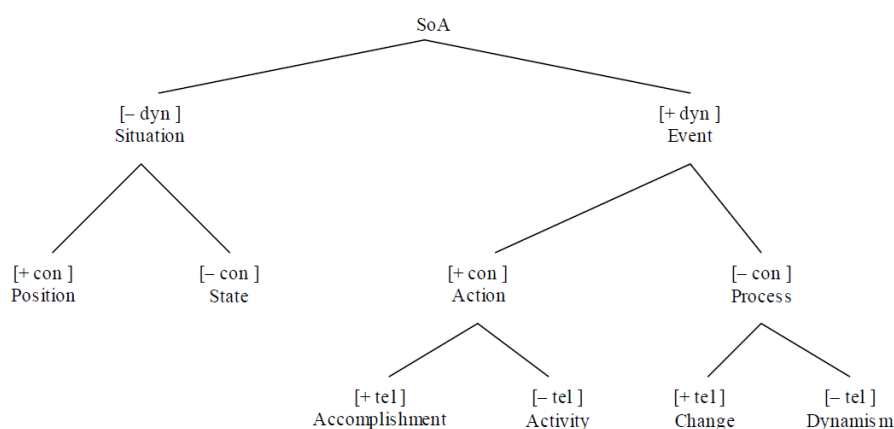
As it can be noted, activities and accomplishments belong to the category of events which are always dynamic and controlled. Their distinguishing feature is telicity. Activities are believed to be atelic events, whereas accomplishments are characterized by telic features. According to Dik (1997), a telic SoA is one which is fully achieved, reaches a natural terminal point. He gives the following examples of telic and atelic SoA:

(1) a. John was painting   (atelic)
    b. John was painting a portrait   (telic)
    c. John was painting portraits   (atelic)
    d. John walked in the park   (atelic)
    e. John walked to the station   (telic)
    f. Demonstrators were passing the station   (atelic)
    g. The demonstrators were passing the station (telic)   (Dik, 1997, p.100)

It appears that similarly to Krifka (1992), Dik argues that telicity or atelicity of an event can be decided on the basis of the **Goal** argument (this is what Krifka calls a theme/direct object). It can be seen in examples (1a-c). Also, telic or atelic character of a predicate can be derived on the basis of the presence of a **Direction satellite**, as in (1d-e), or by the first argument of a one-place predicate, as in (1f-g). More specifically, the sentences *John was painting* and *John was painting portraits* are atelic in a sense that one can go on painting or paintings portraits indefinitely, therefore the whole predication does not have a culmination point. On the other hand, according to Dik (1997), the sentence *John was painting a portrait* is a telic Accomplishment predicate because it is assumed that the action of painting just one portrait results in a culmination point where the portrait is finished. Sentences (1d-e) are characterized as atelic and telic respectively as Dik claims that one can do walking in the park indefinitely without reaching a terminal point, whereas in sentence (1e) the station determines the telic character of a predicate. As regards sentence (1f), it is not clear what the number of demonstrators is, so the action does not signal telic SoA. Sentence (1g) presupposes a specified **quantity** of demonstrators, so if the action is finished, all the demonstrators will have passed the station.

Testing for Telicity

There are numerous tests which show that telic and atelic predicates are indeed different and that this distinction is important for the purposes of assigning aspect to events. The most frequently used tests are: the adverbial modification test (Vendler, 1972; Krifka, 1992; Dik, 1997), the conjunction test (Verkuyl, 1993) and the progressive entailment test (Vendler, 1972; Krifka, 1992; Dik, 1997). They are presented below one by one.
    1.   Adverbial modification test

With respect to the adverbial modification test, Dik (1997) argues that atelic predications take a Duration satellite of the form *for an hour* whereas telic predications (if they are also–momentaneous) take satellites of the form *in an hour*; but the converse does not hold. It can be illustrated on the following pair of sentences:

(2) a. John painted for an hour (*in an hour)   (atelic)
   b. John painted the portrait in an hour (*for an hour)   (telic)
   a. Mary drove the car for an hour (*in an hour)   (atelic)
   b. Mary ran a mile in an hour (*for an hour)   (telic)

Another test for telicity lies in the (imp)possibility of embedding the predication under such expressions as "It took X three hours to…". This is demonstrated on the following examples:

(3) a. *It took John three hours to paint (portraits)   (atelic)
   b. It took John three hours to paint a portrait   (telic)
   a. *It took John three hours to run in the forest   (atelic)
   b. It took John three hours to run the marathon   (telic)

A third test involves the semantic effect of adding a constituent such as *almost*, which may appear to be ambiguous at times. It can be demonstrated as follows:

(4) a. John almost ran in the forest   (atelic)
   b. John almost ran the marathon   (telic)

Whereas sentence (4a) does not leave any doubt that atelic reading is the only interpretation here as John did not actually run in the forest, sentence number (4b) do allow for two interpretations. It relates to the initial point as well as to the terminal point of the event.

2.   Conjunction test

(5) a. Mary drove her car on Monday and on Tuesday   (ambiguous)
   b. Mary ran a mile on Monday and on Tuesday   (non-ambiguous)

According to Verkuyl (1993), in the case of two telic predicates as in (5b), the interpretation appears of two distinct eventualities that occur independently during two temporal intervals denoted by prepositional phrases. This is an available, though not the only possible interpretation of (5a), the sentence with an atelic predicate. Thus, Mary could in principle be driving for two days continuously, so that the whole sentence can report on just one eventuality. This reading is not available for (5b), which is not ambiguous: it has to be two different eventualities, two 'mile-running', as it were. It should be pointed out that there are two conditions concerning temporal modification here that have to be fulfilled. First, full temporal prepositional phrases should be conjoined, that is to say, the second 'on' cannot be omitted. Secondly, the temporal units denoted by these prepositional phrases should be subsequent. For example, the expression 'on Monday and on Tuesday' provides good grounds for testing, while 'on Monday and on Wednesday' does not.

3.   Progressive test

According to Dik (1997), this is an entailment test and it shows that telic and atelic predicates license different logical inferences. A sentence with an atelic predicate in the progressive entails the truth of a sentence with a verb in the present perfect tense, as in (6a), while a sentence with a telic predicate does not license such an inference. In other words, when it is true that at some interval atelic event obtains, then it may be concluded at some later interval that this event has obtained. However, when the original event is telic, no such conclusion is warranted. For instance, even if it is true that at some time interval, *John was painting a portrait,* we cannot with certainty conclude that *John has painted a portrait* is true at some time interval. The same comment applies to sentences (7b) and (8b)

(6) a. John is painting → John has painted
   b. John is painting a portrait / → *John has painted a portrait
(7) a. John was walking in the park yesterday → John has walked in the park
   b. John was walking to the station yesterday / → *John has walked to the station
(8) a. Mary was driving the car → Mary has driven the car
   b. Mary was running a mile – / → *May has run a mile

In brief, if the conclusion from the progressive to the perfect is logically warranted, as in (6a), (7a) and (8a), then the antecedent event is telic; if it is not warranted, as in (6b), (7b) and (8b), then the antecedent SoA is atelic.

So far, it has been shown that telic and atelic predicates are different in at least three respects: they co-occur with different classes of adverbials, they exhibit differences in interpretation with conjoined temporal expressions and give rise to different logical inferences (Dik, 1997). The tests that have been presented above provide enough evidence for assigning certain characteristic features to telic and atelic predicates:

Atelic	Telic
cumulative	quantized
homogeneous	non-homogeneous
(activities)	(accomplishments)
run	run a mile
push a cart	draw a circle
paint portraits	paint a portrait

When looking at Dik's (1997) criteria underlying the difference between telic and atelic predicates, it is difficult not to get the impression that he is not very consistent with his proposal. On the one hand, he claims that expression such as *John is painting* is atelic as it lacks the Goal argument which is supposed to measure the situation. On the other hand, his progressive entailment test shows that at a given **sub-interval** even the atelic event can obtain, whereas a telic expression does not guarantee the achievement of the action. What is more, the most commonly used adverbial modification test is restricted in its application as the adverbial *in an hour* cannot be always applied to telic events (e.g., *John was painting a portrait in an hour, *The demonstrators were passing the station in an hour). Therefore, one is tempted to suggest that the end-point to an event cannot be only inferred from the verb-object marked telicity, as it would imply that sentences such as *John is painting a portrait* or *John is running* are accomplished actions. There is a need to distinguish between actions proceeding towards a culminating point and these ones which achieve actual boundaries. Declerck (1989) and Depraetere (1995) claim that this distinction can best be described at sentential level.

III. EFFECT OF NPs, PPs AND TENSE ON (UN)BOUNDEDNESS AND (A)TELICITY

As it has been stated, sentences like John *is painting a portrait* and *John is running* clearly demonstrate the need for two different types of distinction. Declerck (1989) offers a classification based on potential endpoints, which is labelled (a)telicity, and one based on actual temporal boundaries captured by the label (un)boundedness. To start with, Declerck (1989) discusses the difference between + inherent/intended endpoints of situations (e.g., *John was reading a book)* and – inherent/intended endpoints (e.g., *John was working in the garden)*. She claims that the boundedness parameter measures the "actual realization" of the situation and manifests itself in a given clause pattern, hence the sentence *John was reading a book* is unbounded because although it codifies a telic predicate, it does not represent the situation as terminating. In the case of *working in the garden*, there is no inherent or intended endpoint similar to *'reading a book'* (unless John wants to work for example two hours in the garden). Although the situation is over the moment John stops working, the terminal point is not part of the semantics of *working in the garden.*

Earlier, Dahl (1981) also argued for the double distinction, however as Depraetere (1995) claims her proposal is very problematic. He said: "A situation, process, action, etc. or the verb, verb phrase, sentence, etc. expressing this situation, etc. has the T property if (…) it is directed toward attaining a goal or limit at which the action exhausts itself and passes into something else" (Dahl, 1982, p. 81). Furthermore, "a situation, process, action, etc. has the P property if it has the T property and the goal, limit, or terminal point in question or is claimed to be actually reached" (1981, p.82). He summarizes the possible combinations of the P property and the T property as follows:

	not-T	T
not-P	I was writing	I was writing a letter
P	(does not occur)	I wrote a letter

In keeping with this, if the P property corresponds to (un)boundedness and the T property to (a)telicity, this would imply that all bounded sentences are telic. As will be shown later, a particular situation may have actual temporal boundaries even if there is no inherent or intended endpoint to the situation (e.g. *Mary worked for hours, Judith played in the garden)*.

According to Depraetere (1995, p. 3), a twofold distinction can be made:
(I) + inherent/intended endpoint
    (a) + endpoint reached: + temporal boundary
    (b) – endpoint reached: – temporal boundary
(II) – inherent/intended endpoint
    (a)+ temporal boundary
    (b)– temporal boundary   (Depraetere, 1995, p.3)

In her view, (a)telicity has to do with whether or not a situation is described as having an inherent or intended endpoint, whereas (un)boundedness relates to whether or not a situation is described as having reached a temporal boundary. Declerck's approach to (a)telicity and (un)boundedness is followed by Depraetere (1995) who explains what it means to be telic and bounded:

"A clause is telic if the situation is described as having a natural or an intended endpoint which has to be reached for the situation as it is described in the sentence to be complete and beyond which it cannot continue. Otherwise it is atelic".

"A sentence is bounded if it represents a situation as having reached a temporal boundary, irrespective of whether the situation has an intended or inherent endpoint or not" (Depraetere, 1995, p.3).

Depraetere gives the following examples of telic and atelic sentences:
(9) a. Sheila collapsed.   (telic)
    b. Sheila deliberately swam for 2 hours.   (telic)
    c. Sheila is working in the garden.   (atelic)
    d. Sheila lives in Vienna.   (atelic)
A good illustration of bounded and unbounded sentences are the following examples:
(10) a. I met John at 5 o'clock.   (bounded)

    b. Judith played in the garden for an hour.   (bounded)
    c. Julian lived in Paris from 1979 until May 1980. (bounded)
    d. I have lived in Paris.   (bounded)
    e. John has played football.   (bounded)
    f. She lives on the corner of Russell Square.   (unbounded)
    g. She is writing a nursery rhyme.   (unbounded)   (Depraetere, 1995, p.3)

In brief, in (10a), the nature of the situation is known to take up a limited amount of time. This example indicates that there is no need for explicit indication that the situation has ended in order for a sentence to be bounded. It is indicated by the punctual character of the clause, together with the use of a non-progressive form. In (10b) and (10c), the adverbials impose temporal boundaries. The bounded character of (10d) and (10e) is the result of the use of a perfect tense. In (10f) and (10g), the tense shows that there are no temporal boundaries to the situation.

Depraetere (1995) claims that NPs affect (un)boundedness indirectly, that is to say "if a NP has the effect of turning an atelic predicate into a telic one, and if the telic proposition is used in a non-progressive sentence" (Depraetere, 1995, p.5), the latter will be bounded as in (11c):

    (11) a. Petrol was leaking out of the tank.   (atelic unbounded)
         b. The petrol was leaking out of the tank.   (telic unbounded)
         c. The petrol leaked out of the tank.   (telic bounded)

Similarly, Depraetere (1995, p.6) claims that "a change from atelic to telic brought about by the addition of a directional PP will coincide with a change from unbounded to bounded provided the sentence is non-progressive":

    (12) a. John pushed the cart.   (– directional PP) (unbounded atelic)
         b. John pushed the cart into the barn.   (+ directional PP) (bounded telic)
         c. John was pushing the cart into the barn. (+ directional PP) (unbounded telic)

However, the following example shows that the use of plural NP may override the bounding effect of the directional PP:

         d. John pushed carts into the barn.   (+ directional PP) (atelic unbounded)

Depraetere (1995) points out very clearly that (un)boundedness and (a)telicity differ in two important aspects. This is important for our analysis of differences between activities and accomplishments. She claims what follows:

1. The (a)telic character of a sentence, unlike (un)boundedness, is not affected by the progressive. It is presented on the following pairs of sentences:

    (13) a. John opened the parcel.   (telic bounded)
         b. John was opening the parcel.   (telic unbounded)   (Depraetere, 1995, p.4)
         a. Ten firecrackers exploded.   (telic bounded)
         b. Ten firecrackers were exploding.   (telic unbounded)   (Depraetere, 1995, p.4)

However, as she claims a change from bounded to unbounded situations brought by a factor other than the progressive may coincide with a change from telic to atelic. Examples are given below:

    (14) a. John left at eight o'clock.   (telic bounded)
         b. John leaves at eight o'clock.   (atelic unbounded)

As it can be seen from (14b) , the use of a present tense induce a repetitive reading, making the sentence atelic although separate cases when John leaves are in themselves telic.

2. (Un)boundedness is not equal to the aspectual opposition progressive vs. non-progressive. The progressive form indeed establishes an unbounded reading in most cases (as in (15b), but this is not the only way in which an unbounded reading can be arrived at as shown in (15c) and (16b)):

    (15) a. I ate an apple.   (bounded)
         b. I was eating an apple.   (unbounded)
         c. John eats an apple every day.   (unbounded)   (Depraetere, 1995, p.5)
    (16) a. John wrote a good book.   (bounded)
         b. John writes a good book.   (unbounded)   (Depraetere, 1995, p.5)

Vasudeva (1971) and Mommer (1986) present similar examples showing that the use of a present tense instead of a past tense may coincide with a change from a single event reading to a series reading:

    (17) a. He arrived late.   (telic bounded)
         b. He arrives late.   (atelic unbounded)   (Vasudeva, 1971, p.128)
    (18) a. Nick crossed the Graffiti Bridge. (telic bounded)
         b. Nick crosses the Graffiti Bridge. (atelic unbounded)   (Mommer, 1986, p. 88)

Interestingly, as it has been shown, the use of a perfect tense leads to a situation being represented as 'an accomplished act' as in *I have lived in Paris* or *John has played football*. Nevertheless, when the left boundary is explicitly mentioned as in *I have lived here since 1985,* the situation cannot be represented as ending. The same applies to sentences with a 'continuative' perfect:

    (19) a. I have lived here since 1985.
         b. I have been waiting for you since 8 o'clock.

Interestingly, not all progressive sentences are unbounded as indicated below:

(20) a. A: Why are your hands so dirty?
      B: I've been playing in the mud.   (bounded)
   b. A: Her eyes are red.
      B: She's been crying.   (bounded)

In sentences like these, according to Depraetere (1995), the effect of the progressive is overruled by the bounded reading established by the present perfect.

When looking at these examples, it may be concluded that the speaker and the hearer can represent and interpret a given situation in several ways depending on the context. Take for instance *Susan is painting* (Depraetere, 1995, p.4), this situation may be referred to by means of the sentence *Susan is painting a picture* (telic) as well as *Susan is painting* (atelic). The same comment is applicable to boundedness, so it is a matter of choice on the part of the speaker how she/he will represent a particular situation. An example is shown in (21).

(21) a. Judith played in the garden for an hour.   (bounded)
   b. Julian lived in Paris from February 1989 until May 1989.   (bounded)
   c. Judith was playing in the garden in the course of the afternoon. (unbounded)
   d. Julian lived in Paris at the time.   (unbounded)   (Depraetere, 1995)

The sentence in (21a) and (21b) may refer to the same situation as the corresponding sentences in (21c) and (21d): in the latter case they are not represented as having ended, whereas in the former case they are.

IV. CONCLUSION

All things considered, there is a large amount of work assuming the existence and naturalness of end-points. The concept comes around by different names: telicity (Dahl, 1981; Declerck, 1989; Krifka, 1992; Depraetere, 1995; Dik, 1997), boundedness (Declerck, 1989, Depraetere, 1995). As it has been argued throughout the paper, telicity is a vague parameter, being determined to a great extent by intuition. If one takes Vendler's (1972) or Krifka's (1992) proposal seriously then expressions like *John is running* or *John is painting a portrait* differ in terms of the presence of build-in endpoints. According to Vendler and Krifka although the action presented in the sentence *John is running* does not proceed to any culminating point, it can be described as accomplished. Interestingly enough, the action of painting a portrait does not guarantee completion. As it has been explained this difference is captured by the homogeneity property which is only able to define a given action as accomplished or not at a given time interval. Also Dik (1997) does not seem to clarify the issue of reaching a culminating point. His proposal is very inconsistent and a battery of tests that he proposes to use to define telicity of a given predicate work well for some of the predicates and not with others. A good alternative to the verb-object marked end-point is offered by Declerck (1989) and Depraetere (1995). They propose a sentential analysis of culminating and non-culminating situations by drawing clear distinction between intended and nonintended end-points. They clearly show the role of NPs, PPs and tense on the analysis of end-points. In their terms such sentences as above – *John is running* and *John is painting a portrait* can never be classified as culminating. Their proposal is very interesting as it presents different ways (a)telicity can coincide with (un)boundedness. Finally, they point out that in conversations it may not be straightforwardly indicated whether a given situation has the end-point or not. The contextual information and mutual knowledge between the speaker and the hearer thus makes the analysis of end-points even more interesting.

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The Effect of Schema-vs-translation-based Teaching on Learning English in High Schools

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Abstract—The present research project was conducted to explore the effect of schema-based teaching (SBT) and translation-based teaching (TBT) on vocabulary knowledge, structure and reading comprehension ability of forty-one female grade one high school (G1HS) students. They were assigned to SBT and TBT groups on the basis of their performance on a schema-based cloze multiple choice item test (S-Test) designed on the textbooks they had read in previous years. While the SBT views single words and phrases as the schemata constituting texts and provides appropriate contexts for the learners to learn them in English, the TBT adopts sentences as the basic units of language and encourages learners to translate their constituting words into their mother language. Upon offering the same textbook to the SBT and TBT groups an achievement S-Test, matching vocabulary test, multiple choice item grammar test designed on the textbook along with a reading comprehension test developed on unseen texts were administered to the groups to find out which approach was more effective. The results showed the superior performance of SBT group over the TBT group on the unseen reading comprehension test. The SBT group did not, however, perform significantly better than the TBT group on the achievement S-Test, grammar, and vocabulary tests. The findings are discussed and suggestions are made for future research.

Index Terms—schema theory, learning, teaching, testing

I. INTRODUCTION

Today learning foreign languages such as English has become an educationally indispensible necessity throughout the whole world. Many language teaching methods have, therefore, been developed and employed to meet the necessity. They range from grammar-translation method to communicative language teaching and task-based approach (Larsen-Freeman, (2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Due to the diversity of teaching approaches and their difference in language and learning theories, selecting an appropriate method to achieve the intended educational objectives has, therefore, become a matter of great concern to language teachers.

Of all the methods and approaches, grammar-translation has had a worldwide application (Brown, 2000). This approach which dominated foreign language teaching from 1840s to 1940s (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) focuses on direct translation from target language to the native one (Brown, 2000; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Recent decades have, however, witnessed an increasing interest toward the application of schema theory to language teaching. This theory highlights the role of background knowledge in language learning by adopting *schema* as a cognitive framework (Carrell, 1984). It is composed of ideas organized on the basis of its semantic, syntactic and discoursal relationships with other *schemas* or *schemata* (Khodaday & Elahi, 2012). Indeed, *schemata* are abstract mental structures which help the acquired knowledge to be stored in memory in a systematic manner (Melendez & Pritchard, 1985) helping learners organize and interpret large amount of information.

Schemata are acquired through experiences gained in life (Ajideh, 2003). When new information is encountered, it is understood by relating it to other schemata. The acquisition of the new information will thus depend on and be shaped by its being fitted to the previously stored schemata (Carrell, 1983, 1984; Khodadady & Elahi, 2012). Imagine a child, as an example, whose schema of "cat" is a creature with four legs and a tail and two ears. Confronting a "dog" for the first time in life, s/he may call it a cat in order to interact with her environment. In this case the previously acquired knowledge makes the child call the dog, a cat. Thus, s/he has to adapt his or her schema to the new information. This process has largely been explained by two approaches followed in schema theory: macrostructural and microstructural (Khodadady & Elahi, 2012; Khodadady, 1999).

A. Macrostructural Approach

Based on the *macrostructural* approach of schema theory, upon encountering the title of a text, readers invoke whatever background knowledge they have and then process and integrate the information presented in the entire text on the basis of their background knowledge. It defines schema as rhetorical knowledge, i.e. the knowledge to determine the text pattern, and tries to "explain the reading comprehension ability in terms of some broad terms such as scripts and

genres" (Khodadady & Elahi, 2012, p. 146). To the best knowledge of present researchers no scholar has been able to translate this approach into a coherent teaching approach so far due to its subjective nature.

B. Microstructural Approach

In contrast to macrostructural view, *microstructural* approach regards a text under comprehension as an entity comprised of specific schemata, i.e. single and phrasal words. The comprehension of a given schema within the text takes place not only by activating whatever background knowledge the reader has stored about it before but also by determining its contextual meaning by relating it to other schemata comprising the text. The depth of background knowledge and the ability to relate it to other schemata does in fact render the text partially or completely comprehensible to the reader. In order to study the functioning of schemata within texts, Khodadady (2008), Khodadady and Herriman (2000) and Khodadady, Pishghadam and Fakhar (2010) assigned them to three main domains: semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic,

Semantic schemata are the main concepts the authors have stored in their minds as their background knowledge. They are experienced in reality on a moment by moment basis and are represented by adjectives, adverbs, nouns and verbs in English. They are "open in nature" since new semantic schemata are met and learned during one's life. *Syntactic* schemata such as conjunctions, determiners, prepositions and pronouns depend, however, on semantic ones and are attached to them in order to confine their meanings within the variables of time and place. They are, therefore, few in type but many in number. *Parasyntactic* schemata are similar to syntactic ones in function but can be many in type as semantic schemata are. They comprise abbreviations, names, numerals and para-adverbs (Khodadady, 2008; Khodadady, 1999, Khodadady & Javadi Mehr, 2012).

According to Khodadady and Elahi (2012), the identification and understanding of all semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic schemata in a text and establishing discoursal relationships among them results in the full comprehension of the text. Thus, the role of a language teacher is to help learners understand each and all the schemata comprising a text and then relate them to each other as intended by its author. They will learn a foreign language if they can activate their own schemata and put them side by side to produce their own version of text. The language proficiency of learners can thus be measured by their ability to understand and employ appropriate schemata to read and write texts of varying length.

C. Microstructural Approach of Schema Theory and Foreign Language Teaching

Shejbalova (2006) described Krashen's (1987) analysis of learners' linguistic outputs taught via TBT in a lucid manner. According to him, Krashen witnessed the students' errors even in applying simple rules. He, then, noticed the incomprehensibility of the students' sentences since they made hesitations while producing them. He came up with the idea that grammar-translation approach sacrifices comprehensibility and fluency for accuracy. In spite of having similar observations, many teachers in Iran still follow TBT in their classes.

Brown (2000) outlined some factors which make TBT popular; among them are few specialized skills on the part of teacher, easiness of constructing tests and the subjectivity of their being scored. Some scholars, however, tend to support some other methods which are more attentive to learners. Some, for example, suggest schema-based teaching (SBT) as Carrell and Floyd (cited in Ajideh, 2003) do. These scholars believe that language teachers' main responsibility is to help learners connect the new knowledge presented in texts to their previously acquired one in order to achieve educational objectives.

Similarly, Melendez and Pritchard (1985) believed that the application of background knowledge boosts one's comprehension and interpretation of new information. Thus, applying schema theory to foreign language reading comprehension promotes learning in language classes as confirmed by research findings. Pearson, Hansen and Gordon (1979), for example, showed that the students with well developed schemata did significantly better than those with less background knowledge. They concluded that developing schemata enhances the ability to do the task. (The conclusion is also supported in the literature on the macro structural view of schema theory as reviewed by Stott (2001).

Following the microstructural approach of schema theory, Khodadady and Elahi (2012) designed an experimental design to find out whether adopting the TBT and SBT as two distinct methods of teaching English for Special Purposes (ESP) brings about any significant difference in learners' achievement. Their result showed that the medical university students who learned the ESP via the SBT scored significantly higher on the achievement test than those sitting in the TBT classes. Similarly, Khodadady, Alavi, Pishghadam and Khaghaninezhad's (2012) study showed that the SBT applied to the teaching of ESP to undergraduate students majoring in theology results in significantly higher ESP achievement compared to TBT. The present study attempts to find out whether similar results will be obtained if grade 1 high school (G1HS) students are taught via SBT.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Forty-one female G1HS students in Kuhsorkh region near Kashmar, Iran, were included in the study. Their age ranged from 14 to 16. They all spoke Persian as their mother tongue. They had studied English only in grades 2 and 3 of guidance school. None was studying English anywhere other than the school while the experiment was conducted.

B. Instruments

Five language tests were designed in the present study to fulfill various functions, i.e., pre S-Test, achievement S-Test, matching vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension tests.

1. Pre S-Test

In order to determine whether the SBT and TBT groups were homogeneous in terms of their English background, all the dialogues and passages comprising the *English book 2* (Birjandi & Soheili, 2009a) and *English book 3* (Birjandi & Soheili, 2009b) were parsed and categorised into domains and genera as shown in Table 1. As can be seen, the 282 different types of semantic domain schemata (56.7%) have been used in the two textbooks followed by 126 (26.0%) parasyntactic and 86 (17.3%) syntactic schemata, indicating that the majority of pre S-Test items must be semantic in nature. Based on the percetage of domain and genera types used in composing the textbooks, 83 schemata were chosen to develop the items on.

TABLE 1
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF GENERA TOKENS AND TYPES COMPRISING GRADES 2 AND 3 OF GUIDANCE SCHOOL TEXTBOOKS

Domain	Genus	Tokens		Types	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Semantic	Adjectives	54	2.7	33	6.6
	Adverbs	20	1.0	11	2.2
	Nouns	381	19.1	141	28.4
	Verbs	215	10.8	97	19.5
	Total	**670**	**33.7**	**282**	**56.7**
Syntactic	Conjunctions	52	2.6	7	1.4
	Determiners	254	12.8	30	6.0
	Prepositions	140	7.0	12	2.4
	Pronouns	253	12.7	21	4.2
	Syntactic verbs	164	8.2	16	3.2
	Total	**863**	**43.4**	**86**	**17.3**
Para-syntactic	Abbreviations	66	3.3	23	4.6
	Interjections	26	1.3	6	1.2
	Names	178	8.9	44	8.9
	Numerals	40	2.0	20	4.0
	Para-adverbs	147	7.4	36	7.2
	Total	**457**	**23.0**	**129**	**26.0**
	Total (All genera)	1990	100.0	497	100.0

As it can also be seen in Table 1 above, the parasyntactic domain contains genera such as names which play little role, if any, in learning English. For example, 44 transliterated Persian names such as Parvin and Reza have been used in the two textbooks whose inclusion in language tests would be questionable. For this reason more syntactic schemata were chosen to address the English structure. The pre S-Test thus consisted of 6 (7.2%) adjectives, 2 (2.4%) adverbs, 27 (32.5%) nouns, 20 (24.1%) verbs, 2 (2.4%) conjunctions, 5 (6.0%) determiners, 3 (3.6%) prepositions, 7 (8.4%) pronouns, 3 (3.6%) syntactic verbs and 8 (9.6%) para-adverbs (see Appendix).

A schema-based item (SBI) differs from traditional multiple choice items (MCIs) in being based on schema theory. When a given syntactic schema such as "my" is, for example, read, it activates the concept of *possessing* the person (or object) represented by the semantic schema that follows it, i.e., "father", in its readers' mind. They need to relate the pronoun "he" to "their father" and assign him the position of an agent who usually does many things such as "speaking", "listening", "saying" and "looking". However, they need to specify his intended action by focusing on the nouns "book", "friends" and "things" as its discoursally related schemata. Thus choosing the verbs "speaking", "listening", and "looking" as alternatives showing the nature of action is a distinctive feature of SBIs. By choosing verbs rather than adjectives, adverbs and nouns as the alternatives of SBI 10 and confining the selected verbs to those of "action" rather than "state", e.g., being and feeling, or "possession", e.g., have, establishes the common semantic feature shared between the keyed response and its alternatives and thus differentiates them from the "distracters" of traditional MCIs. Khodadady (1997, 1999) highlighted the distinction by referring to the alternatives of SBIs as "competitives".

EXAMPLE SBI
MY FATHER HAS A LOT OF BOOKS. … HE ….10…. BOOKS ARE OUR GOOD FRIENDS. THEY TEACH US A LOT OF THINGS.

10	**A**	speaks	**B**	listens	**C**	says	**D**	looks

2. Achievement S-Test

The first four lessons of *English Book 3* (Birjandi, et al., 2012) taught to the SBT and TBT groups were parsed and categorized into their constituting semantic, syntactice and parasyntactic domains and genera to develop the content-based achievement S-Test. As can be seen in Table 2, 726 schema tokens comprise the lessons of which 312 (43.0%), 335 (46.1%) and 79 (10.9), are semantic, syntactic and parasyntactic, respectively. The type-based analysis of schemata,

however, shows that 175 (62.3%) are semantic followed by 75 (26.7%) syntactic and 31 (11.0%) of parasyntacic schemata.

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF GENERA TOKENS AND TYPES USED IN THE FIRST FOUR LESSONS OF *ENGLISH BOOK 3*

Domain	Genus	Tokens		Types	
		Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Semantic	Adjectives	33	4.5	25	8.9
	Adverbs	8	1.1	7	2.5
	Nouns	160	22	66	23.5
	Verbs	111	15.3	77	27.4
	Total	**312**	**43**	**175**	**62.3**
Syntactic	Conjunctions	29	4	8	2.8
	Determiners	110	15.2	19	6.8
	Prepositions	72	9.9	16	5.7
	Pronouns	76	10.5	19	6.8
	Syntactic verbs	48	6.6	13	4.6
	Total	**335**	**46.1**	**75**	**26.7**
Para-syntactic	Abbreviations	11	1.5	7	2.5
	Interjections	1	0.1	1	0.4
	Names	24	3.3	4	1.4
	Numerals	2	0.3	2	0.7
	Para-adverbs	28	3.9	16	5.7
	Particles	13	1.8	1	0.4
	Total	**79**	**10.9**	**31**	**11**
	Total (All genera)	726	100	281	100

Based on the percentage of schema types, 100 schemata were chosen to develop the items of achievement S-Test. It consisted of 5 (5%) adjectives, 2 (2%) adverbs, 22 (22%) nouns, 20 (20%) verbs, 3 (3%) conjunctions, 16 (16%) determiners, 11 (11%) prepositions, 11 (11%) pronouns, 2 (2%) syntactic verbs, 3 (3%) abbreviations, and 5 (5%) para-adverbs. (The test is *not* given to save space. Interested readers can, however, contact the first author for a copy.) Similar to the 83-item pre-S-Test, the keyed responses were presented along with three competitives which had semantic, syntactic and discoursal relationships with each other and other schemata comprising the four lessons.

3. Matching Vocabulary Test

The 282 semantic schema types comprising the *English book 2* (Birjandi & Soheili, 2009a) and *English book 3* (Birjandi & Soheili, 2009b) as well **175 used in the first four lessons of** *English Book 3* (Birjandi, et al., 2012) were closely scrutinized to develop 60 short definitions. Following Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham (2001), the definitions were presented in twenty clusters having six alternatives as shown in the example below. Similar to Khodadady, Pishghadam and Fakhar (2010), the participants were asked to match the definitions with the alternatives to reveal their vocabulary knowledge. (The test is *not* given to save space. Interested readers can, however, contact the first author for a copy.)

THREE EXAMPLE ITEMS OF MATCHING VOCABULARY TEST

1	the colour of night	A	old	B	careless
2	not new	C	busy	D	cheap
3	you should wash it	E	black	F	dirty

4. Grammar Multiple Choice Item Test

A grammar *Multiple Choice Item Test* (MCIT) was designed in order to study the SBT and TBT groups' learning of syntactic knowledge. It consisted of 30 MCIs addressing the grammatical points taught in grades 2 and 3 guidance schools and grade 1 high school. (The test is *not* given to save space. Interested readers can, however, contact the first author for a copy.) To design the test, the researchers benefited from some weblogs and books containing traditional school exams. Meanwhile, the analyzed schemata were frequently checked to present the points with the schemata the learners were familiar with. The MCI below, for example, measures the participants' knowledge of imperatives:

EXAMPLE GRAMMAR MCI

Context: Please … to the blackboard.
Alternatives: A. come   C. to come   B. comes   D. coming

5. Unseen Reading MCIT

In order to measure the participants' ability to apply what they had learned to read and understand unseen passages, the researchers chose eight paragraphs from weblogs in general and *Introductory Steps to Understanding* (Hill, 2004) in particular to develop a reading comprehension MCIT. (The test is *not* given to save space. Interested readers can, however, contact the first author for a copy.) In order to ensure that the learners knew the constituting schemata of the

unseen passages, they were checked against the schema types comprising the texts taught. Adopting this process resulted in choosing some paragraphs which lacked MCIs. For these paragraphs, the present researchers themselves developed MCIs. MCI below provides an example of 23 items comprising the unseen reading MCIT.

EXAMPLE UNSEEN READING MCI

Context:	Mr Karami was a farmer. He and his wife grew a lot of things and they had a few cows. They worked very hard. …	
Stem	Mr. and Mrs. Karami …	
Alternatives:	**A**. walked in town for 2 hours.	**C**. always ate a little.
	B. were farmers.	**D**. didn't like cooking.

C. Procedures

After talking and explaining the purpose of the present study, one of the colleagues of the second author agreed to teach her two G1HS classes as she always did and administer all the tests designed in the project to her students. Upon her agreement, the pre S-Test was administered to the four classes taught by the second author and her colleague in four different schools. The t-test analysis of test results, however, showed that the mean score of two classes differed significantly from the other two. The two classes whose mean scores did not differ significantly from each other were, therefore, chosen and assigned to two groups, i.e., SBT and TBT. The former was taught by the second researcher in Taghva and the latter by her colleague in Fatemeh-ol-Zahra high schools. Both groups were taught two times a week on odd and even days. The session on odd days lasted for 90 minutes and the other 45. In order to have a complete 90-minute session, the even sessions were mixed and were held every other week. The achievement S-Test, grammar MCIT, matching vocabulary test and unseen reading comprehension MCIT were administered to the participants as soon as the first four lessons of *English book 3* (Birjandi & Soheili, 2009b) were taught to both groups as outlined below.

1. Translation-Based Teaching

The key words of the passages were read by the teacher aloud and the students repeated; then, the Persian equivalents of these words were presented by the teacher. The students had to pronounce the English words correctly and memorize their Persian eqiuvalents in order to be able to translate the reading passages.Then, the "new words" appearing at the beginning of each lesson were translated by the students under the teacher's supervision. For teaching reading, the teacher had the students read the passage at home once or twice to get the general idea. Before reading them in the class, the teacher, however, raised some general questions in English. For example, she asked, "What was the passage about?" or "Which part did you like the most?" Then, she read the whole passage twice. Afterwards, it was the time for students to translate the paragraphs in groups. They could ask questions whenever needed. Answering the reading exercises was the next stage. Grammar points were taught by giving some some sentences to the students and asking them to compare them with each other in order to deduce the point. Grammar exercises were answered immediately after teaching the students in groups.

2. Schema-Based Teaching

At the beginning of the school year, the teacher familiarized the students with schema domains and provided them with some examples. Then, she divided the class into five groups, four of which consisted of four members and the last consisted of five. The group members had to sit beside each other each session. If any problems occurred in the structure of groups for important reasons, their members were changed for the coming sessions. Although the teacher intended to teach the classes in English, the language proficiency level of the students forced her to use Persian occasionally and whenever necessary.

For learning the underlined "New Words", the students in each group were instructed to read the sentences in which they occurred, guess their meaning and then write them on a piece of paper and give them to the teacher. While the teacher checked what they had written on paper, she had all the new schemata written on the board. Then the teacher pronounced them one by one and had the students repeat them after her. Upon ensuring that they pronounced all the new schemata correctly, she checked the equivalents given. She made use of the definitions, pictures or other means to help the students get the right meaning whenever she realized they had guessed mistakenly. For example, in lesson three all the groups had got the right meanings for *pan*, *fire*, *boil*, *servant*, *few*, *forget* and *outside* but some had problems guessing the meanings of *find*, *wise* and *left*.

To help the students understand the meaning of *find* in "Maryam can't **find** her notebook. She doesn't know where it is", the teacher asked the students what type of schema it was. Some said, "verb". When she asked "Why?" they replied, "Because it is preceded by can't". At this time, the teacher began to search her own bag. "Where is my blue pen?" she said, "I can't find it." And repeated it several times. One of the students said suddenly, "peida kærdæn/", the exact persian equivlanet of "find". The same procedure was folowed for the schemata whose meaning were not appropriately guessed.

For teaching reading comprehension, the teacher read each passage of the four lessons once and had the students listen carefully. Then, she read it for the second time and asked them to underline the unfamiliar schemata in the text. Again, the students were encouraged and led to discuss the new unknown schemata and guess their meaning on the basis of their context. Whenever they had a problem guessing the meaning, the teacher benefited from the genus the

schema belonged to and related it to their background knowledge. For example, part of the passage taught in lesson two reads: "These monkeys live in the jungles of hot lands. There, farmers raise coconuts in fields." Some students had underlined raise and offered "pick"as its synonym. The teacher asked, "What genus does pick belong to?" One of them said, "it is a verb and it shows an action". The teacher then asked , "What else do the faremers do in their fields?" After a pause, she wrote, "raise = grow" on the board. The students got the meaning immediately since they had learned the schema "*grow*" in lesson one.

Upon insuring that the learners had formed the relevant mental image of all the schemata taught in their minds, the teacher helped them relate them to each other through oral summarization to develop their speaking ability. For example, she wrote the title of the second passage, "The funny farmhand", in the center of the board and asked the students to talk about it. One of the students volunteered the sentene, "monkeys are farmhands". The teacher drew a line to the top left and wrote "is a monkey" so that the students can realize that the three schemata "the", "funnay and "farmhand" form a phrase which can be replaced by "it" and the succeding verb must therefore be singular, i.e., is. One of the high-ability students realized the teacher's intention and said "is clever". To appreciate her contribution, the teacher wrote it on the top center of the board and related it to the topic with a line as shown in Figure 1.
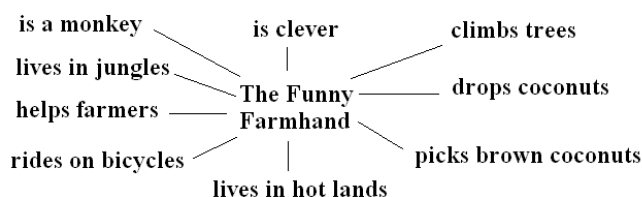
Figure 1. Developing the schema "farmhand" and relating it semantically to other schemata

Upon ensuring that the learners could produce the schemata comprising the passage themselves, the teacher taught the new grammatical point indeductively. For example, she wrote, "Friedrich <u>can</u> play. He <u>could</u> play yesterday." Then she looked at the students and said, "Could is the past form of can." A student said loudly. "Oh, yes. That's right." Encouraging her to contribute to the lesson further, the teacher immediately asked,"so what genus is it?" " Well, it is a syntactic verb," she answered. "Why?" asked the teacher again. Another student replied, "because it comes before the main verb."
- "How should we use the main verb after could?"
- "Infinitive without to."
- "Well done! Can you tell me what the negative form of could is?"
- "Couldn't. "

D. Data Analysis

The reliability of five tests developed in this study was estimated by employing Cronbach's Alpha. The internal validity of the tests was determined by utilizing the item facility (IF) and item discrimination (ID) indices. While the IF index was calculated as the proportion of correct responses given to a specific item, it was correlated by the total score to obtain the biserial correlation coefficients as its ID index. Items having the IF indices falling between 0.25 to 0.75 (Baker, 1989) and ID indices equal to and higher than 0.25 were considered well functioning. And finally the One-Way ANOVA analysis was utlized to explore the difference in the mean scores of the SBT and TBT groups on the tests. All the statistical analyses were carried out via the IBM SPSS statistics 20.0 to test the hypothesis that there will be no significant difference in the mean scores of SBT and TBT groups on the tests administered after the course content is taught.

III. Results

Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics and reliability estimates of the five tests designed and administered in this study. As can be seen, the alpha reliability coefficient (RC) of the achievement S-Test is the highest (.96), followed by the matching vocabulary test (.93) and pre-S-Test (.90). Although the grammar MCIT has the lowest RC (.56) it has functioned well psychometrically and differentiated high from low achievers in that its 15 (50%) items have acceptable IF and ID indices, i.e., items 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 22, 24, 25 and 27. As the mean IF (.40) shows the grammar MCIT occupies the second position in terms of difficulty level among the tests administered after the treatment.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND RELIABILITY ESTIMATES OF TESTS

Tests	Groups	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error	Mean IF	Mean ID	Alpha
Pre-S-Test	TBT	20	33.90	13.114	2.932	.38	.32	.90
	SBT	21	29.67	12.595	2.748			
	Total	41	31.73	12.869	2.010			
Achievement S-Test	TBT	20	49.50	23.105	5.166	.50	.45	.96
	SBT	21	50.71	21.673	4.729			
	Total	41	50.12	22.109	3.453			
Grammar	TBT	20	12.60	4.173	.933	.40	.27	.56
	SBT	21	11.81	3.558	.776			
	Total	41	12.20	3.842	.600			
Vocabulary	TBT	20	27.80	11.998	2.683	.41	.45	.93
	SBT	21	22.67	14.015	3.058			
	Total	41	25.17	13.166	2.056			
Unseen Reading	TBT	20	7.40	3.575	.799	.38	.42	.79
	SBT	21	10.29	5.149	1.124			
	Total	41	8.88	4.632	.723			

As it can also be seen in Table 3 above, in terms of reliability, the unseen reading MCIT has the second lowest RC (.79). The relatively low RC of the test is due to its difficulty level as reflected in the mean IF (.38). The RC of the test is, however, much higher than that of the grammar MCIT (.56) because out of 23 items, 19 (82.6%) have functioned well, i.e., 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 21, 22, and 23. Similarly, as the measure enjoying the highest RC (.96), the achievement S-Test has the most well functioning items (84 out of 100), i.e., items 2, 4, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 16, 18, 19, 21, 22, 23, 25, 26, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71, 72, 73, 74, 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, and 100. Similarly, out of the 60 items comprising the matching vocabulary test, 47 (78.3%) have functioned well, i.e., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 19, 21, 22, 23, 24, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 47, 49, 50, 51, 52, 54, 55, 57, 59, 60.

Table 4 presents the One-Way ANOVA analysis of mean scores obtained on the five tests. As can be seen, the SBT group has performed significantly better than their TBT counterpart only on the unseen reading comprehension MCIT (F=4.303, df=1, p <.05). The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .10, revealing a medium effect according to Cohen's (1988) classification. These results reject the null hypothesis that there will be no significant difference in the mean scores of SBT and TBT groups on the tests administered after the course content is taught. They support the studies reporting the superiority of SBT over TBT (Khodadady et al., 2012; Khodadady & Elahi, M. (2012)

TABLE 4
ONE-WAY ANOVA ANALYSIS OF MEAN SCORES OBTAINED ON THE TESTS

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre-S-Test	Between Groups	183.582	1	183.582	1.112	.298
	Within Groups	6440.467	39	165.140		
	Total	6624.049	40			
Achieve S-Test	Between Groups	15.105	1	15.105	.030	.863
	Within Groups	19537.286	39	500.956		
	Total	19552.390	40			
Grammar	Between Groups	6.401	1	6.401	.427	.517
	Within Groups	584.038	39	14.975		
	Total	590.439	40			
Vocabulary	Between Groups	269.938	1	269.938	1.580	.216
	Within Groups	6663.867	39	170.868		
	Total	6933.805	40			
Unseen Reading	Between Groups	85.305	1	85.305	4.303	.045
	Within Groups	773.086	39	19.823		
	Total	858.390	40			

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

In countries where English is taught as a foreign language, teaching reading may be more important than the oral use of language (Day, 2003). TBT has been employed to accomplish the task for centuries (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). However, many scholars such as Day (2003) believed that reading and translation are two different abilities. While reading is basically a monolingual interactive process in which readers interact with the text to construct meaning (Adams & Collins, 1977; Day, 2003; Khodadady & Elahi, 2012), translation requires going through the same process in two languages. The SBT and TBT, therefore, differ from each other because the former requires activating and applying the schemata in English whereas the latter dependes on the first langauge which happens to be Persian in this study.

The present study, however, differs from the mainstream approach towards the concept of background knowledge by approaching schemata from a microstructural perspective. While marostructural approach adopts a given text as a schema and explains reading as an interpretation process "guided by the principle that every input is mapped against existing schema and that all aspects of that schema must be compatible with the input information" (Carrell, 1983), the microstructural approach adopts each single or phrasal word used in a text as a schema and emphasises not only its comprehension by readers as a result of creating its map in their minds but also its being shaped and modified by other schemata constituting the text. In other words, while macrostructural approach views a schema as a static concept which "must be compatible with the input information", the microstructual approach renders it dynamic by placing it within a text/context in which its meaning depends on the syntactic, semantic and discoursal relationships it holds with other schemata constituting the context/text.

Since there is no entry for the compound noun "farmhand", for example, in *The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* (Onions, 1973), it can be safely assumed that it did not exist in the mind of any British reader untill 1973. The readers of *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (1995), however, have already created a mental image of the noun in their minds because they know that it represents "someone who works on a farm" (p. 502). The participants of the present study would have serious difficulty in reading and understanding the passage "The Funnary Farmhand" if they follow the macrostructural approach and create the image of "someone" rather than "a monkey" in their minds as they go through the passage. The TBT group of the present study ould face the same difficulty if they translated "farmhand" as KAREHGAR MAZRAEH (Aryanpur Kashni, 1377, p. 506) which defines it as a "person" rather than "an animal" working on a farm.

The results of the present study show that helping English learners create mental concepts in English rather than in Persian and then relate them to other concepts expressed by the schemata comprising the text enables them to read unseen passages and understand them better than those who activate the same concepts in their first language statically and thus fail to improve them in the light of what they read. Reading comprehension ability is, therefore, a process of activating one's previously acquired knowlede of each schema appearing in a text and enriching it by relating it to other schemata comprising the text. The SBT group of the present study, for example, learned that a farmhand can be "a funny and clever monkey who can ride on a back of bicycle to reach a farm to pick up ripe coconuts".

The establishment and enrichment of schemata via SBT is a multidimensional process in which syntax, semantics and discourse are employed simultaneously by parsing, identifying and categorising the schemata comprising the texts into their syntactic, semantic and parasyntactic domains, genera, species and types. The schema "farmhand", for example, is a type of *compound* noun *species* forming the *noun genus* of *semantic* domain. The teachers will be eductionally well equipped if they schematically analyse the texts they want to teach and define their course objectives on the bais of this analysis. For example, the analysis of the four lessons taught in this study shows that the teachers' main job is to teach 175(62.5%) semantic, 75 (26.5%) syntactic and 31 (11%) parasyntactic schema types. Since most of the schemata to be taught are semantic in nature, they should not, therefore, devote the main part of their time to grammar as TBT does.

As the results of this study show SBT brings about significantly higher achievement as reflected in reading unseen passages. Higher achievement could not, however, be shown on achievement S-Test, grammar MCIT and matching vocabulary test as a result of some intervening variables. First, the students in TBT group were studying in a boarding school; thus, they came from different villages in Koohsorkh. The SBT group were, however, studying in a daily school. The former group is more motivated than the latter as reflected in their non-signicantly higher mean score on the pre S-Test (33.90 vs 29.27). It is, therefore, suggested that the study be replicated with more homogenous groups. For example, both SBT and TBT groups be chosen from boarding schools.

In addition to having participants from two different types of high schools, the teachers offering the course were different. The second author taught the SBT group while the TBT group was taught by a colleague of hers. Since the authors could not observe al the sessions offered in the TBT, the teacher might have done some extra activities to provide a more favourable picture of her teaching. It is, therefore, suggested that the study be replicated by having both groups be taught by the same teacher as Khodadady and Elahi (2012) did. Alternatively, groups with almost the same mean scores on pretest should be chosen by encouraging more teachers to take part in the project.

APPENDIX. PRE S-TEST

Direction: Read the passages below and choose the best answer marked A, B, C and D. After choosing the best answer, fill in the box corresponding to the number of question in your answer sheet.
Passage 1:
This is a picture of a …1… . You see some people in ....2…. . Mohsen and his father are sitting …..3….. a bench. Mohsen's father is …4…. a newspaper. But Mohsen is eating some ….5….. . He is fifteen years old. There is a small …6… on the bench. It's Mohsen's bag. You see a small …7… near them. The wheels of the bicycle are small, too. It isn't Mohsen's bicycle. …..8….. bicycle is big.

1	**A**	hospital	**B**	park	**C**	school	**D**	library
2	**A**	it	**B**	him	**C**	them	**D**	her
3	**A**	in	**B**	on	**C**	by	**D**	under
4	**A**	eating	**B**	leaving	**C**	reading	**D**	teaching
5	**A**	milk	**B**	tea	**C**	ice-cream	**D**	water
6	**A**	bench	**B**	bicycle	**C**	bag	**D**	picture
7	**A**	bench	**B**	bicycle	**C**	bag	**D**	picture
8	**A**	Her	**B**	His	**C**	Your	**D**	My

Passage 2:

My father has a lot of books. He reads different books. He usually …9… after dinner. He ….10…. books are our good friends. They teach us a lot of things. He buys several books ….11…. month. He buys some books for ….12…. and my sister, too. My sister ….13…. about 4. She likes books with ….14…. in them. She learns many things from them. I like my books …15… much. They are my good friends …16… teachers. I usually read them after I do my homework.

9	**A**	walks	**B**	eats	**C**	wakes up	**D**	reads
10	**A**	speaks	**B**	listens	**C**	says	**D**	looks
11	**A**	all	**B**	every	**C**	some	**D**	many
12	**A**	us	**B**	him	**C**	them	**D**	me
13	**A**	am	**B**	is	**C**	have	**D**	has
14	**A**	pictures	**B**	problems	**C**	programs	**D**	places
15	**A**	very	**B**	not	**C**	every	**D**	how
16	**A**	but	**B**	and	**C**	that	**D**	when

Passage 3:

…17… are many animals in the zoo. Many of ….18…. are wild. Lions and …19… are wild animals. Some of these wild animals come ….20…. Africa. Some of the …21… in the zoo are not wild. Camels and …22… are not wild. Wild animals eat a lot of food . Tigers and lions eat a lot of ….23…. .

17	**A**	They	**B**	You	**C**	There	**D**	We
18	**A**	them	**B**	us	**C**	him	**D**	me
19	**A**	horses	**B**	camels	**C**	tigers	**D**	cats
20	**A**	in	**B**	on	**C**	by	**D**	from
21	**A**	lions	**B**	animals	**C**	tigers	**D**	camels
22	**A**	horses	**B**	lions	**C**	tigers	**D**	dogs
23	**A**	milk	**B**	meat	**C**	fruits	**D**	bread

Passage 4:

Every morning Mahmood and his friend, Mehdi, walk to …24… . They are ….25…. at school before eight o'clock. But yesterday they …26… not. They waited for the bus for half an …27… . They ….31…. at school at 8. The door of the classroom was not …28… . Mehdi opened the door and they ….29…. in. Their …30… was not in the classroom. Mehdi and his friend walked to ….31…. desks. A few minutes …32…. , the teacher opened the door and walked in. He said hello to his students. They opened their books and ….33…. to the teacher.

24	**A**	work	**B**	school	**C**	class	**D**	home
25	**A**	never	**B**	sometimes	**C**	usually	**D**	always
26	**A**	was	**B**	will	**C**	were	**D**	are
27	**A**	evening	**B**	afternoon	**C**	accident		hour
28	**A**	waited	**B**	walked	**C**	arrived	**D**	left
29	**A**	open	**B**	ready	**C**	closed	**D**	heavy
30	**A**	waited	**B**	walked	**C**	arrived	**D**	left
31	**A**	friends	**B**	parents	**C**	teacher	**D**	brother
32	**A**	his	**B**	her	**C**	our	**D**	their
33	**A**	ago	**B**	yet	**C**	now	**D**	later
34	**A**	pointed	**B**	listened	**C**	spoke	**D**	walked

Passage 5:

My family and I …35… to Mashhad two years ago. We stayed …36… for two weeks. We had a very good time there. We visited many places. We went to the Holy Shrine several …37… . A lot of people …38… to Mashhad each year. They come from ….39…. parts of the country. Last summer my friend, Nahid, went to Shiraz. Her ….40…. come from Shiraz. …41… they live in Tehran. She stayed in her grandfather's house. Her uncles and aunt ….42…. there, …43… . They were very kind and Nahid …..44….. her visit very much.

35	A	go	B	goes	C	will go	D	went
36	A	this	B	there	C	that	D	here
37	A	tickets	B	times	C	things	D	towns
38	A	go	B	goes	C	Will go	D	went
39	A	different	B	cheap	C	heavy	D	dirty
40	A	friends	B	teachers	C	children	D	parents
41	A	Soon	B	Next	C	Now	D	Later
42	A	like	B	leave	C	live	D	look
43	A	so	B	too	C	very	D	perhaps
44	A	helped	B	enjoyed	C	spent	D	bought

Passage 6:

Mr Irani goes shopping every Thursday. He usually ….45…. some fruits, vegetables and other things. Last Thursday, he went shopping with …46… friend, Mr Taheri. They ….47.... a taxi to the shopping center. There were a lot of ….48…. in the shopping center. They …49… many things: apples, peaches, onions, and potatoes. On the way home they went to the baker's. They bought some ….50... . Mr Taheri needed some meat, …51… they went to the …52…, too.

45	A	gives	B	begins	C	buys	D	knows
46	A	her	B	their	C	its	D	his
47	A	took	B	talked	C	thought	D	taught
48	A	teachers	B	farmers	C	shoppers	D	drivers
49	A	began	B	bought	C	broke	D	brought
50	A	fruits	B	vegetables	C	milk	D	bread
51	A	so	B	but	C	then	D	because
52	A	baker's	B	library	C	butcher's	D	shopping center

Passage 7:

It is Thursday. There is a football ….53…. at Azadi Stadium. We are going to the stadium this afternoon. Everybody can see the match. They can stay at home and …54… TV. We should ….55…. home at one. We may take a taxi. We should be ….56…. . They close the doors of the stadium at 2:45. We don't want to be …57… . But many people go by …58… because it's very cheap. People ….59…. have a good time at the stadium. My friends and I …60… go there by bus. We don't take a taxi because it's ….61…. . Young people usually go the stadium for football matches. They have a good time there and enjoy the …62….

53	A	game	B	program	C	news	D	match
54	A	see	B	look	C	visit		watch
55	A	go	B	take	C	leave	D	get
56	A	in time	B	late	C	soon	D	ready
57	A	in time	B	late	C	soon	D	ready
58	A	taxi	B	bicycle	C	bus	D	car
59	A	can	B	do	C	should	D	does
60	A	never	B	sometimes	C	ever	D	usually
61	A	old	B	expensive	C	cheap	D	new
62	A	cartoons	B	films	C	news	D	games

Passage 8:

Mr Kamali and his family are from Tehran. They now live …63… Birjand. They had a difficult …64… in Tehran. They think people in small towns have a …65… life. They don't …66… many of problems that people have in big cities. There are not many …67… in the streets. And they don't …68… a lot of time in the heavy traffic every day. They can get the things they need easily and …69… . People are not always in a …70… . They have a lot of …71… time. They can visit their relatives and friends. People are not very ….72…. in small towns. And they help you …73… you need them.

63	A	on	B	at	C	in	D	to
64	A	lunch	B	life	C	lesson	D	lion
65	A	hard	B	happy	C	heavy	D	holy
66	A	have	B	get	C	help	D	need
67	A	games	B	benches	C	tickets	D	cars
68	A	spend	B	want	C	sleep	D	walk
69	A	hard	B	carefully	C	fast	D	carelessly
70	A	hour	B	hair	C	house	D	hurry
71	A	hard	B	free	C	busy	D	bad
72	A	free	B	dirty	C	busy	D	ready
73	A	when	B	and	C	that	D	but

Passage 9:

Tomorrow Hamid will ….74…. at half past five. He will wash and pray. Then he will …75… his breakfast. They usually have bread and cheese for …76…. He will put on his …77… . He will go to school by bus. His first lesson, English, will begin at eight o'clock. He will have …78… break at 9:30. After the break, …79… will have Arabic. After …80…., all the students will go home. He will get home at 12:30. He will have his lunch at 1:30. After lunch, he will ….81…. his homework, and …82… he will watch …83… . He usually goes to bed at 9:30.

74	**A**	get up	**B**	sleep	**C**	go to bed	**D**	sit
75	**A**	drink	**B**	read	**C**	say	**D**	have
76	**A**	breakfast	**B**	lunch	**C**	evening	**D**	dinner
77	**A**	bag	**B**	clothes	**C**	watch	**D**	dress
78	**A**	some	**B**	two	**C**	a	**D**	the
79	**A**	we	**B**	you	**C**	they	**D**	she
80	**A**	sleep	**B**	home	**C**	school	**D**	Break
81	**A**	have	**B**	do	**C**	take	**D**	Get
82	**A**	so	**B**	now	**C**	perhaps	**D**	then
83	**A**	picture	**B**	relative	**C**	television	**D**	phone

This is the end of the test.

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Translators' Subjectivity on the Lexical Level under the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory— A Case Study of the English Version of *Fortress Besieged*

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Abstract—**Traditional translation studies are source-text oriented, which usually ignore the study on translators and thereby make translators' status marginalized; however, the "cultural turn" in the 1970s in translation studies expands the space of translation studies and makes translators' subjectivity a hot topic. In this paper, the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory, proposed by Jef. Verschueren in his famous monograph Understanding Pragmatics is applied to the analysis of translators' subjectivity. According to the theory, using language must consist of the continuous making of linguistic choices consciously or unconsciously, for language-internal and/or external reasons. As an actual language use, translation practice is also entangled with translators' subjective choice-makings, both in form and in strategy. This paper offers the definition of translators' subjectivity under the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory and selects Kelly & Mao's English version Fortress Besieged to study the manifestation of the translators' subjectivity in it from the lexical level. It is found that in their intentional choice-making process of translation, the translators of Fortress Besieged give full play to their subjectivity to make the target text adapt to the linguistic and cultural contexts of the target language. After the analysis on the lexical level, this paper concludes that the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory has powerful explanatory competence on the translators' subjectivity displayed in the English version of Fortress Besieged and the so-called unfaithfulness in the target text is the result of the translators' incessant adaptive choice-makings to achieve the translation purpose and the communicative effect of the target text.**

Index Terms—**translators' subjectivity, the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory, the lexical level, *Fortress Besieged***

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditional translation studies are source-text oriented, which usually ignore the study on translators and thereby make translators' status marginalized; however, the "cultural turn" in the 1970s in translation studies expands the space of translation studies and makes translators' subjectivity a hot topic.

Among a variety of linguistic approaches which have been employed in the analysis of translation, the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory, proposed by Verschueren, provides a new perspective. Verschueren (2005) assumes that language use is a continuous making of linguistic choices with different degrees of salience for the purpose of adaptation. Translation, as a kind of language use, is no exception. Translators, first as readers, understand original texts through their languages; then as mediators, transfer source texts through their adaptation to their target languages. The whole translation process involves translators' incessant adaptive choice-makings in language form and content as well as in translation strategies.

On the subject of translation, many scholars in translation study field have written articles but have not reached a consensus. Generally there are four viewpoints: (1) the translator (2) the author and the translator (3) the translator and the readers (4) the author, the translator and the reader (Xu Jun, 2003). Although they seem to be confusing, all of these four opinions are supported by the developing philosophy and literary theories. Under the guidance of different theories, scholars form different viewpoints on the subject-object relation, the text-translator relation, and the author-translator-reader relation.

French scholar Antoine Berman states that both in translation criticism study and in its practical performance, people have to take translators as the subject, which ought to be considered a fundamental proposition (Xu Jun, 2003).

Yang Wuneng (1987) thinks that the subject of literary translation is the author, the translator and the reader. He holds that the source text and the target text are merely tools or carriers through which the translator and the author communicate with each other; however, in translation process, the translator occupies the center, performing all of the active work. In Yang' viewpoint, target text is a product made by the cooperative efforts of the author, the translator and the reader.

Xu Jun (2003) points out that studies on translation subject develop from the traditional author-centered model to the active conversations among the author, the translator and the reader. In the latter model, the translator becomes the core of this conversation and functions most actively in contrast to the author and the reader who are also regarded as the subject of translation activity. Actually, Xu classifies the subject of translation in two categories: the broad sense and the narrow sense. In the broad sense, the author, the translator and the reader are looked upon as the translation subject;

whereas, in the narrow sense, the translation subject refers merely to the translator.

Based on various definitions of translation, Zha Mingjian & Tian Yu (2003) put forward their understanding of translation subject. If translation refers to the process of translation, translation subject should refer to the translator. The original text, the author and the reader therefore are the objects which the translator's practical activity aims at. In this sense, the original text becomes the object for the translator to understand, interpret while the author an assistant who helps the translator to complete the translation activity, and the reader the direction which the translation practice points to. If the concept of translation involves not only the translation activity, but also all of the relevant factors that affect translation activity, then the author and the reader should be counted in as part of translation subject.

From the above discussion on translation subject, it can be seen that the translator is always considered the most crucial and active element in translation activity, while the author and the reader only appear in some related links of translation process. This thesis focuses merely on the initiative and creative role that translators play in translation process; thereby, the subject of translation herein refers to translators and the subjectivity of translation is confined to translators' subjectivity.

Fortress Besieged written by Mr. Ch'ien Chung-shu was translated into English by Jeanne Kelly and Nathan K. Mao. The English version achieved great success and was regarded as "the most outstanding academic works" by the American Books Association from 1980 to 1981. However, this English version also encounters such criticism both at home and abroad as mistranslation, impure English, the abuse of American slang and idioms, and rigid cultural transplantation, etc. Most of the criticism is discussed from the angle of the traditional translation outlook, ignoring the translators' subjectivity in the translation process. This paper carries out a tentative research on one part of translators' subjectivity in *Fortress Besieged* from the angle of the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory on the lexical level, aiming to prove that the translator's subjectivity displayed in *Fortress Besieged* can be adequately explained by the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory.

II.   THE TRANSLATORS' SUBJECTIVITY ON THE LEXICAL LEVEL IN THE ENGLISH VERSION OF FORTRESS BESIEGED UNDER THE PRAGMATIC ADAPTATION THEORY

A.   Translators' Subjectivity

Translators are the only subject in translation process, so the quality of the final translation totally depends upon their ability of understanding and choice-making. In order to successfully transfer the meanings of original texts without bringing about understanding obstacles for their expected readers, translators, as the central figures in translation process, have to take into account the linguistic and cultural context of the target language, and make flexible adaptations where it is necessary. Only in this way can they improve the readability and acceptability of the target text and in the meantime achieve their translation purposes. So translators' subjectivity under the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory is defined as "translators' manipulating force which guides them to make continuous adaptive linguistic choices, both consciously and unconsciously, during translation process in order to achieve their intended translation purposes". The manipulating force mainly refers to the initiative and creativity that are manifested by translators in their adaptive choice-makings while translating. In other words, in translation process, translators' subjectivity is mainly displayed in their adaptive understanding of the source text and the dynamic adaptive choice-making of language forms and translation strategies. In this sense, we can say the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory is explicative for translators' subjectivity.

The choice-makings may occur at different structural levels of language, but this paper focuses on its lexical level in *Fortress Besieged*, which can best manifest the translator's subjectivity.

B.   The Translators' Subjectivity on Lexical Level

The analysis of the manifestation of the translators' subjectivity on Lexical Level in *Fortress Besieged* will be presented from the following angles: addition, omission, substitution, shift of perspective.

a. Addition

The translators in the translation process of *Fortress Besieged* make this linguistic choice by adding information to the original text to make the target text more adaptive to the reception context so as to achieve the intended purpose.

Example 1

ST: 诗人听了，欢喜得圆如<u>太极</u>的肥脸上泛出黄油。

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.77)

TT: Upon hearing this, the poet was so delighted that his plum face, as round as the <u>T'ai-chi diagram</u>.

(Kelly & Mao, 2003, p.239)

In this example, "太极" was translated into "T'ai-chi diagram". If it is translated literally into "T'ai-chi", western readers would feel rather confused, for many westerners will mistake T'ai-chi for one of the most popular martial arts in China. So the translators make the choice of addition to render the source text to help the target readers catch the real meaning of "太极" herein.

Example 2

ST: 总而言之，批分数该<u>雪中送炭</u>，万万不能悭吝。

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.242)

TT: One should "send coal when it snows", that is, provide that which is most needed, and never be stingy.

(Kelly & Mao, 2003, p.224)

In this example, to make "雪中送炭" more understandable, the translators add an explanation to its literal translation.

Example 3

ST: 只可惜把太阳旗误认为真的太阳。

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.339)

TT: The only trouble being that it mistook the sun flag (of Japan) for the real sun.

(Kelly &Mao, 2003, p.315)

In the target text of Example 8 two words "(of Japan)" is added to "the sun flag". With the added information, westerners need not bother to make guesswork at what the sun flag stands for and thereby are enabled to catch easily the meaning implied in the source text.

After the analysis of the three examples, it can be concluded that by adopting addition, the translators make the target text more understandable and acceptable, so that the target text can realize their communicative function. That is to say, it is just due to the employment of addition that the translators make the target text more adaptive to the cognitive world of western readers.

b. Omission

This linguistic choice made by the translators when they reckon that the omission of some words does not impair the western readers' comprehension of the target text.

Example 4

ST: 太太不忠实，偷人，丈夫做了乌龟，买彩票准中头奖，赌钱准赢。

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.5)

TT: Mr. Fang said that if the wife is unfaithful and has an affair, the husband is sure to take first prize if he buys a lottery ticket, and he is sure to win if he gambles.

(Kelly& Mao, 2003, p.6)

Example 5

ST: 同事们相信他的吹牛。

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.247)

TT: His colleagues believed him anyway.

(Kelly & Mao, 2003, p.229)

In Example 4, "做了乌龟" in the source text is omitted in the target text, since its meaning can be implied from the context of the sentence, the translators do not bother to translate it. In Example 10, "吹牛" in ST is omitted in TT for the same reason. From the analysis of these two examples, it can be concluded that the translators sometimes resort to omission to make the target text more concise and acceptable to its readers, provided that the adoption of omission does not bring about obstacles among western readers in their reading process. By so doing, the translators avoid redundancy and thus improve the acceptability of the target text.

c. Substitution

Because of the great differences between the Chinese readers and the westerners in culture, language, society and so on, some images and concepts in *Fortress Besieged* are beyond the westerners' encyclopedic information; thereby, the translators choose the technique, substitution to cope with this problem so that they make their linguistic choices adapt to the linguistic or communicative context of the target text.

Example 6

ST: 正懒在床上胡想，鲍小姐外面弹舱壁，骂他"懒虫"，叫他快起来，同上岸去玩。

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.17)

TT: Just as he was loafing in bed, thinking of that nonsense, Miss Pao tapped on the outside of his cabin, called him "lazybones", and told him to hurry and get up so they could go ashore and have fun.

(Kelly and Mao, 2003, p.19)

Example 7

ST: 李梅亭拍手说："这真是天罚他，瞧这混蛋还要撒野不撒野。这旅馆里的饭不必请教了，他们俩已经替咱们做了试验品。"

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.186)

TT: Li Mei-t'ing clapped his hands and said, "It must be heaven's punishment. Now we'll see whether that rascal gets out of hand again. We don't need to try the food in this hotel any more. Those two have already acted as guinea pigs for us."

(Kelly & Mao, 2003, p.173)

Example 8

ST: 明早夫妻间还是鸦雀无声。

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.368)

TT: The next morning husband and wife continued to maintain a stony silence.

(Kelly & Mao, 2003, p.343)

Example 9

ST: 你把针在面上转一圈，听见东一个电台半句京戏，西一个电台一句报告，忽然又是半句外国歌啦，半句昆曲啦，<u>鸡零狗碎</u>，凑在一起，莫名其妙。

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.323)

TT: You give the dial a turn and catch a phrase of Peking opera from this radio station, a phrase of an announcement from that one, and then suddenly a phrase of a foreign song, a melody--- <u>bits and pieces</u> which make no sense when all brought together.

(Kelly & Mao, 2003, p.299-300)

Example 10

ST: 切不可<u>锦上添花</u>，让学生把分数看得太贱，功课看得太容易。

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.242)

TT: Nor on the other hand should one <u>gild the lily</u>, letting the students regard grades as too cheap or their schoolwork as too easy.

(Kelly & Mao, 2003, p.224)

The above examples exemplify the employment of substitution in the translation process of *Fortress Besieged*. The underlined Chinese words or set phrases do not have their complete equivalents in English, and the literal translation of them would undoubtedly puzzle the western reader. The translators thereby replace them with the functionally equivalent images. Although the original linguistic properties are not completely preserved, the westerners can still appreciate the same contextual effects as Chinese readers through translators' choice-makings of proper words and phrases in English. From this point of view, the translators' subjectivity embodied in the course of translation to adapt to the contextual correlates is decisive.

d. **Translators' Shift of Perspective**

Shift of perspective is a technique to work around the differences in languages, mediating between the source language and target language. In other words, by adopting the technique, the shift of perspective, the translators make a compromise between the two cultures concerned. The theoretical support lies in the fact that target language users differ to some degree from source language users in the ways of viewing the world, but they share some common understanding of the world. Sometimes translation problems can be resolved immediately if translators change their perspectives or express the same idea in another way.

Example 11

ST: （鸿渐）忙将本电报明码翻出来是："敬聘为<u>教挼</u>月薪三百四十元酌送路费盼<u>电霸</u>国立三闾大学校长高松年"。"<u>教挼</u>" 即 "<u>教授</u>" 的错误，"<u>电霸</u>" 准是 "<u>电复</u>"。

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.109)

TT: He quickly got a telegraph code book and transcribed it as follows: "Offer position as <u>possessor</u>. Monthly salary $340 plus travel expenses. Please <u>ware reply</u>. National San Lü University President Kao Sung-nien." "<u>Possessor</u>" was a mistake for "<u>professor</u>" and "<u>ware reply</u>" must be "<u>wire reply</u>".

(Kelly & Mao, 2003, p.100)

In this example, the similarity between "电复" and "电霸" is substituted by the similarity between "wire reply" and "ware reply"; the similarity between "教授" and "教挼" is substituted by the similarity between "professor" and "possessor". From this example, we can see the translators make full use of their initiative and creativity to make the target text more adaptive to the mental world of the target readers and thereby realize the communicative function of the English version. The following is another example:

Example 12

ST: 鸿渐道："我忘掉问你，你信上叫我'<u>同情兄</u>'， 那是什么意思？"辛楣笑道："这是董斜川想出来的。 他说同跟一个先生念书的叫'同师兄弟'，同在一个学校的叫'同学'，同有一个情人的该叫'<u>同情</u>'"。

(Ch'ien, 2002, p.134)

TT: "I forgot to ask you. In your letter, you called me '<u>lovemate</u>'. What do you mean by that?" Hsin-mei said with a grin, "That's something Tung Hsien-ch'uan thought up. He says people who study under the same teacher are called classmates, and people who go to the same school are called schoolmates, so people who are in love with the same girl should be called '<u>lovemates</u>'.

(Kelly & Mao, 2003, p.123-124)

In this example, the writer creates "同情" by imitating "同学", and the translators correspondingly create a nonce word "lovemate" to render the nonce-word "同情"(同有情人) in the original. "-mate" is a commonly used suffix to form compounds which means person participating in the same activity, organization, or sharing the same accommodation. The English rule of word-formation permits the suffixation of –mate to a noun, to convey the meaning "belongs to the same organization", as in "classmate" and "roommate". However, this suffix cannot be added after "love" to mean "have the same lover" according to conventions. The nonce-word "lovemate" enables the target text readers to appreciate the humor in the same way as the source text readers do.

Example 13

ST: 偏偏结婚的那个星期三，天气是秋老虎，热得厉害。我在路上就想，<u>侥天之幸</u>，今天不是我做新郎。
(Ch'ien, 2002, p.149)

TT: Well, the Wednesday of their wedding turned out to be an "autumn tiger", a real scorcher. On the way there I thought, <u>thank God</u>, I'm not the bridegroom today.
(Kelly & Mao, 2003, p.136)

In this example, the translators translated "侥天之幸" into "thank God" rather than "thank heaven" in order to adapt to the mental world of the western readers. Because influenced by Christianity the majority of westerners believe in God while Chinese believe in heaven mainly for the impact of Confucianism, Taoism and Buddhism.

In Examples 11-13, the shift of perspective is adopted in the translation process. The target text seems to be competing with the source text due to the translators' subjectivity fully played in the English version. Through the choice-making of this technique, shift of perspective, the translators have enhanced the readability of the target text so that the target text readers can experience the same enjoyment in reading as the source text readers.

III. Conclusion

This paper makes a tentative probe into the manifestation of the translators' subjectivity on the lexical level in *Fortress Besieged* under the guidance of the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory. Based on Verschueren's Pragmatic Adaptation Theory and the qualitative analysis of translators' subjectivity, along with the empirical case study of *Fortress Besieged* concerning the manifestation of the translators' subjectivity in it on the lexical level, the author arrives at the following conclusions:

Firstly, the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory, with which Verschueren intends to give a general exploration on language use, has powerful explanatory competence on the study of translation process and translators' shift of perspective. It can help us to analyze translators' choice-making process and find out the factors that influence their decisions.

Secondly, in translation process, translators usually give full play to their initiative and creativity to make their specific linguistic choices to adapt to specific contextual correlates on different structural levels at high level of salience to reach the points of satisfaction and the communicative needs. So it is safe to say the synthesizing of the study of translators' subjectivity with the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory justifies the translators' subjectivity in the translation process of *Fortress Besieged*.

Thirdly, through the analysis of the examples taken from *Fortress Besieged* from the Pragmatic Adaptation Theory, it can be seen that the translators' performance needs to be reconfirmed, for most of the translation problems concerning "unfaithfulness" are the result of the translators' intentional choice-makings to adapt to the linguistic and communicative contexts of the target text. In this sense, the so-called unfaithfulness caused by linguistic or cultural adaptations can not be avoided. After all, whether we admit it or not, translators will never escape the influence of their own language and culture. Objectively speaking, the nature of translation determines that no translation would be perfect without any inadequacy, just as Gentzler said "no translation is entirely adequate to the original version, because the cultural norms cause shifts from the source text structures" (Gentzler, 2004: 126). The translators, therefore, should not be excessively demanded and their names are to be rectified.

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A Survey of Postgraduates' State of Language Learning at Graduate School, Chinese Academy of Social Science

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Abstract—**Learning English has become a nationwide endeavor in China nowadays, and a great number of researches have been conducted to analyze the state of language learning mainly among undergraduates. This survey was done to investigate the postgraduates' state of language learning at Graduate School of Chinese Academy of Social Science in order to stand a better position to improve their language learning. The survey shows that postgraduates have strong motivations (intrinsic and extrinsic) to learn English and consequently they make investment (spend time, effort or money) in learning English. The survey also indicates that it seems unnecessary to worry about Chinese language and culture in the context of English fever at Graduate School of Chinese Academy of Social Science since postgraduates have a strong identity with their mother tongue --- Chinese and most of them deny that English learning has a negative effect on Chinese learning. Consequently, postgraduate schools should help students to maintain their motivation or even expand their intrinsic motivation to learn English without too much concern about the perception that Chinese will be undermined owing to the "craze" for English learning.**

Index Terms—**language learning, postgraduates, motivation, English, Chinese**

I. INTRODUCTION

The language of language has gradually attained a "genuinely global status" with a "special role that is recognized in every country" as a national language, official language or priority foreign language (Crystal, 1997, p.2).

Learning English has become a nationwide endeavor pursued at all academic levels in China, which is no exception at the Graduate School of Chinese Academy of Social Science (GSCASS). By contrast, Chinese language, as the mother tongue of most Chinese, seems to be less significant than English and has practically been ignored by universities since there are barely any Chinese courses. The survey was conducted to find out what the state of language learning (e.g. attitude, motivation, need, and identity) is in order to stand a better position to understand and improve the language learning at GSCASS.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Researchers have long been interested in the attitudes of the learner towards the target language. The study of language attitudes traces back to the work of Gardener and Lambert (1972). According to Gardener (1985), attitude is relevant to a person's values and beliefs in language learning. Gardener defined motivation as the combination of desire and effort made to achieve a goal which is associated with the learner's rationale for learning activity and degree of effort employed in achieving goals. Later Gardner and MacIntyre (1993) redefined motivation as a complex construct, which consists of three main components: "desire to achieve a goal, effort extended in this direction, and satisfaction with the task" (p.2).

Gardner and Lambert (1972) distinguished instrumental motivation, which occurs when a learner has a functional goal, and integrative motivation, which occurs when a learner wishes to identify with the culture of the L2 group.

While Gardner's regarded motivation as a static factor in the process of learning a second/foreign language, Deci and Ryan (1985) regarded motivation as a dynamic concept in the framework of self-determination theory. They distinguished amotivation, extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. Students with amotivaion consider it meaningless at all to learn a foreign language and are reluctant to spend any time on it. Extrinsic motivation is the result of any number of outside factors (e.g., the need to get English certificates). In contrast, intrinsic motivation origins from within the individual, (e.g., the learner's interest in the targeted language).

Peirce (1995) criticized conceptions of motivation raised by Lambert and Gardner (1972, 1985). She came up with a dynamic notion --- investment which means if learners invest in a second/foreign language because they believe that they could gain more symbolic and material resources, which would expand the value of their cultural capital. She then argued that this return on investment must correspond with the effort expended on learning the second/foreign language.

In the past ten years, many researches have been done to identify the motivation of language learning motivation, to explore the relationship between language attitude and language learning. Williams, Burden, and Lanvers (2002) examined the foreign language learners' motivation at the secondary school in the South-west of England. They found that girls' motivation was higher than boys' and that there was a negative correlation between age and motivation. Gan, Humphreys, and Hamp-Lyons (2004) suggested that different levels of success in EFL could attribute to a complicated and dynamic interaction of internal cognition and affect, external stimuli, and social setting. Chen, Warden and Chang (2005) investigated motivation constructs of foreign language learning in a Chinese cultural context in Taiwan. Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) employed structural equation modeling to assess a theoretical model which was concerned with the internal organization of the second language motivation complex and its effect on motivated behavior. Lamb (2007) conducted a longitudinal research into the Indonesian adolescents' attitudes toward learning English at junior high schools over the first twenty months. He revealed that the learners maintained the positive attitudes towards English and prospects of success during the period. Gao, Zhao, Cheng and Zhou (2007) explored the relationship between undergraduates' English learning motivation types and their self-identity changes in China. They found seven types of motivation including going abroad, social responsibility, immediate achievement, learning situation, intrinsic interest, individual development, and information medium. Pratt, Agnello and Santos (2009) found that the career benefit was the strongest motivation for starting to study Spanish, and the score was the strongest motivation for pursuing the study of Spanish in high school in the USA.

In the context of "English fever" in China, some worried that Chinese culture and identity will be eroded. Giles and Johnson (as cited in Gao, Li, & Bian, 2008) raised Ethnolinguistic Identity Theory and produced a set of criteria which could predict ethnic group's language vitality. According to their criteria, people will maintain their language and identity when they have a very strong identity with his ethnic group and have a weak identity with other groups, and believe that their native language is the important factor in the group.

Some also claimed that the international spread of English marginalizes the status of local languages as well as potentially undermining local culture. To understand of the wide spread of English in the world, Kachru (Bhatt 2001)conceived the idea of three concentric circles of the language The "inner circle" (e.g., UK, USA) represents the traditional bases of English dominated by the mother tongue varieties of the language. In the "outer circle," (e.g., India, Singapore) English has been institutionalized as an additional language. The "expanding circle" (e.g., China, Japan) English is used as the primary foreign language. The inner circle is norm-providing, which means that English language norms are developed in these countries. The outer circle is norm-developing. And the expanding circle (much of the rest of the world) is norm-dependent in that it relies on the standards set by native speakers in the inner circle. Some claim that the international spread of English marginalizes the status of local and regional languages as well as potentially undermining or eroding local culture. Phillipson (2000) offered some valid criticisms of theory and practice in the spread of English and proposed linguistic imperialism which means "the dominance of English is asserted and maintained by the establishment and continuous reconstitution of structural and cultural inequalities between English and other language" (p.46). He then analyzed how English language teaching contributes to the dominance of English worldwide which further erodes the local language and culture. However, Spichtinger (2000) rejected linguistic imperialism and argued that the global spread of English is better understood in the framework of appropriation --- English is used around the world for regional purpose. Tarling (2009, p14) suggested the term of "globalization" to replace "imperialism" which "seems to provide a better context for the study of the spread of English, it's challenges and its achievements, and its deficiencies, than imperialism"

In summary, there are not so many researches done where English serves as a foreign language instead of a second language. And Chinese researchers (Wu, Liu, & Jeffrey, 1993; Wen & Johnson, 1997; Gao, Cheng, Zhao, & Zhou, 2003; Ma, 2005; Xu, Peng, & Wu, 2004; Zhou, Gao, & Zang, 2011) have mainly focused their research on the undergraduates' foreign language learning motivation and achievement. There is barely any research on Chinese postgraduates' state of language learning.

III. PRESENTATION OF DATA

The research was conducted by inviting postgraduates at GSCASS to complete an on-line questionnaire (http://www.sojump.com) (see Appendix B). The questionnaire was mainly concerned with students' state of language learning including language learning attitude, motivation, requirement and language identity.

Seventy one students participated in the questionnaire survey from November 13th to November 27th, among whom 63% were PhD candidates while 37% were Master students.

The overwhelming majority of participants (97%) considered learning English important (8%), very important (34%) or extremely important (55%) (fig.1). Meanwhile, 90% participants thought that the classmates around attached importance or much importance to learning English (fig.2). Only 3% thought that learning English at GSCASS is unimportant (fig.1).

In terms of learning time, 82% participants spent more than 2 hours per week in learning English except English class leaning and homework, among whom 38% spent more than 4 hours.

Whereas 70% participants thought that their English was average or poor, 73% showed self-confidence in learning English better. A significant number 65% claimed that they learned English mainly to learn the recent development of

their field abroad (fig.3). Interestingly, however, only 17% participants considered what they need to improve urgently is reading academic literature. 59% considered it necessary to hone their oral English and 48% claimed they needed to improve academic writing (fig.4).

When it comes to Chinese learning, 75% participants attached more importance to English than Chinese. However, 62% participants supported that GSCASS should establish Chinese as a compulsory course (fig.5) although 69% claimed that their Chinese are good or excellent.

99% of participants claimed that Chinese language is an integral part of the Chinese nation. And most of them (87%) would teach Chinese as their babies' first language suppose that they got married with an English language speaker (fig.6).

Only 14% participants strongly agreed that English learning has a negative influence on Chinese learning. And an even smaller number of participants (13%) thought that Chinese culture was eroded by western culture in the context of "English fever" (fig.7).

IV. ANALYSIS

Based on Gardner and MacIntyre's definition of motivation (1993), the majority of postgraduates attached much importance to English learning (fig.1 & fig.2), and consequently their desire to learn English is fairly strong, and most students had the self-confidence in learning English whose subsets included motivation according to Clement, Gardner, and Smythe (as cited in Peirce, 1995); nearly half of them spent a quarter of total learning time or even more in learning English and almost the same number of students enrolled up for an English training program and made an investment in improving their English, which could be regarded as learners' investment produced by Pierce (1995). Only a few students had amotivation defined by Deci and Ryan (1985) and they thought it was unimportant to learn English and practically the same proportion of students were reluctant to spend time in learning English.

Participants' motivation of learning English (fig.3) mainly originated from their individual, i.e. intrinsic motivation, for example, two fifths students learned English out of their interest and more than three fifth students with the motivation of catching up with the pioneering research abroad. A fair number of students also had the extrinsic motivation, for instance, the requirement of diploma and need for hunting a job, which could be classified as instrumental motivation produced by Gardner and Lambert (1972). A small number of students learned English in order to emigrate, which could be nearly regarded as the integrative motivation. It seems that Gardner and Lambert's distinction of motivation could not apply to Chinese students probably for a dearth of a second language ethnic group and setting in China.

In terms of language learning need, what postgraduates needed most to improve in learning English is speaking instead of academic reading skill, which do not match their leading motivation (to learn the pioneering research abroad) in that postgraduates might have equipped themselves with some academic reading skills over university education period, and also because China is lacking in authentic English communication environment.

Whereas most students attached more importance to English than Chinese and they claimed their Chinese were much better, they still insisted that GSCASS establish Chinese as a compulsory, which demonstrated students had a strong identity with their mother tongue.

The overwhelming majority of students believed that Chinese language is an integral feature of Chinese people. And most students showed strong loyalty to and identity with mother tongue since they preferred Chinese to be taught as their babies' first language if they got married with English native speakers. Hence, based on Giles and Johnson's work (as cited in Gao, Li, & Bian, 2008), we could predict our mother tongue's vitality. Most students did not believe that English learning has a negative influence on Chinese learning and the western culture is undermining the Chinese culture and language, which proved, from another perspective, students' confidence in mother tongue's vitality. Apparently, English dominance or empiricism could not apply to Chinese universities. For one thing, Chinese still maintain its vitality. For another, English is better understood in the framework of appropriation (Spichtinger, 2000) --- English is used merely for regional purpose, or to be specific, in the case of postgraduates, learning English is aimed to catch up with the pioneering research abroad as mentioned above.

V. CONCLUSION

This survey analyzed the postgraduates' state of language learning at GSCASS. It has been found that generally, postgraduates have a strong motivation to learn English since most of them consider English learning important or crucial and have confidence in learning English better; there are mainly two types of motivation among postgraduates: intrinsic and extrinsic motivations and the latter has a lot in common with instrumental motivations. Because of postgraduates' strong motivation in learning English, they invest much in it.

It seems unnecessary to worry about Chinese language in the context of "English fever" because a majority of postgraduates have a strong identity with Chinese and most of them deny that English learning has a negative effect on Chinese learning and that western culture is eroding Chinese counterpart.

According to the survey, GSCASS could help students to maintain their motivation or even expand their intrinsic motivation to learn English without too much concern about the idea that Chinese will be undermined owing to English learning "craze".

Clearly, our survey was limited to a relatively small sample by time constraints, and a fuller research might modify our findings in various ways. And further researches could be done to analyze the relationship between postgraduates' language learning motivation and their achievements.

APPENDIX A.   FIGURES

In your opinion, learning English is _____.
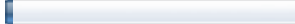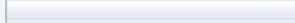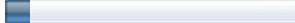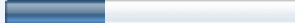
choices	n.	proportion	
unimportant	2		2.82%
less important	0		0%
important	6		8.45%
very important	24		33.8%
extremely important	39		54.93%
The number of participants	**71**		

Figure 1 Self-reported attitude towards English learning.

Students around you attach _____ to English learning.
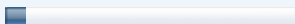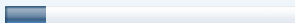
choices	n.	proportion	
no importance	2		2.82%
little importance	5		7.04%
importance	54		76.06%
much importance	10		14.08%
the number of participants	**71**		

Figure 2 Other students' attitude towards English learning from observation.

You learn English in order to _____. You could choose more than one answer.
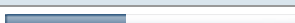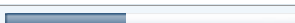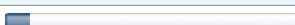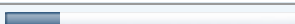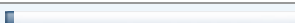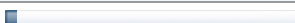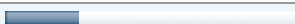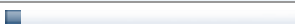
choices	n.	proportion	
out of interest	29		40.85%
to meet the requirement of degree	29		40.85%
to earn the certificate of English test	6		8.45%
to further the study abroad	13		18.31%
to learn the recent development of your field abroad	46		64.79%
to emigrate	2		2.82%
to travel abroad	3		4.23%
to hunt for a better job	18		25.35%
others	4		5.63%
The number of participants	**71**		

Figure 3 Motivations to learn English.

What do you think you need to improve most?   (You could choose more than one answer.)
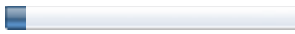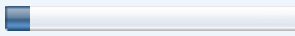
choices	n.	proportion	
listening	33		46.48%
speaking	42		59.15%
academic reading	12		16.9%
academic writing	34		47.89%
translation	5		7.04%
cultual and social background	6		8.45%
the number of participants	**71**		

Figure 4 English learning need.

Suppose GSCASS establishes Chinese as a compulsory course. You_____ of it.
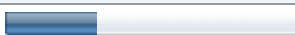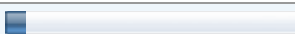
choices	n.	proportion	
strongly agree	20		28.17%
agree	24		33.8%
disagree	22		30.99%
strongly disgree	5		7.04%
the number of participants	**71**		

Figure 5 Attitude towards the establishment of Chinese as a compulsory.

If you got married with an English native speaker, what language would you give priority to while teaching your baby to speak?
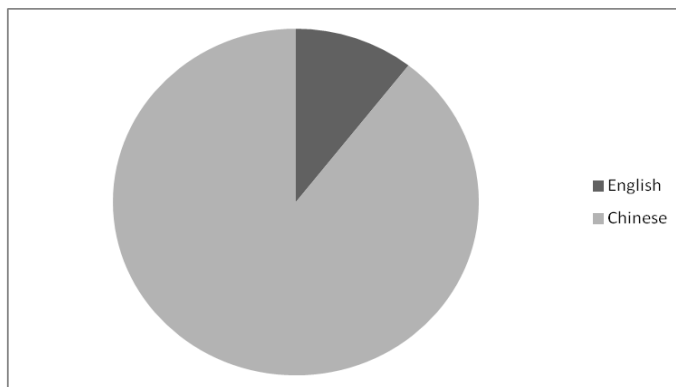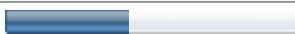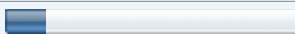

Figure 6 Attitude towards mother tongue.
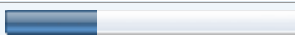
choices	n.	proportion	
strongly agree	9		12.68%
agree	22		30.99%
disagree	30		42.25%
strongly disagree	10		14.08%
the number of participants	**71**		

Figure 7 Attitude towards the idea that western culture is eroding Chinese culture.

"Owing to English fever, western culture is eroding Chinese culture."   You_____ with it.

APPENDIX B.   QUESTIONNAIRE

Tick one box □ if there is no specific emphasis.
1. Your gender: □male   □female
2. Your age:
   □15-20 □21-25 □26-30 □31-35 □36-40 □41-50
3. Your major is

□History □literature □Management □Economics □Law □Philosophy □Others
4. You are pursuing:
   □Master's degree   □Doctorate degree
5. You are:
   □a first-year student   □a second-year student   □a third-year student
6. In your opinion, learning English is _____.
   □unimportant   □less important   □important
   □very important   □extremely important
7. Your classmates around attach _____ to English learning.
   □no importance □little importance □importance □much importance
8. Except for learning time in class, you spend _____ in learning English every week.
   □never   □less than 2 hours   □2 hour to 3 hours
   □4 hours to 6 hours   □more than 6 hours
9. Except for learning time in class, the time in learning English accounts for about ____of total learning time.
   □Less than 1/5 □1/5 □1/4 □1/3 □1/2 □3/4 □more than 3/4
10. You have _____ in learning English.
    □much confidence   □confidence   □little confidence   □no confidence
11. You learn English____(You could choose more than one answer.)
    □ out of interest
    □ to meet the requirement of degree
    □ to earn the certificate of English test
    □ to further the study abroad
    □ to learn the recent development of your field abroad
    □ to emigrate
    □ to hunt for a better job
    □for other purposes
12. In your opinion, your English is_____.
    □excellent   □good   □fair   □poor
13. You need urgently to improve English_____. (You could choose more than one answer.)
    □listening   □speaking   □reading academic literature
    □academic writing   □to Chinese translation   □socio-cultural background knowledge
14. Have you signed up for English training program?
    □ No, and I am not going to.   □ No, but I plan to.
    □ Yes, once.   □. Yes, more than once.
15. You _____read Chinese literature (e.g. fictions).
    □ never   □ occasionally   □ usually   □ always
16. In your opinion, your Chinese is_____.
    □ Excellent   □ Good   □ Fair   □ Poor   □ Very poor
17. What is your classmates' attitude towards English and Chinese learning?
    □ They attach more importance to Chinese .
    □ They attach more importance to English.
    □ They attach almost the same importance to both.
    □ They attach almost the same importance to neither.
18. Do you know about HSK?
    □Not at all.   □A little.   □A lot.   □I took it once.
    □ I took it more than once.
19. Do you know about IELTS?
    □Not at all.   □A little.   □A lot.   □I took it once.
    □ I took it more than once.
20. Learning English at GSCASS is_____.
    □ extremely important   □ very important
    □ somewhat important   □ not very important   □ not at all important
21. Suppose GSCASS establishes Chinese as a compulsory course. You_____ of it.
    □ strongly approve   □ approve   □ disapprove   □ strongly disapprove
22. Chinese language is an integral part of the Chinese nation.
    □ strongly agree   □   agree   □   neither agree or disagree
    □ disagree   □   strongly disagree
23. If you got married with an English native speaker, what language would you give priority to while teaching your
baby to speak?
    □   Chinese   □   English

24. English learning has a negative influence on Chinese learning. You_____with it.
    □ strongly agree   □ agree   □ disagree   □ strongly disagree
25. "Owing to English fever, western culture is eroding Chinese culture." You_____ with it.
    □ strongly agree   □ agree   □ disagree   □ strongly disagree
26. What opinions or suggestions would you give about language learning at GSCASS?
    _____.

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A Comparative Study of Speech-acts in the Textbooks by Native and Non-native Speakers: A Pragmatic Analysis of New Interchange Series vs. Locally-made EFL Textbooks

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Abstract—Only through the materials reflecting the language used by native speakers, can language learners become pragmatically competent in a particular language. Traditionally, dialog as a special tool has been used by textbook writers to enhance learners' linguistic and pragmatic competence in EFL teaching situations. However, despite the need for such authentic materials, the content of most dialogs, in the Iranian EFL textbooks developed by the Iranian materials developers, seems to differ from the type of language used by native speakers. Therefore, the present study attempted to investigate the types and the numbers of speech acts included in Right Path to English and the New Interchange series. For this purpose, 225 utterances from each textbook were selected and analyzed based on the Searle's (1979) speech act framework. The reliability of results was checked by two independent inter-raters. To compare the speech acts included in the two textbooks, the Chi-square formula was employed. The results revealed that there is a meaningful difference between the speech acts used in the two textbooks.

Index Terms—speech acts, EFL textbooks, linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, authentic materials

I. INTRODUCTION

Pragmatics is a branch of linguistics, which investigates the language use in communication. According to Leech (1983, p. 1), "we cannot really understand the nature of language itself unless we understand pragmatics". From pragmatic perspective, language is used to accomplish tasks. In other words, we do things by uttering words. According to Yule (1996), the act being performed as a result of uttering a sentence is called a "Speech-act" or a "Language function". Speech acts, as stated by Nunan (1999, p.131), are "simply things people do through language, for example, apologizing, complaining, instructing, agreeing and warning". This notion to the language resulted in the "Speech act Theory" which is considered the central debate in pragmatics. According to Bates (1996), the speech act theory was initiated in modern language philosophy by Austin in the 1962 and subsequently developed by others. This theory generally argues that when we use language, we are performing certain acts. As stated by Yule (1996), Austin in his speech act theory distinguished three different types of act involved in or caused by the utterance of a sentence: a locutionary act – speaker's production and hearer's perception of meaningful linguistic expression –, an illocutionary act – the speaker's intentions of uttering a sentence –, and a perlocutionary act – the result or the effect of speaker's utterance on the hearer or listener.

The consideration of pragmatics as a very essential aspect of language teaching and course content development in particular has been emphasized more than the past. According to Rose and Kasper (2001, p. 3), "in many second and foreign language teaching contexts, curricula and materials developed in recent years include strong pragmatic components or even adopt a pragmatic approach as their organizing principle". Textbook as a centre of curriculum and syllabus in most classrooms is not excluded from such considerations. The importance of textbook cannot be underestimated because it determines the students' both in-class and out-of-class learning activities.

One of the main problems of language teaching textbooks is artificiality of their contents. While, over the years, research on the problems in textbooks and course content has increased somewhat, the unauthentic materials in most textbooks continue to remain dominant. Lazaraton and Skuder (1997) claim that "even the most recent text fall short on the authenticity criteria used (formality, turn taking, quantity of talk, etc.). Grant and Starks (2001) believe that" not only is some of this textbook material out-of-date, it could also be criticized for not being an accurate reflection of the

language that learners hear being spoken outside of the classroom". This artificiality is also observable in dialogues or conversation parts in most textbooks.

Dialogue is often considered as a central and more consistent part of most teaching textbooks because it is the most natural type of language that usually occurs among speakers of a language. Non-native speakers often try to acquire a native-like second or foreign language; therefore, they make any endeavor to produce language as it is used by native speakers of that language. On the importance of authenticity of language teaching materials, Boxer & Pickering (1995, p. 56) have claimed that "Only through the materials that reflect how we really speak, rather than how we think we speak, will language learners receive an accurate account of the rules of speaking in a second or foreign language". Despite the need for such authentic materials, the content of most dialogues used in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or English as a Second Language (ESL) textbooks differs from the natural speech produced by native speakers. Even the textbooks including authentic conversations designed for communicative purposes are claimed to be inadequate. As a result, language teachers, materials developers and authors of textbooks have to investigate the type of speech used by native speakers in real life situations or analyze the textbooks authored by native speakers to explore appropriate materials required for their language teaching program.

The general sentiment related to the content of most textbooks is that they usually fail to provide the necessary and appropriate input in speech acts, and the materials they do present often differ from the type of speech used by native speakers in their everyday situations. It seems to the researcher that Iranian EFL course books are not excluded from this general view and they are not loaded with authentic natural speech acts.

Up to now, several qualitative and quantitative researches with various theoretical orientations have been conducted on ingredients of textbooks, particularly on the dialogues. The results of these studies helps teachers, content developers and textbook writers develop future textbooks with accurate contents and materials. Riverse (1981) has suggested that the teachers and textbook writers should test the learning materials and activities to see how they reflect or require normal uses of language within the classroom community. Previous research have investigated speech acts in real dialogues produced by foreign or second language learners compared to native speakers of that language. This study has compared the speech acts used in the dialogues of textbooks. Previous research have generally investigated the strategies used in producing one or more speech acts, but this study has attempted to determine the frequencies of speech act categories based on Searle's (1979) paradigm.

Speech act analysis is essential to understanding a dialogue because speech acts are in fact speaker's intentions conveyed by utterances. According to Lazaraton (2001, P. 105), nowadays, oral skills classes at all levels are often structured around functional uses of language. She (2001, P. 112) also claims that by accumulating research on speech acts and different varieties of English, for example, we will be in a better position to teach and design materials based on authentic language and communication patterns. The role of instruction in promoting the students' pragmatic competence has been proved beneficial. Hence, the importance of textbook as the centre of curriculum especially in the EFL setting should not be underestimated. Teachers need to be critical consumers of teaching materials. Research findings show that even the most recent textbooks are inadequate samples of pragmatic information required for developing learners' pragmatic competence. In order for our future textbooks, especially those for EFL purposes, to be accurate and adequate samples of pragmatic information much research need to be done on the quality and quantity of speech acts. Speech act information included in locally-made Iranian EFL textbooks have not been studied comparatively yet. The researcher thinks that the quality and the type of speech acts is one pragmatic aspect of learning a foreign language, which may be neglected or given little attention to in designing Iranian current EFL English textbooks. The present study compares the speech acts used in the dialogues authored by native speakers with those used in the dialogues authored by non-native speakers of English to answer the following questions:

1. What types of speech acts have been used in the dialogues of 'Intro' (1998) authored by native speakers of English?
2. What types of speech acts have been used in the dialogues of 'Right Path to English' (2005) authored by Iranian non-native speakers of English?
3. Are there any correlations between the speech acts used in Intro and speech acts used in Right Path to English?

II. METHODOLOGY

The materials used in this study were the dialogue sections included in the two series of EFL course books. "Right Path to English" is a locally-made textbook series for national purposes written by Birjandi and Soheili (2005) who are native speakers of Persian. "New Interchange Intro" is a series developed for international purposes. This series has been written by Richards, Hull and Proctor (1998) who are all native speakers of English.

The instrument used in this study to analyze the materials was Searle's (1979) model of classifying speech acts. Assertives, Directives, Commissives, Expressives, and Declarations. Each of these categories consists of some sub-categories. As seen in the table 3.1, the category of Directives, for instance, includes several sub-categories like requesting, inviting, ordering, commanding, advising, recommending, suggesting, daring, defying, and challenging.

TABLE 1.
SEARLE'S (1979) CLASSIFICATION OF SPEECH ACTS.

Category	Sub-categories
Assertives	stating, boasting, complaining, claiming, reporting, asserting, describing, announcing, insisting, guessing, forecasting, predicting, introducing, calling, complimenting concluding, reasoning, hypothesizing, telling, insisting, or swearing
Directives	requesting, warning, inviting, questioning, ordering, commanding, advising, reassuring, summoning, entreating, asking, directing, bidding, forbidding, instructing, begging, recommending, suggesting, daring, defying, and challenging.
Expressives	Greeting, thanking, apologizing, regretting, commiserating, congratulating, condoling, deploring, welcoming, surprising, blaming, praising.
Commissives	Promising, vowing, offering, threatening, refusing, pledging, intending, vowing to do or to refrain from doing something.
Declarations	Declaring, christening, firing from employment, resigning, dismissing, naming, excommunicating, appointing, sentencing, blessing, firing, baptizing, and bidding.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Utterance as the smallest unit of analysis was considered a valid criterion for data analysis. Hence, the researcher selected the first 225 utterances from Intro, which were equal to the total number of utterances included in Right Path to English series. After the types of speech acts in the two groups were all determined, the frequency of occurrence and the percentage for each category, as indicated in Table 2, were determined to answer the first two questions raised in this research. The reliability of the results was also checked by two independent inter-raters.

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCY AND THE PERCENTAGE OF SPEECH ACT CATEGORIES OBTAINED BY THE RESEARCHER.

| Textbook | Speech act Category | | | | |
	Assertives	Directives	Expressives	Commissives	Declarations
Right Path	91(40%)	74(33%)	58(26%)	2(1%)	0
Intro	118(52%)	57(25.5%)	50(22%)	0	0
Total	209(46.5%)	131(29%)	108(24%)	2(0.5%)	0

Analysis of the data, as is somewhat clear from the table 2, indicated that the most frequently used types of speech acts in both textbooks belonged to the three categories of assertives, directives, and expressives, respectively. The commissives, on the other hand, had the least frequency of occurrence. In Right Path to English series, there were just two commissive utterances. This number included about 1 percent of the whole utterances in this series. The same category was not found in Intro at all. The category of commissives, in general, covered only 0.5 percent of the whole data.

The category of assertives in Intro was greater in number than the same category in Right Path to English series. However, for the other categories Right Path to English outnumbered Intro. For example, the number of directives in Right Path to English was 74, while the number of the same category in Intro was 57.

In both series, the category of declarations was not found, at all. As a rule, any category with no frequency is normally deleted from SPSS data list. Therefore, the category of Declarations was not considered in statistical computations.

As mentioned in table 2, assertives as the most frequent category comprised 46.5 percent of the whole data, while both categories of commissives and declarations occurred 0.5 percent (see table 4.2). The main body of speech acts performed in both textbook series belonged to the three categories of assertives, directives, and expressives. The frequency of occurrence of these categories is 448, altogether. This number equals 99.5 percent of the total 448 speech acts. The frequency of occurrence and the percentage of each category have been presented in table 4.1.

The following diagram shows the percentage of each category of speech acts used in the total 450 utterances. As evident from the diagram, the category of assertives covers approximately half of the whole data. Directives and expressives are also the next two main categories of speech acts in the textbooks.
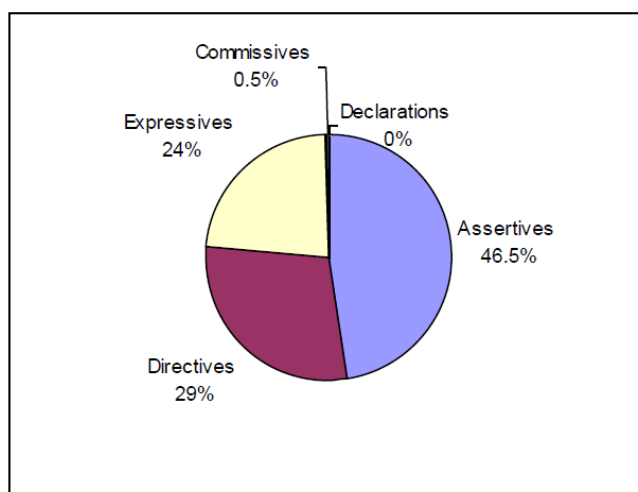
Figure 1. The percentages of speech act categories used in the two textbook series

To answer the third question of this research or to verify whether there was any correlation between the uses of speech acts in the two series of textbooks, the Chi-square test was applied. The critical value of Chi-square with the 3 degrees of freedom and a.0.5 was set at 8.287. This value was more than 7.81 which is the chi-square value intersected for 3 degrees of freedom. As a result, the null hypothesis, which claimed for no significant difference in the use of speech acts between the two series, was rejected.

This study also investigated the number of direct and indirect speech acts used in the two series to see if there was any correlation between them. As indicated in table 4.4, Right Path to English comprised 163 direct and 62 indirect speech acts, while for Intro, there were 175 and 50 direct and indirect speech acts, respectively. Based on the table 3, in both series, the direct speech acts had been used more than the indirect speech acts.

TABLE 3.
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS IN RIGHT PATH TO ENGLISH AND INTRO.

	Direct Speech act	Indirect Speech act	Chi-square	d.f
Right Path to English	163(72.5%)	62(27.5%)	1.712	1
Intro	175(77.7%)	50(22.3%)		

To verify if there was a relationship between the direct and indirect use of speech acts in the two series, the Chi-square formula was performed. As illustrated in table 4.3, the value 1.712 with 1 d.f at the level of 0.5 was resulted. Since the value obtained was less than the Chi-square value 3.84 intersected to 1 degree of freedom at 0.5, the claim for no significant relationship between the direct and indirect use of speech acts in the two series was rejected.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The results of this study revealed that dialogues used in these two series were different in the number of utterance included in each turn. For example, in 172 turns selected from Intro, there were 277 utterances. For Right path to English series, only 225 utterances were found. The mean number of utterance per turn used in Intro was 1.6, while the mean number of utterance per turn occurred in Right Path to English was 1.3. As the findings of this study shows, the dialogues of Right Path to English are generally shorter than the dialogues of Intro.

According to Kasper and Rose (2001, p. 5), "the main categories of communicative acts – in Searle's (1976) influential classification, representative, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations – are available in any community, as are such individual communicative acts as greetings, leave-takings, requests, offers, suggestions, invitations, refusals, apologies, complaints, or expressions of gratitude.

Previous research on speech act performance of native speakers of different languages with that of learners of those languages (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990;

Beebe & Takanashi, 1989b; Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989; Garcia, 1989; Cohen & Oleshtain, 1993; Holmes, 1990; Nakai, 1999; Nakata, 1989; Sameshima, 1998) have revealed that the typology of speech acts appears to be universal; however, their realization can vary across cultures and languages. In other words, second or foreign language learners may access the same range of speech acts and realization strategies as do native speakers (Fraser, Rintell, & Walters, 1980; Walters, 1979), but they differ from native speakers in the strategies they use. In a comparative study on Chinese and English, Colvin (2002) concluded that the five different speech act categories were also found in Chinese language with the same frequencies as they were found in English, but the strategies used for some speech acts varied significantly.

Although the result of the present study is in line with the universality of speech act categories advocated by previous research findings, the frequencies found in the two textbooks showed discrepancies. One major difference, based on the

research findings, between Right Path to English and Intro was related to the category of commissives. The number of commissives occurred in Right Path to English was two, while this category did not occur in the Intro. It is tempting to say that in the Anglo-Saxonist culture speakers avoid involving themselves in a proposition. To put it differently, native speakers of English tend to use hedges, while native speakers of Persian seem to commit themselves in a proposition and use more commissives comparing to those employed by native speakers of English. This fact refers to the difference in the strategies employed by speakers of both languages.

Another striking finding was that indirect speech acts used in Right Path to English outnumbered those used in Intro. Following Brown and Levinson (1987), all cultures have been identified as being more or less direct. Bialystock (1993) suggests that languages themselves may differ in directness; however, the findings indicate that the types of structures used in Right Path to English are more polite compared to Intro. This is in line with Eslamirasekh (1993) stating that in a polite society like Persian, imperatives or directives are normally awkward and abrupt. In other words, Persian culture values indirectness. Although speech acts may be direct, the majority in everyday conversation are indirect.

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The results of the study can have both theoretical and practical implications. Theoretical implications might be useful for researchers wishing to modify the existing theories of speech acts and teaching speaking. Practical implications can be beneficial to material designers, textbook writers, teachers and students.

The results of this study, which is unique in itself, are of great consideration to those who claim responsibility for EFL/ESL courses and syllabus designers. In choosing or developing textbooks and other kinds of teaching materials, textbook writers need to be aware of the research findings in order to select materials that are authentic and motivating for learners.

It seems that syllabus designers should consider the recent classification of speech acts such as requesting, inviting, complaining, apologizing, etc. in designing textbooks because it appears that these categories are universal in all languages and they deserve more attention.

The results of this study can be beneficial to those involving in textbook writing or the teaching career. One possible solution would be the using of successful dialogues reflecting the sociocultural norms of the target language to increase learners' understanding of linguistic behavior of the Iranian EFL learners. The second suggestion is modifying textbook dialogues authored by the Iranian textbook writers.

In general, both learners and teachers should be equipped with tools to make informed choices in negotiating effective communication and in presenting their intentions in a particular context. One suggestion is that teachers can select the materials in the classrooms that model the real language situations. To familiarize learners with different components of communicative competence especially in the use of speech acts, some activities such as tape recordings, role-playing activities, video films, and TV shows are suggested by the author.

Textbooks as the major source of teaching and learning process in Iranian teaching settings should contain the adequate number of speech acts to promote teachers and learners' pragmatic competence. To design textbooks with sufficient number of speech acts conforming to the norms followed by native speakers of the language, EFL textbook writers should be linguistically and pragmatically competent in the target language in order to be able to incorporate the right numbers of speech acts in EFL textbooks. To recap, the speech acts deserve further attention when designing material and textbooks for Iranian learners of English.

This study was partly descriptive and partly comparative. In the descriptive part, it first attempted to determine the type and the number of speech acts used in two textbooks. In the comparative part, it tried to investigate if there was a correlation between the numbers and type of speech acts categories performed in the two series. Previous research proved that speech acts categories are considered as one of the universals of all languages and these categories are said to be found in all languages nearly with the same range or frequencies. The results showed discrepancies in the use of speech acts between the two series. The frequencies of speech act categories in the above mentioned textbooks were different.

<div align="center">APPENDIX ONE. RIGHT PATH TO ENGLISH SERIES</div>

BOOK ONE
Lesson 5: Hello
1. A: Hello.1.(Expressives: greetings)
2. B: Hello.2. (Expressives: greetings)
3. A: How are you? 3.(Expressives: greetings)
4. B: I'm fine, 4.(Expressives: greetings) thank you. 5.(Expressives: thanking)And you? 6.(Expressives: greetings)
5. A: Fine, 7.(Expressives: greetings) thanks. 8.(Expressives: thanking)
Lesson 6: Are you a student?
6. A: Good morning! 9.(Expressives: greetings)
7. B: Good morning! 10.(Expressives: greetings)
8. A: Are you a student?1.(Directives: requesting inf.)
9. B: Yes, I am. 1.(Assertives: informing) What about you?2.(Directives: requesting inf.)
10. A: I am a student, too.2.(Assertives: informing)
Lesson 7: Is this a desk?
11. A: Is this a desk? 3.(Directives: requesting inf.)
12. B: No, it isn't. 3.(Assertives: informing)
13. A: What is it? 4.(Directives: requesting inf.)
14. B: It's a table. 4.(Assertives: informing)
Lesson 8: What is this?
15. Maryam: Hello Zahra. 11.(Expressives: greetings)
16. Zahra: Hello maryam. 12.(Expressives: greetings)
17.Maryam:How are you today? 13.(Expressives: greetings)
18. Zahra: Just fine. 22.(Expressives: greetings)
19. Maryam: What's this? 5.(Dirrectives: requesting inf.)
20. Zahra: That's an orange. 5.(Assertives: informing)
21. Maryam: Is that an orange, too? 6.(Directives: requesting inf.)
22. Zahra: No, this is an apple. 6.(Assertives: informing)
Lesson 9: I have an umbrella.
23. A: Good afternoon. 14.(Expressives: greetings)
24. B: Good afternoon. 15.(Expressives: greetings) How are you?16.(Expressives: greetings)
25. A: Very well, 17.(Expressives: greetings) thank you. 18.(Expressives: thanking) And you? 19.(Expressives: greeting)
26. B: Fine, 20.(Expressives: greetings)   thanks. 21.(Expressives: thanking) I have an umbrella. 7.(Assertives: stating)What about you? 7.(Directive: requesting inf.)
27.A: I have an umbrella, too. 8.(Assertives: informing)
Lesson 10: Have you English today?
28. Maryam: Good afternoon. 22.(Expressives: greetings)How are you? 23.(Expressives: greetings)
29. Parvin: Very well, 24.(Expressives: greetings)thank you. 25.(Expressives: thanking)
And you? 26.(Expressives: greetings)
30. Maryam: Fine, 27.(Expressives: greetings) thanks. 28.(Expressives: thanking)I have an umbrella. 9.(Assertives: stating) What about you? 8.(Dirrectives: requesting inf.)
31. Parvin: I have an umbrella, too. 10.(Assertives: informing)
BOOK TWO
Lesson 1: What colour is it?
1. A: Excuse me!*1.(Directives: getting attention) Have you a pen?2.(Directives: requesting)

2. B: No, I haven't. 1.(Assertives: informing)

3. A: Have you a pencil? 3.(Directives: requesting)

4. B: Yes, I have. 2.(Assertives: informing)

5. A: What colour is it? 4.(Directives: requesting inf.)

6. B: It's red.3. (Assertives: informing) Here you are.5(Directives: requesting)

7. A: Thank you. 2.(Expressives: thanking)

Lesson 2: Many cars

8. A: Are there many cars in the street, Parvin*? 6.(Directives: requesting inf.)

9. B: No, there are not many cars in the street. 4.(Assertives: informing)

10. A: Are there many buses in the street, too? 7.(Directives: requesting inf.)

11. B: No, there aren't. 5.(Assertives: denying)There is one bus in the street. 6.(Assertives: informing)

Lesson 3: What's your name?

12. A: Hello! 3.(Expressives: greetings)I am Hossein Karami. 7.(Assertives: introducing)What's your name? 8.(Directives: requesting inf.)

13. B: My name is Nasser Omidi. 8.(Assertives: informing)

14. A: Is that your car? 9.(Directives: requesting inf.)

15. B: No, it isn't. 9.(Assertives: informing)

16. A: Whose car is it? 10.(Directives: requesting inf.)

17. B: It's Ali's. 10.(Assertives: informing)He's my brother. 11.(Assertives: introducing)

Lesson 4: What time is it?

18. A: Hi, Hadi*.4.(Expressives: greetings)

19. B: Hello, Amir*. 5.(Expressives: greetings)

20. A: Have you a watch? 11.(Directives: requesting inf.)

21. B: Yes, I have.12.(Assertives: informing)

22. A: What time is it, please?12.(Directives: requesting inf.)

23. B: It's about 8 o'clock.13.(Assertives: informing)

Lesson 5: Please hurry up.

24. Akbar: Hi, Hadi*.6.(Expressives: greetings) What time is it? 13.(Directives: requesting inf.)

25. Hadi: It's seven thirty. 14.(Assertives: informing)Please hurry up.14.(Directives: commanding)

26. Akbar: Why? 15.(Directives: requesting inf.)

27. Hadi: It's late.15.(Assertives: informing)

28. Akbar: Let's take a taxi.16.(Directives: suggesting)

29. Hadi: OK.16.(Assetrives: admitting)

Lesson 6: I go to Farabi school.

30. Mansoor: Hi, Akbar*. 7.(Expressives: greetings)

31. Akbar: Hi. 8.(Expressives: greetings)

32. Mansoor: This is my school. 17.(Assertives: informing)

33. Akbar: I go to Farabi school. 18.(Assertives: informing)

34. Mansoor: I walk to school every day. 19.(Assertives: stating)

35. Akbar: But I go by bus. 20.(Assertives: informing)

36. Mansoor: Nice to see you.9.(Expressives: farewell)

37. Akbar: Goodbye. See you tomorrow. 10.(Expressives: farewell)

Lesson 7: What's your father?

38. Reza: My father is a farmer.21.(Assertives: introducing) What's your father, Ali?17.(Directives: requesting inf.)

39. Ali: He is a teacher.22.(Assertives: informing)

40. Reza: Does he teach Persian? 18.(Directives: requesting inf.)

41. Ali: No, he doesn't. He teaches English.23.(Assertives: informing)

42. Reza: Do you study English every day? 19.(Directives: requesting inf.)

43. Ali: No, I don't. I study English on Sundays and Tuesdays.24.(Assertives: informing)

Lesson 8: Who is that man?

44. Reza: Who is that man, Ali*? 20.(Directives: requesting inf.)

45.Ali: He is Mr. Hamidi. 25.(Assertives: introducing)

46. Reza: What is he? 21.(Directives: requesting inf.)

47. Ali: He is our teacher. 26.(Assertives: informing)

48. Reza: Where does he live? 22.(Directives: requesting inf.)

49. Ali: He lives on Azadi Street. 27.(Assertives: informing)

50. Reza: How many students does he teach?23 (Directives: requesting inf.)

51. Ali: He teaches many students.28.(Assertives: informing)

Lesson 9: Who is speaking?

52. Ali: Hello. 11.(Expressives: greetings)

53. Reza: Hello. 12.(Expressives: greetings)Is that Ali?24.(Directives: requesting inf.)

54. Ali: Yes,29.(Assertives: informing) who's speaking? 25.(Directives: requesting inf.)

55. Reza: This is Reza. 30.(Assertives: introducing)

56. Ali: Hello, Reza. 13.(Expressives: greetings)What are you doing? 26.(Directives: requesting inf.)

57. Reza: I'm studying. 31.(Assertives: informing)

58. Ali: English or Persian?27.(Directives: requesting inf.)

59. Reza: English. 32.(Assertives: informing)

60. Ali: Do you study English every day? 28.(Directives: requesting inf.)

61. Reza: No, not every day.33. (Assertives: informing) But I'm practicing it now. 34.(Assertives: stating)

62. Ali: Oh*,(Expressives: regretting) mum's calling. 35(Assertives: stating) Thank you, 14.(Expressives: thanking) goodbye. 15.(Expressives: farewell)

63. Reza: Goodbye. 16.(Expressives: farewell)

Lesson 10: I was sick yesterday.

64. Mina: Hello, Maryam*. 17.(Expressives: greetings)Thank God you are all right.18.(Expressives: thanking)

65. Maryam: Thanks, Mina.19.(Expressives: thanking)I was in bed yesterday.38.(Assertives: stating)

66. Mina: What was it? 29.(Directives: requesting inf.)

67. Maryam: A cold.39.(Assertives: informing)

68. Mina: Are you feeling well? 30.(Directives: requesting inf.)

69. Maryam: Yes, I feel fine now.40.(Assertives: informing)

70. Mina: OK*. See you later.21.(Expressives: leave taking)

71. Maryam: Bye.21.(Expressives: leave taking)

BOOK THREE

Lesson 1: Ahmad's wallet

1. Amir: Oh, look! 1.(Directives: getting attention) There's a wallet on the ground.1.(Assertives: informing) Is it your wallet? 2.(Directives: requesting inf.)

2. Ali: No, it isn't.2.(Assertives: informing) The colour of my wallet is brown, but this one is yellow. 3.(Assertives: informing)

3. Amir: Perhaps it's Ahmad's.4.(Assertives: guessing) He is there at the bus stop.(Assertives: stating)

4. Ali: I don't know Ahmad.5.(Assertives: stating) What does he look like? 3.(Directives: requesting inf.)

5. Amir: He's tall and thin and has short black hair.6.(Assertives: informing)

Lesson 2: Our English teacher

6. Nahid: Do you know our new teacher? 4.(Directives: requesting inf.)

7. Zahra: No, I don't. 7.(Assertives: informing) Who's she? 5.(Directives: requesting inf.)

8. Nahid: Mrs. Tehrani. 8.(Assertives: informing)She teaches us English.9.(Assertives: stating)

9. Zahra: Is she a good teacher? 6.(Directives: requesting inf.)

10. Nahid: Yes, she is.10.(Assertives: informing) All the students like her very much.11.(Assertives: informing)

11. Zahra: Does she speak Persian in the classroom? 7.(Directives: requesting inf.)

12. Nahid: No, she usually speaks English.12.(Assertives: informing)

Lesson 3: How much or How many?

13. - What are you doing, mother*?8.(Directives: requesting inf.)

14.- I'm cooking lunch. 13.(Assertives: informing)We have some guests today.14.(Assertives: stating)

15. - How many guests do we have? 9.(Directives: requesting inf.)

16. - Five. Your uncle and his family10.(Assertives: informing)

17. - Can I help you?11.(Directives: requesting)

18. - Yes,15.(Assertives: admitting) get me some rice.12.(Directives: commanding)

19. - Where is it? 13.(Directives: requesting inf.)

20. - In the closet.16.(Assertives: informing)

21. - How much do you need? 14.(Directives: requesting inf.)

22. - About two kilos. 17.(Assertives: informing)

23. - All right. 1.(commissives: promising)

Lesson 4: I enjoyed the cartoons.

24. Mahin: Do you ever watch TV, Zohreh*? 15.(Directives: requesting inf.)

25. Zohreh: Yes, I usually watch TV in the evening.18.(Assertives: informing)

26. Mahin: Did you watch the children's program yesterday? 16.(Directives: requesting inf.)

27. Zohreh: Yes, I enjoyed the cartoons very much. 19.(Assertives: informing)

28. Mahin: Did you watch the news, too? 17.(Directives: requesting inf.)

29. Zohreh: Yes, I did. 20.(Assertives: informing)

30. Mahin: Oh, 1.(Expressives: surprising)when did you finish your homework? 18.(Directives: requesting inf.)

31. Zohreh: In the afternoon. 21.(Assertives: informing)

Lesson 5: I saw him this morning.

32. Ali: Hello,Reza*. 2.(Expressives: greetings)How are you today? 3.(Expressives: greetings)
33. Reza: Not too bad. 4.(Expressives: greetings)
34. Ali: Did you see Peyman yesterday? 19.(Directives: requesting inf.)
35. Reza: No, I saw him this morning.22.(Assertives: informing)
36. Ali: What did you talk about? 20.(Directives: requesting inf.)
37. Reza: We talked about many things. 23.(Assertives: informing)
38. Ali: Is he in your class? 21.(Directives: requesting inf.)
39. Reza: No, he is in grade two. 24.(Assertives: informing)
Lesson 6: I was helping my mother.
40. Nahid: Did you see the film yesterday evening? 22.(Directives: requesting inf.)
41. Mehri: No, I didn't. 25.(Assertives: informing) I was helping my mother. 26.(Assertives: informing)
42. Nahid: What was she doing? 23.(Directives: requesting inf.)
43. Mehri: She was cooking dinner. 27.(Assertives: informing)
44. Nahid: What did you do? 24.(Directives: requesting inf.)
45. Mehri: I washed the dirty dishes. 28.(Assertives: informing)
46. Nahid: Did you wash all of them? 25.(Directives: requesting inf.)
47. Mehri: Yes, I did. 29.(Assertives: informing)
Lesson 7: May I leave the classroom?
48. Ali: Excuse me, sir.26.(Directives: getting attention)
49. Teacher: Yes, 2(commissives: paying attention)what is it? 27.(Directives: requesting inf.)
50. Ali: Reza doesn't feel well. 30.(Assertives: informing)
51. Teacher: What's the matter, Reza? 28.(Directives: requesting inf.)
52. Reza: I have a headache. 31.(Assertives: informing)
53. Teacher: Can't you stay in the classroom? 29.(Directives: requesting inf.)
54. Reza: No, I can't. 32.(Assertives: informing) May I Leave now?30.(Directives: requesting)
55. Teacher: Sure. 33.(Assertives: admitting)But you should come back after the break.31.(Directives: suggesting)
Lesson 8: He usually drives carefully.
56. A: Where is Hamid today? 32.(Directives: requesting inf.)
57. B: He's in hospital.34.(Assertives: informing)
58. A: Why? 33(Directives: requesting inf.)
59. B: He had a car accident yesterday. 35.(Assertives: informing)
60. A: That's too bad.5.(Expressives: regretting) Is he a careless driver? 34.(Directives: requesting inf.)
61. B: No, he usually drives carefully. 36.(Assertives: informing)
62. A: Was he driving carelessly yesterday? 37.(Assertives: requesting inf.)
63. B: Yes, he was driving fast.38.(Assertives: informing)
Lesson 9: We'll go next week.
64. Amir: Look! 35.(Directive: getting attention)There are a lot of clouds in the sky.39.(Assertives: informing)
65. Mehdi: Oh, yes. 40.(Assertives: admitting)It may rain tonight.41.(Assertives: predicting)
66. Amir: Will you go to the country tomorrow? 36.(Directives: requesting inf.)
67. Mehdi: No, we'll go next week. 42.(Assertives: informing)
68. Amir: Why do you often go to the country? 37.(Directives: requesting inf.)
69. Mehdi: We have a lot of relatives there. 43.(Assertives: informing)
70. Amir: Good luck. 6.(Expressives: wishing)Have a good time.7.(Expressives: wishing)
71. Mehdi: Thanks.8.(Expressives: thanking) See you later.9.(Expressives: leave taking)

APPENDIX TWO. INTRO

Unit 1
1. Michael: Hi! 1.(Expressives: greetings)My name is Michael Parker. 1.(Assertives: introducing)
2. Jennifer: I'm Jennifer Yang. 2.(Assertives: introducing)
3. Michael: It's nice to meet you, Jennifer. 2.(Assertives: responding to introducing)
4. Jennifer: Nice to meet you, too. 3.(Assertives: responding to introducing)
5. Michael: I'm sorry. 4.(Expressives: apologizing) What's your last name again? 1.(Directives:requesting infm.)
6. Jennifer: It's Yang. 3.(Assertives: informing)
7.
7. Jennifer: Excuse me. 5.(Directives: getting attention)Are you Steve Carson? 2.(Directives:requesting infm.n)
8. David: No, I'm not. 4.(Assertives: informing) He's over there. 5.(Assertives: informing)
9. Jennifer: Oh, I'm sorry. 6.(Expressives: apologizing)
10. Jennifer: Steven?6.(Directives: getting attention) This is your book. 6.(Assertives: informing)
11. Steven: Oh, 7.(Expressives: surprising)it's my math book! 7.(Assertives: stating)Thanks.8.(Expressives: thanking)You're in my class, right? 3.(Directives:requesting infm.)

12. Jennifer: Yes, I am. 8.(Assertives: informing)I'm Jennifer Yang. 9.(Assertives: introducing)

13. Steven: It's nice to meet you.9.(Assertives: responding to introducing)

14. Steven: David(Directives: getting attention), this is Jennifer.10.(Assertives: introducing) She is in our math class. 11.(Assertives: informing)

15. David: Hi, Jennifer. 10.(Expressives: greetings)

16. Jennifer: Hi, David. 11.(Expressives: greetings) Nice to meet you. 12.(Assertives: responding to introducing)
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Unit 2

3.

17. Wendy: Wow!13.(Expressives: surprizing) What's This?4.(Directives:requesting infm.)

18. Helen: It's a camera. 12.(Assertives: informing)

19. Wendy: Oh, cool! 14.(Expressives: surprizing)Thank you, Helen. 15.(Expressives: thanking)   It's great!16.(Expressives: praising)

20.Helen: You are welcome.17.(Expressives: complimenting)

21. Rex: Now open this box!5.(Directives: ordering)

22.Wendy: Ok. 13.(Assertives: admitting)Uh*, what are these? 6.(Directives:requesting infm.)

23.Rex: They're earrings. 14.(Assertives: informing)

24. Wendy: Oh.18.(Expressives: surprising)They're … interesting. 19.(Expressives:praising)Thank you, Rex. 20.(Expressives: thanking)They're very nice. 15.(Expressives: praising)

7.

25. Kate: Oh, no!21.(Expressives: regretting) Where are my car Keys?7.(Directives: requesting infm)

26. Joe: Relax, Kate.8.(Directive: advising) Are they in your purse? 9.(Directives: requesting infm.)

27. Kate: No, they're not. 16.(Assertives: informing) They're gone!17.(Assertives: stating)

28. Joe: I bet they're still on the table in restaurant. 18.(Assertives: guessing)

29. Waiter: Excuse me. 22.(Expressives: apologizing) Are these your keys? 10.(Directives:requesting infm.)

30. Kate: Yes, they are. 19.(Assertives: informing) Thank you! 23.(Expressives: thanking)

31. Joe: See. No problem. 11.(Directivess: reassuring)

32. Waiter: And is this your wallet? 12.(Directives:requesting infm)

33. Kate: Hmm.24.(Expressives: surprising) No, it's not. 20.(Assertives: informing)
Where is your wallet, Joe? 13.(Directives:requesting infm.)

34. Joe: In my pocket….21.(Assertives: informing) Wait a minute!14.(Directives: requesting)That's my wallet! 22.(Assertives: stating)
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Unit 3

2.

35. Tim: Where are you from Jessica? 15.(Directives:requesting infm.)

36. Jessica: Well*, my family is here in the United States but we're from Korea originally.23.(Asseretives: informing)

37. Tim: Oh, 25.(Expressives: surprising)my mother is Korean – from Seoul! 24.(Asseretives: stating) Are you from Seoul? 16.(Directives:requesting infm.)

38. Jessica: No, we're not from Seoul. 25.(Asseretives: informing) We're from Pusan. 26.(Asseretives: informing)

39. Tim: So is your first language Korean? 27.(Assertives: concluding)

40. Jessica: Yes, it is.28.(Assertives: confirming)

5.

41. Emma: Who's that? 17.(Directives:requesting infm.)

42. Jill: He's my brother. 29.(Assertives: informing)

43. Emma: Wow! 26.(Expressives: surprising) He's cute.27. (Expressives: praising) What's his name? 18.(Directives:requesting infm.)

44. Jill: James. 30. (Assertives: informing)We call him Jim. 31.(Assertives:introducing) He's in college here in Vancouver. 32.(Assertives: introducing)

45. Emma: Oh,28.(Expressives: surprising) how old is he? 19.(Directives:requesting infm.)

46. Jill: He's twenty-one years old. 33.(Assertives: informing)

47. Emma: What's he like? 20.(Directives:requesting infm.) I bet he's nice. 34.(Assertives: guessing)

48. Jill: Yes, he is35.(Assertives: admiting) – and he's very funny, too! 36.(Assertives: claiming)
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Unit 4

3.

49. Pat: Are our clothes dry? 21.(Directives:requesting infm.)

50. Julie: Yes, they are. 37.(Assertives: informing)

51. Pat: Where are my favorite socks? 22.(Directives:requesting infm.)

52. Julie: What color are they? 23.(Directives:requesting infm.)

53. Pat: They're white. 38.(Assertives: informing)

54. Julie: Are these your socks? 24.(Directives:requesting infm.)They're blue and white.39.(Assertives: describing)

55. Pat: No,40.(Assertives: informing) they're probably Liz's socks. 41.(Assertives: guessing)Wait!29.(Expressives: regretting)They are my socks! 30.(Expressives: surprizing) They're ruined! 42.(Assertives: complaining)

56. Julie: Yeah. 43.(Assertives: admitting) The problem is this T-shirt. 44.(Assertives: stating) It's dark blue. 45.(Assertives: stating)

57. Pat: Is it Liz's? (Directives: requesting inf.)

58. Julie: Actually, it's my T-shirt. 46.(Assertives: informing) I'm sorry.31.(Expressives: apologizing)

59. Pat: That's OK. 47.(Assertives: admitting) It's not important. 48.(Assertives: complimenting)

8.

60. Pat: Uh-oh!32.(Expressives: surprising)

61. Julie: What's the matter? 25.(Directives:requesting infm.)

62. Pat: It's snowing, and it's very cold! 49.(Assertives: reporting)

63. Julie: Are you wearing a scarf? 26.(Directives:requesting infm.)

64. Pat: No, I'm not.50.(Assertives: informing)

65. Julie: Well*, you are wearing a coat. 51.(Assertives: stating)

66. Pat: But I'm not wearing boots! 52.(Assertives: complaining)

67. Julie: Ok.53.(Assertives: admitting) Let's take a taxi. 27.(Directives: suggesting)

68. Pat: Thanks, Julie. 33.(Expressives: thanking)
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Unit 5
1.

69. Debbie: Hello?34.(Expressives: greetings)

70. John: Hi, Debbie. ? 35.(Expressives: greetings)This is John. ?54.(Assertives: introducing)I am calling from Australia. ?55.(Assertives: stating)

71. Debbie: Australia? 36.(Expressives: surprising)

72. John: I'm at a conference in Sydney. 56.(Assertives: reporting) Remember?28.(Directives:requesting infm.)

73. Debbie: Oh, right. 57.(Assertives: informing) What time is it there? 29.(Directives:requesting infm.)

74. John: It's 10:00 p.m. 58.(Assertives:informing) And it's four o'clock there in Los Angeles. 59.(Assertives: guessing)

Right? 30.(Directives:requesting infm.)

75. Debbie: Yes- four o'clock in the morning. 60.(Assertives: informing)

76. John: 4:00 A.M.? 37.(Expressives: surprising) Oh, I'm really sorry.38.(Expressivers: apologizing)

77. Debbie: That's OK. 61.(Assertives: admitting) I'm awake … now. 62.(Assertives: stating)

6.

78. Steve: Hi, Mom. 39.(Expressives: greetings)

79. Mrs. Dole: What are you doing, Steve? 31.(Directives:requesting infm.)

80. Steve: I'm hungry63.(Assertives: reasoning), so I'm cooking.64.(Assertives: concluding)

81. Mrs. Dole: You're cooking? 40.(Expressives: surprising) It's two o'clock in the morning! 32.(Directives: warning)

82. Steve: Yeah, 65.(Assertives: admiting) but I'm really hungry! 66.(Assertives: complining)

83. Mrs. Dole: What are you making? 33.(Directives:requesting infm.)

84. Steve: Pizza. 67.(Assertives: informing)

85. Mrs. Dole: Mmm, pizza.68.(Assertives: admitting) So, let's eat! 34.(Directives: requesting)
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Unit 6
2.

86. Ashley: Hey, Jason. 69.(Assertives: calling)What are you doing? (Directives:requesting infm.)

87. Jason: Oh, I'm waiting for my mom. 70.(Assertives: informing) My bike has a flat tire. 71.(Assertives: stating)

88. Ashley: Is she coming right now? 35.(Directives:requesting infm.)

89. Jason: Yeah. She works near here. 72.(Assertives: informing)

90. Ashley: Oh, that's good.41.(Expressive: welcoming)

91. Jason: So what are you doing? 36.(Directives:requesting infm.)

92. Ashley: I'm going home. 73.(Assertives: informing) I don't live far from here, so I walk to school. 74.(Assertives: stating)

93. Jason: You're lucky!42.(Expressives: wishing)

8.

94. Jack: Let's go to the park on Sunday. 37.(Directives: suggesting)

95. Amy: OK, 75.(Assertives: admiting) but let's not go early.38. (Directives: suggesting) I sleep late on weekends. 76.(Assertives: reasoning)

96. Jack: What time do you get on Sundays? 39.(Directives:requesting infm.)

97. Amy: At ten o'clock. 77.(Assertives: informing)

99Jack: Oh, that isn't very late. 78.(Assertives: claiming) I get up at noon. 79.(Assertives: stating)

100. Amy: Do you eat breakfast then? 40.(Directives:requesting infm.)

101. Jack: Sure. I have breakfast every day. 80.(Assertives: informing)

102. Amy: Then let's meet at Harry's Restaurant at one o'clock.41.(Directives: suggesting) They serve breakfast all day on Sundays- for people like us.81.(Assertives: stating)

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Unit 7

2.

103. Linda: Guess what!42.(Directives: requesting) I have a new apartment. 82.(Assertives: stating)

104. Chris: That's super.43.(Expressives: praising) What's it like? 43.(Directives:requesting infm.)

105. Linda: It's really beautiful. 83.(Assertives: describing)

106. Chris: How many rooms does it have? 44.(Directives:requesting infm.)

107. Linda: Well*, it has a bedroom, a bathroom, a kitchen, and a living room. 84.(Assertives: describing) Oh, and a big closet in the hall. 85.(Assertives: describing)

108. Chris: Where is it? 45.(Directives:requesting infm.)

109. Linda: It's on Lakeview Drive. 86.(Assertives: informing)

110. Chris: Oh, nice.44.(Expressives: surprizing) Does it have a view? 46.(Directives:requesting infm.)

111. Linda: Yes, it does.87.(Assertives: informing) It has a great view of my neighbor's apartment!88.(Assertives: describing)

6.

112. Chris: This apartment is great.45.(Expressives: praising)

113. Linda: Thanks. 46.(Expressives: thanking)I love it, but I really need some furniture. 89.(Assertives: stating)

114. Chris: What do you need? 47.(Directives:requesting infm.)

115. Linda: Well, there are some chairs in the kitchen, but there isn't a table.90.(Assertives: informing)

116. Chris: And there's no sofa here in the living room. 91.(Assertives: stating)

117. Linda: And there aren't any chairs. 92.(Assertives: stating)There's only this lamp. 93.(Assertives: stating)

118. Chris: So let's go shopping next weekend! 48.(Directives: suggesting)

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Unit 8

3.

119. Rachel: Where does your brother work? 49.(Directives:requesting infm.)

120. Anela: In a hotel.94.(Assertives: informing)

121. Rachel: Oh, that's interesting. 47.(Expressives: surprizing)My brother works in a hotel, too.95.(Assertives: stating)

122. Anela: Really?48.(Expressives: surprising)What does he do, exactly? (Directives:requesting infm.)

123. Rachel: He's a chef in the restaurant. 96.(Assertives: informing) What about your brother? 50.(Directives:requesting infm.)

124. Anela: He's a security guard, but he doesn't like it. 97.(Assertives: informing)

125. Rachel: That's too bad.49.(Expressives: regretting)

126. Anela: Yeah. 98.(Assertives: admiting) He's looking for a job. 99.(Assertives: stating)

8.

127. Richard: Hi, Stephanie. 50.(Expressives: greetings)

I hear you have a new job. 100.(Assertives: stating)

128. Stephanie: Yes. I'm teaching math at Linton high school.101.(Assertives: confirming)

129. Richard: How do you like it? 51.(Directives:requesting infm.)

130. Stephanie: It's great.102.(Assertives: describing) The students are terrific.103.(Assertives: describing) How are things with you? 52.(Directives:requesting infm.)

131. Richard: Not bad.104.(Assertives: informing) I'm an air traffic controller now, you know. 105.(Assertives: stating)

132. Stephanie: Now, that's exciting!106.(Assertives: describing)

133. Richard: Yes,107.(Assertives: admitting) but it's a very stressful job.108.(Assertives: claiming)

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Unit 9

3.

134. Adam: What do you want for the barbecue? 53.(Directives:requesting infm.)

135. Amanda: Hmm.* How about chicken and hamburgers?109.(Assertives: suggesting)

136. Adam: OK. 110.(Assertives: admiting)We have some chicken in the freezer, but we don't have any hamburger meat? 111.(Assertives: stating)

137. Amanda: And there aren't any hamburger rolls. 112.(Assertives: stating)

138. Adam: Do we have any soda? 54.(Directives:requesting infm.)

139. Amanda: No, we don't. 113.(Assertives: informing)We need some. 114.(Assertives: stating)Oh,(Expressives: surprising) and let's get some lemonade, too. 55.(Directives: suggesting)

140. Adam: All right. 115.(Assertives: admitting)And how about potato salad? 56(Directives: suggesting)

141. Amanda: Oh, yeah. 116.(Assertives: admitting) Everyone likes potato salad. 117.(Assertives: claiming)

6.

142. Sarah: Let's have breakfast together on Sunday.57.(Directives: suggesting)

143. Kumiko: OK. 118.(Assertives: admiting)

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The Relevance Study of College Students' Chunk Level and Their Translation Ability[*]

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Abstract—This paper briefly explores the role that the prefabricated chunk plays in English Chinese translation among the college English learners. The study result shows that the prefabricated chunk level among college English learners is low, especially in the chunk identification. Besides, the study also shows that there is a strong correlation between college English learners' translation ability and their English prefabricated chunk level, which means the stronger their ability to use prefabricated chunks, the higher their scores in the translation test is. The paper also makes a detailed analysis of the factors which result in the English learners' inability to use prefabricated chunks adequately and makes a few pedagogical suggestions to the English teachers.

Index Terms—prefabricated chunks, translation, chunk identification, college English learners

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, universal attention has been paid to the prefabricated chunk ability of the second language learners in both theoretical and applied linguistic field. One of the reasons is that language learners' ability to use prefabricated chunks is an important index to measure a second language learners' language ability. Chinese and oversea studies have been explaining the inner characteristics and acquisition mechanisms of these prefabricated chunks from the aspects of cognitive linguistics, psycholinguistics, syntactic and so on. These studies include both theoretical summarizations and empirical studies. The linguistic study of the prefabricated chunks in China has not been very long and is still at its initial stage. The present features and the content of these studies include (1) The research in this area has gradually become wider in range, larger in number and deeper in depth. (2) The content of the research mainly involves six aspects including chunk use (identification and application), chunk teaching, chunk definition and function, measurement of students' chunk ability and so on. (3) The research method is mainly corpus-based which means most of the studies are empirical. Some previous studies have made similar discoveries. First, there is a positive correlation between second language learners' chunk ability and their listening, speaking, reading and writing ability. Second, the chunk ability of college English learners, whether seniors or juniors, is very low, especially the output. All these studies have laid a theoretical foundation for future related research. Plus, they also shed light on the study method that will be used in the future research.

However, there are not many research literatures concerning the relations between second language learners' translation ability and their chunk ability. In another word, most of the previous studies haven't made detailed research on this. Thus, this paper is to explore the relevance between second language learners' translation ability and their prefabricated chunk ability.

II. DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION OF PREFABRICATED CHUNKS

There has always been great controversies about the definition and classification of prefabricated chunks. However, researchers through years of studies and observations reached a consensus: prefabricated chunk is a language structure that combines the features of both vocabulary and grammar; it performs a specific language function. Simply speaking, prefabricated chunk is a set term which may include one or more words. According to the data retrieved from corpus, prefabricated chunks are the meaningful collocations in the text that reach a certain frequency. Nattinger (1992) categorized the lexical phrases into 4 kinds: (1) poly word (so to speak, by the way,) (2) institutionalized expressions (how are you, have a nice day) (3) phrasal constraint (as far as.., a…ago) (4) sentence builder (my point is that…, not only...but also…) **(Nattinger, 1992).** Biber (1999), according to the academic terms he studied in research papers, classified the chunks into 12 kinds: (1) noun phrase +phrase fragment (2) noun phrase +attribute post modifier (3) prepositional phrase +of phrase fragment (4) other prepositional phrase fragment (5) it +verb phrase/adjective phrase fragment (6) passive verb+ prepositional phrase fragment (7) be+ noun phrase/adjective phrase fragment (8) verb phrase +that clause (9) verb/ adjective +phrase fragment (10) adverbial clause fragment (11) pronoun/noun +be(+…) (12) other expressions **(Biber, 1999).**

This paper is to take both categorizations into consideration, leaving out the complex parts which are difficult to retrieve from corpus, and recategorize the studied chunks.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION

Many second language learners have the same problems when it comes to the comprehension and translation of English passages. Sometimes, when they have looked up all the new English words in the dictionary and known all the syntax in the passage, there are still many sentences they could not make out. The writer infers that it might be due to the fact that these second language learners are lacking in their English chunk ability. Thus, a series of questions come up: is there any relationship between the learners' chunk ability and their translation ability? When the learners are translating the given material, are they able to correctly identify these prefabricated chunks? The study analyzed 30 college students' translating material (English to Chinese) and their identification and comprehension of the prefabricated chunks in order to answer the following questions:(1) During the translating process, can they identify and understand the prefabricated chunks given in the passage? Are there any features in their ability to use these chunks? (2) Is there a positive correlation between students' chunk ability and their translation ability? (3) What are the factors that affect their chunk ability? (4) What are the pedagogical suggestions that can be made from the study.

A. Data Collection

First, a test is conducted among the students. The subject of this study is 100 two year students in a college. The material of the test is a cloze taken from CET 4 (College English Test Band Four). There are 225 words. The students are required to finish two tasks. First, they must translate the whole English passage into Chinese. Second, they must retrieve all the prefabricated chunks from the passage and translate these chunks into Chinese. 100 test papers have been collected. By using the method of random sampling, 30 test papers are chosen as the study sample. Then three teachers will retrieve 20 English prefabricated chunks from the cloze through joint discussion. If there is a certain dispute about their choice, it is left for the foreign teacher to decide.

B. Chunk Defining

The defining of chunks is based on the Longman Modern English Dictionary (2003) combined with English native speaker's intuition. The standards are as follows:

(1) combination of two or more than two words

(2) If the above combination appears in the dictionary, it is considered to be a chunk.

(3) If there is an ambiguous term, it is left to the foreign teacher to decide.

C. Research Method

The study is a qualitative study. First, the teachers will mark the test papers. There are three kinds of scores in this test paper. The first kind is the students' score on the prefabricated chunks. There are 20 chunks altogether. The total score is 100. So each chunk has 5 points.(The correct chunk retrieving and the correct chunk translation get 2.5 points respectively). Based on this marking criterion, the score of each student' test paper is calculated. The second kind is their score on passage translation. The total score is also 100. Due to the length, complexity and subjectivesness of the passage, each passage translation is marked by three teachers respectively. The final score of each paper is the mean score of all the three scores given by the three teachers. For example, if teacher A gives a 70, teacher B a 72, teacher C a 74, then the mean score of this paper is 72. The marking criterion is the same with the one in CET 4. The third kind is the reduced score that is caused by chunk error. During the translation, there are various kinds of errors; some errors are not as serious as the others. Plus, some parts in the passage are so controversial that can not be strictly decided. So this part is also jointly determined by the three teachers as to which reduced score is caused by the chunk errors. The purpose of this calculation is to measure to what degree the understanding of prefabricated chunk can affect the students' translation.

This study is a study of relevance. So there is an independent variable- chunk score and a dependent variable-translation score. The researcher will make one-linear regression analysis of relevance between the two variables with SPSS statistical software to see whether the college English learners' chunk ability is correlated with their translation ability and to see to what degree they are correlated.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

TABLE I.
STUDENTS' TRANSLATION SCORE AND CHUNK SCORE

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Translation Score	73.18	6.435	30
Chunk Score	20.3000	11.70611	30

N=Student number   Mean=Mean score   Std.Deviation =Standard Deviation

The result of table 1 shows the translation ability and chunk ability of the 30 students. As table 1 shows, the mean score of translation is 73.18; the standard deviation is 6.435. The mean score of chunk is 20.300; the standard deviation is 11.71. From this table, it can be seen that (1) the students are not able to identify English prefabricated chunks very well. The mean score is only 20.3 points. (The total score is 100). That is probably because the students do not understand the conception of prefabricated chunks very well. Many students retrieve the chunks wrongly. For example, many students consider Noun+Prep structure as a chunk (development of; effect on). (2) The chunk ability gap between different students is bigger than their translation ability gap. The standard deviation of their chunk score is 11.71, which is bigger than the standard deviation of their translation score 6.435. This is probably because even though there is a huge gap between the students' chunk ability, their ultimate translation score gap is reduced due to other language factors.

TABLE II.
CORRELATION BETWEEN TRANSLATION SCORE AND CHUNK SCORE

		Translation score	Chunk score
Pearson Correlation	Translation score	1.000	.602
	Chunk score	.602	1.000
Sig. (1-tailed)	Translation score	.	.000
	Chunk score	.000	.

P<0.05   r=0.602

Table 2 shows the correlation between students' translation score and their chunk score. In this analysis, the mean chunk score is independent variable; the mean translation score is the dependent variable. As can be seen from the Pearson Correlation statistics in table 2: the value of Sig.(1-tailed) is 0.000, which is smaller than 0.05(ie. P<0.05). When P value is smaller than 0.05, students' chunk score can well predict the students' translation score; that is to say, the students' chunk score is strongly correlated with their translation score. Besides, according to the table, r=0.602. When $0.40 \leqq r \leqq 0.70$, the two scores are moderately correlated. In other words, the chunk score is moderately correlated with the translation score.

TABLE III.
THE RESULT OF R SQUARE

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.602[a]	.360	.358	4.517

Table 3 once again proves that chunk score is correlated with translation score (r=0.616). This further shows to what degree the students' chunk score can explain the students' translation score variation. The degree can be seen from the table: r square is 0.360; the adjusted r squre is 0.358 after the adjustment. It means that the students' chunk score can explain 35.8% of the students' translation score variation. That is to say, 35.8% of the students' translation score is determined by students' chunk score. The standard error of the estimate is 4.517, which is of no statistical significance and is not analyzed in the paper.
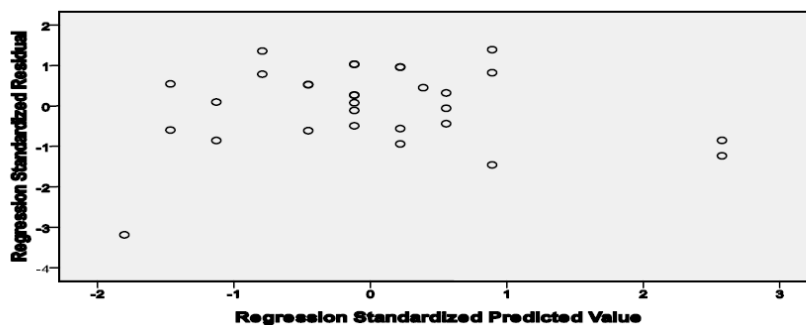

Figure 1

Fig.1 is a scatter plot which is the relation between predicted value and residual. According to the graphic, the irregular scattering of the dot proves that the equation of one-linear regression analysis is valid. The predicted value is not correlated with the residual. That is to say, all the errors caused by the statistical analysis will not affect the result of the relevance analysis that has been made. Above all, all the data from table 1, table 2 and table 3 proves the hypothesis

that errors of one-linear regression analysis is bell-shaped scattered and errors are not relevant. The students' chunk ability can well predict the students' translation ability. Adjusted r square is 0.358.(i.e. students' chunk score can explain 35.8% variation of students' translation score). The standardized regression equation is: translation score=0.602*chunk score. This means that the higher the students' chunk score is, the higher the students' translation score.

However, when the researchers were marking the papers, they found that even though many students missed many chunks during the retrieving, they still could translate these chunks correctly without any notice. Does it mean that the chunk score of some students cannot predict their translation score? In order to answer this question and further prove the initial hypothesis, the research will calculate each student's reduced chunk score and get the average score. Then the relevance analysis of this average score and average translation score is made. The result is as follows.

TABLE IV.
CORRELATION BETWEEN TRANSLATION SCORE AND REDUCED CHUNK SCORE CAUSED BY CHUNK ERRORS

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Translation score	73.18	6.435	30
Chunk error score	18.4000	3.20400	30

Chunk error score=reduced chunk score caused by chunk errors

Table 4 shows the mean score of the students' translation and the mean reduced score of the students' chunk. As table 4 shows: the mean reduced score caused by chunk error is 18.4, which accounts for 68.61% of all the error-causing factors. (The other error-causing factors are vocabulary misunderstanding, syntax misunderstanding and so on). This shows that chunk error is the main type among all other kinds of errors. Among all the students, the lowest reduced chunk score is 10, the highest being 29. This again shows that students' chunk ability plays an important role in their translation ability.

TABLE V.
CORRELATION BETWEEN TRANSLATION SCORE AND REDUCED SCORE CAUSED BY CHUNK ERROR

		Translation score	Chunk error score
Pearson Correlation	Translation score	1.000	-.604
	Chunk error score	-.604	1.000

Chunk error score= reduced score caused by chunk error

Table 5 shows the correlation between the students' translation score and the students' chunk score. In this relevance analysis, the reduced chunk score is independent variable; the mean score of the students' translation is dependent variable. According to the statistics of Pearson Correlation in table 5, Sig (1-tailed) is 0.002, which is smaller than 0.05 (ie P<0.05). When P<0.05, the reduced chunk score can well predict their translation score, ie the reduced chunk score is strongly correlated with the students' translation score. Moreover, according to the table, r=-0.604. When 0.40<r<0.70 and r is negative, the two variables are negatively correlated. The reduced chunk score is moderately correlated with the translation score, i.e. the more their chunk errors are, the lower their translation score is.

V. ATTRIBUTION ANALYSIS

There are some internal and external causes of the students' general low chunk ability. There are three kinds that are analyzed here.

First, many students do not know the conception of prefabricated chunks. Most of the college English learners lack a definite and comprehensive understanding of the prefabricated chunks. Thus, many second language learners missed or chose the wrong chunks during the test. Many learners believe that the prefabricated chunks are no more than the structure of Noun+Prep, Prep+Prep or Verb+Prep. In some cases, even though the students know these chunks, they are not sensitive to them. When the students are reading a passage or a long sentence, they read each vocabulary singularly and in a linear way. In their cognitive process, they do not combine two or more words together, so they could not understand the long sentences and complex sentences. Besides, many prefabricated chunks are broken to exist in one long sentence, so that students could not retrieve them, for example the so…that structure.

Second, the students do not have a deep memory of the already taught chunks. This can be seen from the collected papers. In the test paper, there are many key prefabricated chunks the teachers already emphasized in class. However, the students did not retrieve them.

Third, some English teachers do not attach great importance to the chunk teaching. The present English teaching in some Chinese colleges still follows the grammar-translation method. The English speaking and English writing which can enhance students' chunk ability most effectively are either neglected or put aside. Some teachers still spend most of the time explaining the test papers or grammatical rules. Even when the students ask chunk-related questions, the teacher only gives a simple and short explanation. Thus the neglect by the teachers themselves have a bad influence on the students' English learning. Consequently the students seldom pay attention to the prefabricated chunk in the English written material.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The general chunk level of college English learners is not high. Thus, great attention must be paid to chunk teaching.

First, the teacher must enhance the students' awareness of the prefabricated chunks. In a sense, the base of English learning is the vocabulary acquisition. Vocabulary is the fundamental element of a language; it is also the base if a student wants to improve English. Not only the English learners should put in enough English words, but also they should understand the words deeply enough and use the words fast enough. Only in this way can they express themselves freely and effectively enough. So, during the vocabulary explanation, the teacher should explain to the students in detail the words that could make up important chunks. As long as the students know the importance themselves, they will focus their attention on the prefabricated chunks and will memorize them at their own will during their self-study.

Second, the teacher should change their teaching method from time to time. According to the input hypothesis proposed by Krashen, the ideal input should be close to the level of students' English learning, interesting and enough in quantity. In English chunk teaching, the input should be done in a relaxed and joyous environment. The teacher should not explain them in the mechanical and boring way. The teacher first can list all the chunks that need to be learned and ask the students to do different kinds of drills. If necessary, the teacher can design various games to minimize their psychological barrier and let the students acquire the chunks effectively. The large quantity of input and adequate emotion filtering can activate the students' language acquisition device and turns out the i+1 effect.

Third, the teachers can teach prefabricated chunks with corpus. The prefabricated chunks are usually the set terms that native speakers use through a long period of time. The authenticity of these chunks requires that second language learners learn them from the corpus in real life. However, most of the written teaching material in college including texts and exercises are compiled or written by education experts. Contrary to these artificial materials, the corpus provides a good language resource for both English teachers and English learners, because they can retrieve the most authentic use of a language point. There are many good English corpus to use on the internet, for example, COCA (Corpus of Contemporary American English). The students are interested in the internet, so the teacher can ask the students to look up the needed information in the on-line corpus, using the corpus to preview the chunks before class, explain the chunks during class and exercise after class. Those methods combined with the online learning model can maximize the students' learning efficiency. The students can in this way acquire the English prefabricated chunks more creatively and flexibly. They will gradually get used to this learning model and start to participate in each learning activity whether they are the self-learning tasks or teacher assigned tasks. Finally the students will involve themselves in the chunk learning and make great improvement.

APPENDIX.   DATA OF UNDERGRADUATE STUDENTS' TRANSLATION SCORE AND CHUNK SCORE

Number	Translation score	Chunk Score
1	75	12
2	75	16
3	78	12
4	79	20
5	80	24
6	50	0
7	75	20
8	82	32
9	71	4
10	65	8
11	78	28
12	78	26
13	80	52
14	76	28
15	71	20
16	73	20
17	78	82
18	70	24
19	80	24
20	75	20
21	74	20
22	69	16
23	75	16
24	85	32
25	65	4
26	70	8
27	72	24
28	70	32
29	74	28
30	78	52

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"Evil Woman" in the Ancient Egyptian Literature

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Abstract—**This article, by using feminist criticism and archetypical criticism, mains to analyze the evil woman images in the ancient Egyptian literature like Great Mothers of terror who tries to capture right and cause deaths, the enchanter who is very crazy and fascinating and the wife who betrays his husband to understand the complexity. Also this thesis reveals the spiritual and cultural meaning of the evil woman images. Lastly, the paper sums up the reasons from Anima, the good and evil in the traditional human nature, male-dominated society and the male author's viewpoint on female.**

Index Terms—**the ancient Egyptian literature, feminist criticism, evil woman images, causes**

It is often seen and become a remarkable phenomenon that there are a lot of "evil woman" images and related discussions in the ancient Egyptian Literature. This paper, by using feminist criticism and archetypical criticism, analyses the figures of "evil woman" images to interpret their complexity. Also this thesis reveals the spiritual and cultural meaning of the evil woman images. Lastly, the paper sums up the reasons from anima ,the good and evil in the traditional human nature, male-dominated society and the male author's viewpoint on female.

I. THE "EVIL WOMAN" IMAGES IN THE ANCIENT EGYPTIAN LITERATURE

A. *Great Mothers of Terror Who Try to Capture Right and Cause Deaths*

Kindness is mother goddess Isis and Hathor's main character, but they also possess the character of terror. Isis is aware of God La's power, so she has strong eagerness to possess La's mysterious and magic name. Egyptian sincerely believe that if they know the La's mysterious name, they can govern the universe. She parched the clay stained with La's saliva by fire and made it into a sharp spear. And then, Isis put witchcraft on it, and turned it into a viper and then forced the viper bite her father. Isis thoroughly understands the skill of curing snake wound by incantation, and forced her father to tell herself the mysterious name. So Isis had La's power. From this goddess, we saw that she attempted to capture La's right and became the master of the universe.

Hathor was a virtuous cow goddess, and also the goddess of war and death, so she also had brutal and bloody character. In ancient Egypt, there was a myth about Hathor's killing excessively. Hathor who was in the shape of lion to the world killed the world and licked them up. She killed without batting an eyelid, and was addicted to killing. She indulged herself in it, and she was red all over, standing in the middle of blood-sea, drank hot blood which was sending up foam, and couldn't stop. In this myth, Hathor is a terrifying female and homicidal Goddess, "the withdrawal and deprival of love" is manifested in her character, which is the negative behavior chosen by the classical woman or great Goddess. Her mouth acting as trespassing symbol of tearing and devouring is specialized by the dangerous negative goddess. She kills all lives indiscriminately and drinks human's blood ceaselessly. Her hunger and thirst can be solved only by killing innumerable humans. The character of the fiend-like goddesses such as being crazy about blood, addiction and madness is expressed vividly.

B. *The Evil and Unfaithful Human Females*

In the instruction literature, a lot of maxims express the bias against the females, and the females are regarded as the synonym of passiveness, waywardness and degeneration.

"Do not open your heart to your wife. /what you have said to her goes to the street.

Make your wife see your property, / but not to hand it to her.

Do not hand food of the whole year to her. ……

What she does with her husband today she does with another man tomorrow. /

Do not rejoice in your wife's beauty; her heart is set on her lover./ Be sure not to let a woman work for you, because she will think of herself firstly." (Lichtheim, 1976, p.169—180)

From the poem, readers can see that people take sarcastic, negative, doubtful attitude towards the females and the females are regarded as chatters who are disloyal and distrustful.

The author of *The instruction of Ptahhotep* warns males to be very careful when they approach females. The female's charm attracts the male, makes them uncontrollable and finally causes their death. The evil action is attributed to the females. However, the males define themselves as the persons with resisting the temptation.

1. The Enchanter Who Is Very Crazy and Fascinating

In *Khamwas and Tabubu* (Lichtheim, 1976, p.133—136), hostess Tabubu with female charming, is evil and greedy. The female figure embodies the tempting function of Goddess of terror, who controls the desire with power of temptation to result in crime and destruction. Tabubu was full of female charm, but she is also fatal container.

The hero of the story, Khamwas was deeply impressed with Tabubu's beauty when he was visiting Temple of Ptah in the city of Memphis. He lost his heart over her. He sent someone to ask about her. Then he knew that she was born in a clergy and noble family, not a common woman. He passed message to her: prince Khamwas, son of King Ramses II and high priest of Ptah at Memphis invites her to share one wonderful hour together. If possible, he would give her gold and silver; he'd like to help if she involved in any undeserved matter."

After Tabubu heard Khamwas's request. She sent the messenger of Khamwas to tell him "he must come to Bubastis, to her house to visit her." Khamwas forgot his status and duty, and went to Bubastis to see beautiful Tabubu, the woman who appeared many times in his dream. Tabubu gave him a warm welcome. She told Khamwas if he really wanted to spend a wonderful night together with her, he must draft a contract first, give all his possessions to her, and make sure that his children have no right to share his possessions with her in the future. Tabubu also asked Khamwas to kill his children in case they and Tabubu might have dispute on possession later. Khamwas agreed all these demands, for he was controlled by his desire at that time. He killed his children, and threw them out of the window to feed cats and dogs. When Khamwas and Tabubu drank together, they heard the terrible sound made by cats and dogs when they tore children's body. ……

It tells people that woman is synonym for temptation, evilness and greediness. Their beauty is irresistible for man, even a man of fine breeding like Khamwas. The women can only bring destruction to womanizers.

2. The Wife Who Betrays Her husband

There are two evil female images described in the story of *The Two Brothers*. (Lichtheim, 1976, p.205--211)

In this story, the young brother Bata's sister-in-law provoked and lured him. After her shameless attempt had been refused, she was angry and ashamed and afraid of being punished by her husband extremely. So she went further on the evil road. She disguised herself as beating-up. After her husband's returning, she postured as a pitiable creature, and brought a false charge against Bata by confusing right and wrong. She said that Bata beat her up, was going to do irreverence to her, and threatened her not to disclose. Her provocation made the elder brother stamp with fury and itch to kill his young brother at once. The young brother sliced off his genitalia just for showing his innocence, and was forced to leave his native place and live in the Valley of Pine. When the elder brother knew the truth, he killed his wife after coming back, and threw her to the dogs.

Bata was favored by La and gained an exceedingly beautiful wife who was born by selecting the finest of all gods. He loved his wife extraordinarily and told his experience to his wife without preserving it. He also told her a secret that his heart was put on the top of the pine, and that once the pine fell down and the heart fell, he would die. After that Bata's wife abandoned her husband, came to the palace, gained very high status, and was favored by the Pharach. This woman exposed Bata to mortal danger again and again. First, she asked the Pharach to send people to cut down the pine which Bata's heart was put on, and then asked someone to kill the bull which was the Bata's avatar, and cut down the Bata's avatar--Persea trees. When she was watching the carpenter working on the two Persea trees, a slice of tree flying from the trunk fell into her mouth and then she swallowed it unguardedly, so she was pregnant and born a boy. This prince was Bata himself, who became the Pharach of Egypt. He questioned and punished his wife.

There are two reverse female images in the story of the two Brothers. Depending on the male power, the two females, fed by their husbands, live without care, however, they commit crimes. One of them lures her brother-in-law, but doesn't succeed, then she fabricates lies so that her brother-in-law almost dies. Her brother-in-law becomes disabled because of her, finally she pays for that, she is bitten dead by a dog; the other deserts her family and murders her husband, for which at last she never escapes from punishment. From the female viewpoint, readers will have different opinions about the two female figures.

Bata's sister-in-law is not a loose woman who is known far and wide, because she at least beard the young brother—Bata's existence. As Bata said, "She is like my mother." She only had the obscene idea once in a while. And she gave a reward to her brother-in-law by saying "I'll sew a good dress" so as to beg joyousness from him. That shows her jejuneness and lamentableness. Bata's sister-in-law's astonishing destructive power breaks out after her failure in evil cause. She upsides down, even making her husband kill Bata for her own safety by means of threatening to kill herself. Combining it with the ancient Egyptian society, reader knows that the male's disloyalty causes him to a largest extent, to have physical punishment or loss of property after divorce, but for the female, if sensuality leads to the break of marriage, women will be driven out of the family penniless, and go bankrupt in reputation. A story is recorded on Papyrus Westcar. A priest's wife carried on a clandestine love affair with a man, and was reported to the king by her husband, and then was burnt alive. (Lichtheim, 1976, p.69) Even though Bata's sister-in-law would not be burnt, if she were deprived of marriage and social economic rights, and were isolated by the society, it is very difficult for her to live in this world.

Therefore, under the extreme dread, undoubtedly it is hateful for her to go against her conscience and inflict others. But it was really imperative. However, the punishment she got is so terrible. If she would be eaten by dogs, she would not get eternal life afterlife because of incomplete body. This makes people feel sorry for her.

Bata's wife was a "sex cup" given by Gods, especially by male Gods. They gave him the women lest he might not feel lonely. It was common occurrence in Gods` world that treating women as prize and placebo. Goddess Nehsi, the mother of God La once suggested Horus inherit throne, and send God La's two young and beautiful Goddess Net and Astet to Set as compensation. Even Goddess cannot avoid such fate, how could women made by Gods avoid it? Strange

enough, Bata, who was very poor and suffered ill treatment from his brother and sister -in-law in childhood, married with the daughter of God, who is more honorable than Emperor's daughter. Theoretically, family status is not so important in love and marriage, but everyone knows actually people inevitably have class nature. Will the beautiful daughter of God, who is fit to be princess, love this tough farmer and hunter? This "prize" lived in her so-called husband's home. The husband was busy to make a living every day. He often stayed outside for several days when hunting. She had no relatives, no friends, no children, and must follow her husband's warn that she can't go out, "Do not go outdoors, lest the sea snatch you." So she led an isolated life. Although Bata told his wife the secret related to his wife, he hid the truth that he can come back to life. So actually, he didn't tell everything to his wife. Furthermore, readers must notice such a fact: the gift given by Gods appeared in the form of "wife". The couple is just a couple in name only because Bata castrated himself in order to show his innocence to his brother. So they have no sexual relationship, which is indispensable between normal couple. Love and sex are two indispensable factors in harmonious life. If Bata's wife would worship her husband like a disciple, she can get self-satisfaction and comfort through spiritual power and know the meaning of life. But, the fact is not like this. Bata's wife is an exceedingly beautiful wife who was born by selecting the finest of all gods, but not a puppet without feeling. To eliminate her loneliness she left home and walked to a pine nearby, which was the beginning that she betrayed her husband's warn. Nobody, even herself, would not expect that small, unimportant "betray" start her miserable life. When the sea saw her, it sent waves to follow her. The pine got a lock of her hair and the sea carried that hair to Egypt. On the bank, laundryman of Pharaoh found it. The sweet smell of hair soaked Pharaoh's clothes. The clever secretary told Pharaoh, the hair came from the daughter of La, and in her body, nearly every God's variety can be found. Pharaoh sent a lot of warriors and chariots, and also a woman who held many precious women's ornaments. They took her to the court of Egypt. The fairy tale didn't tell us whether warriors and chariots were used, whether there was a war or not between warriors of Pharaoh and Bata. But we know from the story, Egyptian Pharaoh had sent messengers to grab Bata's wife. This behavior irritated Bata, who killed all the messengers except one. So there are two possible reasons for Bata's wife's arrival at court. First, Pharaoh's army defeated Bata, plus the temptation of jewelry; second, while Bata was hunting outside, Pharaoh sent army to convey, as well as jewelry to lure, the woman come willingly. As it is known that woman will always testify her value through finding a successful man. Throughout the love game, the rule of survival of the fittest permeated. Of course, we cannot exclude threaten factor, because the woman didn't abandon her husband and escape when Pharaoh sent people to come at first time. In short, the woman came to Pharaoh under his threaten and temptation. She became his beloved princess and was called "the incomparable". However, the unfortunate fate went with her. She was forced to go on a road of killing husband.

There are many popular Chinese editions of Egyptian fairy tales. Those editors all ignored one plot: before the woman took action to kill Bata time and again, Pharaoh "negotiated, and asked her about her husband." She told him to "send someone to cut the pine then he would die." (Lichtheim, 1976, p.87) Pharaoh sent warriors to do so. In other words, the murder was done by both Pharaoh and the woman, but not her own intrigue. The powerful and brave Bata made Pharaoh worry a lot. As long as he lived, Pharaoh must take the bad name of grabbing other's wife. He was afraid of Bata's revenge every moment. Bata's wife was born beautiful, once she got the chance of accompanying the king, she apparently didn't want people to treat her as someone else` disloyal wife and despise her former humble experience. Woman can only pursue her independence through depending on others. They can't separate from the temptation and control of power. So it is inescapable for them to foster cunning characters. That is the tragedy of women.

The wife didn't show any feeling towards Bata, and even detested him very much. So for three times she made efforts to kill him. But Bata thought she was his. She is a glittery "sex cup" given by Gods. He thought he had permanent right of detaining her because of the permission of marriage. He regarded the woman's loyalty as one of criterion for his self-affirmation. He never allowed any deviate behavior of women. He turned into ox, tree, and son to chase her.

If we turn off the myth coat, and mainly focus on the human being's life in the story, we may find she is controlled by Paternity all life. The tragedy color is thick. This malicious beauty betrayed and killed her husband. She set various of obstacles for the hero. She appeared greedy, cunning and desirous. Bata's wife has her natural human shortcomings, but she is the victim under the control of super power and cultural discrimination. She cannot avoid the fate of being controlled by others. Born as a female, she's regarded as being absent in Libido and vigor and as an incomplete inferior human-being. So as a "sex cup", she is awarded to a man who cannot match her, living isolated life. Her self-sacrifice seems to be her privilege; Then she stands on the king's side for wealth, power and love; under the king's command, she becomes a medium for which two men fight; As a result, only she is a sin, only she continues on the evil road and gets punished. Compared with her, the two guys who trap her into sin abyss are never punished. One of them live to die, killing other people to get rid of his notorious fame of robbing other's wife and horror of being revenged. He enjoys the superior beauty and produces his siblings. The other regards female loyalty as a standard of self-affirmation, he is so persistent in his wife that he becomes the successor of his enemy who is honored as his father by making use of his wife's body . The fairy tale originates from real life and reflects the nature of paternity and sex-politics. In the society, the female's bad luck should be attributed to gods in high rank. If they restore the myth to secular life, readers should contribute the female's life to the situation of being inferior, which deprives females of their independent personalities, having no choice for their lives. The female's bad luck should also be attributed to supreme male power and to

female's decreasing into "substances" which have values of using and being exchanged. From the evil female, readers see a potential power of resistance, subverting paternity and power-control.

II. Causes of the "Evil Woman" Images Created

From the above analysis, the male writers in ancient Egypt express the idea in the way of building up female figure: Women, who are full of passion, without rationality, and lascivious, are symbol of desires. They resorted to all means to satisfy their greed and ambitions. They are ambitious and ruthless, unpredictable, mysterious and lack of responsibility. They don't obey the authority and disciplinary rules. So it is difficult to control them. All women's desires result in the collapse of males' value system and threaten males' power. In the male writers' minds, there is a profound anxiety: women, not only as the creation of human beings, the source of meaning, but also the source of general disillusionment and the most profound and most devastating betrayal. Fiend-like images embody the culture image of women, women desire, and the symbol of death.

Why did "evil woman" image appear frequently in the ancient Egyptian Literature works? The author tries to explore its causes.

A. Influence by Anima Archetype

Carl Jung (1987) points out that "Anima archetype is the absolute female image in male's collective unconsciousness, she is always mood, response, impulse of the male before-hand. Sometimes Anima is a graceful goddess, sometimes she is a succubus or a devil." (p.127) Archetypal women become a part of human consciousness and had been given negative characteristic just like devil when human face of death, destruction, dangers, difficulties, hunger and defenseless situation etc. "They dominate lust and destroy the male's consciousness. She is dark, cruel, crazy, indulgent, seductive, ostile, stimulating." (Neumann, 1998, p. 27)

B. Good and Evil in the Traditional Human Nature

It should be acknowledged that male writers in shaping the images of women, are impacted by good and evil of the traditional model of human nature. Zhou Zuoren said, "People are strange things in the end, brilliant like gods on one side, having animal-liking hobby on the other side." (Zhou, 1987, p.201) This shows that the elements of human nature include both "good" and "evil" and the two elements are essential attributes of human nature. Each individual human has "good" and "bad" in their deep mind, according to the proportional share of "good" and "evil" in human nature and the impact on human life and human society respectively, people are judged as good and bad. In Shakespeare and ancient Egyptian male writers' works it seems not surprising that there appear angels on behalf of "good" and fiends on behalf of "evil", or the woman images both as "good" and "evil".

Why does the author analyze this phenomenon in feminine perceptive in the end? Because the human nature of good or bad is a factual assessment and also a value judgment. In the view of Humanity's good and evil (virtual and valuable), social perspective should be included as well as individual perspective. On the community, the factors which are good to individual's total (as a category of people) survival, development and improvement, are regarded as legitimate and reasonable components and they are called good. In contrast, they will be called bad.

It is noteworthy that this judge standards seem objective and universal, but how to cognize and understand the judge standards, how to analyze and select it and how to determine the nature and make the decision will be greatly effected by many judge's own factors (subjective and objective conditions and time-space positioning). The judge's own factors embody subjective elements and value judgment of their own in human judgment. Therefore, the judge of good and evil in human judgment involves some kind of values or subjectivity which are named as subjective or valuable concept of good and evil. As in the class society, different classes of people will make different and even opposite Human Nature judgment to the same human factors and actual performance. It is entirely possible for the individual to make good or bad judgment from his own desires which will fundamentally damage the overall (including the judge himself) survival, development and improvement; And the community is entirely possible to make good and evil judgment of human from the community desires (namely the desires of the strong group) and in the name of social welfare which fundamentally damage the majority individual's live, development and perfection in the society. This shows that in male-dominated society, the standards of evaluating female characters and acts will inevitably bear male imprint, which centers the desires of men. It will fundamentally damage the women's lives, development and perfection to evaluate and judge women in the name of public.

C. Male-dominated Society

Male-dominated society is just like prison authorities which have the right of discipline and keep the suspects under round-the-clock surveillance. Both females oppressed by Male-dominated society and male writers accept reforming morality without using any violence. So the male writers of ancient Egyptian made women evil images by values and ethic of Male-dominated society consciously or unconsciously.

D. The Author's Viewpoint on Female

Helapuqinke (1997) proposes that "the inner part and the spirit of an artist and his outlook on the world are formed gradually depending on a lot of factors, including the factor of experience." (p.157) Besides the background, the

author's personality and his particular experiences and thoughts affect his work all the time.

The facts which constitute story environment have never appeared "on their own" and they present before us according to certain perspective and certain observation point. In literature, people have never studied the original facts or time but the facts or events depicted in some way. We can write two different facts when we observe the same fact from two different angles. Male authors who live in male society of the cultural ideological environment, are unable to be free from the limitations of history, the narrative is formed from the male viewpoint and the female images are from male narrative perspective which causes the unreal life situation for the female and the female will be imprinted by man right culture.

It can not be known writers of the myths, legends and story due to age, but male's perceptions of females can be revealed through unique the instruction literature of the ancient Egypt such as *The instruction of Ptahhotep, The instruction of Annee*.

Do not rejoice in your wife's beauty; her heart is set on her lover.[1] (Lichtheim, 1976, p.173)

"In whatever place you enter, / Beware of approaching the women !/ Unhappy is the place where it is done, / Unwelcome is he who intrudes on them……He who fails through lust of them, / No affair of his can prosper." (Lichtheim, 1976, p.68)

"Once you are attracted by her glass-like body,/ you will not control the development of the situation./ A thousand men are turned away from their good,/ A short moment like a dream ,/Then death comes for having known them. " (Jin, 2003, p.70)

Male writers tend to ignore male's shortcomings in literature, and bend themselves to reveal the trap which was made by fiend-like females. When women allured men into a failure, they would bring a false accusation against men on the contrary. Women lust after vanity, abandon her husband cruelly, and murder her husband. They also lure male to destroy them, and so on.

Basically, Feminism of ancient Egyptian man writer is the same with that of the writers of other nations. They view females as being passive, tempting, degenerate and destructive. Although some speak highly of the greatness of females, (basically limited to mother and goddess), because it is quite rare in ancient Egyptian works, it does not play an important role in ancient Egyptian works. The literary works they have written display the various demands, imaginations and description of females and gender relations in symbolic and aesthetic significance in male-dominated society.

III. Conclusion

From the above analysis, for the reason of limitation of Anima, the good and evil in the traditional human nature, male-dominated society and the male author's viewpoint on female, the negative female images in ancient Egyptian Literature alienated as "evil woman". As traitors of patriarchal cultures, they become symbols of negative and rotten. They are objects of males' desires and "the other" excluded from the male power center effectively. The females images are controversial because their personalities are not independent, their self consciousness and values are defective, their subjectivity are limited extremely.

The development of history is calling for the development of literature, so it is expected that female images will continuously take on new appearances which are suitable for the times' footprints by the writers from one generation to another generation.

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A Comparative Study of Apologetic E-mails Used by Males and Females Iranian EFL Learners Compared to English Native Speaking Students

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Abstract—The purpose of this study was to compare apology strategies used by Iranian EFL learner students and native English speaking students (NSS) in formal and informal situations. The aim was further to investigate gender differentiation among participants. For this purpose, data were elicited from 40 Iranian (16 males and 24 females) and 40 native English speaking students (20 males and 20 females) through a *Discourse completion task* questionnaire. The findings of the study revealed specific similarities and differences in terms of frequency and percentage for apologetic strategies used by Iranian and native English speaking students. These findings could be a pedagogical help to teachers, students and those interested in interlanguage pragmatics.

Index Terms—apology, apology strategies, Iranian EFL learners, native English speaking students, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

As it is well known, using e-mail is now a widely and frequently used interpersonal communication medium. In fact, it is becoming an accepted means of communication between university students and their professors. But it might be the case that students are not certain about email writing due to lack of experience. E-mails, if used appropriately, can create a new channel for student-instructor and friend-friend communication particularly in academic settings.

This paper tries to focus on the apology speech act in a specific type of e-mail that is used by students to make apology to their professors and also to their friends in academic setting. As we know, making apology to professors and also to friends through e-mails has become a common discourse practice for students. For example they often use e-mails to apology for being late in doing some assignment or not fully understanding some points and etc. and also it is somehow common among students to their friends. However since in professor – students' relationship, professors are in higher status and in friend – friend relationship, friends have the same status, the way the students perceive the power relation is so important. It makes students to use different strategies for communicating with professors and different strategies for communicating with their friends.

For non-native students, there are factors that will affect their choice of discourse strategies in making apology to professors and to friends in e-mail. One important factor is distance and social relation. It will likely affect their use of apology strategies in terms of being polite or being intimate (Chalak, 2009).

As it has been observed, Iranian EFL learners are likely to write their email apology to their professors and to their friends variously from those of English native speakers. This study was an investigation into Iranian English foreign language learners and English native speaking students in sending e-mails to their professors and to their friends. So, this paper compared the discourse strategies used in such apologetic e-mails by Iranian EFL learners and English native speaking students.

Also, it is known that gender differences have an influence on the selection of formulas for the realization of apology. To what extent are apologetic strategies different and are there any similarities among students in different genders? This study also investigated how native and non-native males and females apologize in dealing with their instructors and friends.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Over the past years, using e-mail for communication has increased surprisingly, in almost all social settings; at works, between friends, and in academic settings. Particularly using e-mails at universities and colleges has been more common. It assumes a number of functions such as the delivery of assignment, or about the procedures of the course (Poling 1994; Shetzer, 1998; Worrel, 2002).

In most universities, communication via e-mail has become one of the most frequently used means for students to consult with their professors (Abdullah, 1998; Kirkley, Savery, & Grabner-Hagen, 1998).

Research on e-mail use in academic setting has mostly focused on e-mails that are exchanged between nonnative speakers of English and native speakers (Biesenbach-Lucas, 2005, 2006, 2007; Li, 2000; Chen, 2001, 2006).

Rod & Eslami-Rasekh (2005) have studied openings in e-mail discourse of native and nonnative TESOL graduate students. Eslami-Rasekh & Eslami Rasekh (2007) have studied openings and closings in e-mail discourse of Iranian NNES and NES TESOL graduate students.

Research on apology has been started from the work of Goffman (1971). It has been continued by Holmes (1990) and Robinson (2004). Also, studies in this relation both in native and non-native languages (Eslami, 2004; Shariati and Chamani, 2010) have been conducted to address the strategies that used for conveying the illocutionary act and contextual features that influence on the choice of these strategies.

Apology has been studied extensively in previous pragmatic studies in different languages in comparison with English: Cantonese (Rose, 2000), Danish (Trosborg, 1995), Hungarian and Italian (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998), Hebrew (Olshtain, 1989; Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985), Japanese (Kondo, 1997; Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper, & Ross, 1996) and Korean (Kim, 2001; Lee, 2000) Such studies in apology have produced some main findings. Apology research, both in western and eastern languages (Eslami, 2004; Shariati and Chamani, 2010), has primarily addressed the strategies used to convey the illocutionary act and the contextual factors that influence the choice of these strategies.

Holmes (1993) and Mohammad Dadkhah Tehrani (2012) studied gender differences in apologies and found both similarities and differences between males and females. She found that women apologize significantly more than men and also they apologize most to hearers of equal power while men apologize to women irrespective of status.

Cohen and Olshtain (Cohen and Olshtain, 1985; Olshtain and Cohen, 1983) developed a questionnaire consisting of eight situations, five varying in terms of status and solidarity relations between the participants, and the remaining three holding status and solidarity constant, but varying in severity of the offense. The same questionnaire has been employed in some later studies, such as Ang-Abey, 1991 (Hokkien Chinese of Sarawak Malaysia), Suszczynska, 1994 (American English and Hungarian), Suszczynska, 1999 (American English, Polish, and Hungarian), and Eslami-Rasekh, 2004 (American English and Persian). The CCSARP (Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns) project made use of a set of seven situations (two of which are also found in Olshtain and Cohen's work), with variation in status and solidarity relations, but not in severity of offense, to investigate a variety of languages, including Hebrew, Canadian French, Australian English, and German (Olshtain, 1989). A number of other scholars have done similar works, using written or spoken discourse completion tests, but using situations of their own devising, usually with variation in status and solidarity relations and/or severity of offense, for example Bergman and Kasper 1993 (Thai), Meier 1996, 1997 (Austrian German), Bataineh 2004 (Jordanian Arabic), Lee 2000 (Korean) and Okumura and Wei 2000 (Japanese).

In addition to differences in method of data collection, there is remarkable variation in the categories of analysis used from one study to another. Cohen and Olshtain (Cohen and Olshtain, 1981; Olshtain and Cohen, 1983) proposed a speech-act set for apologizing which consisted of five semantic formulas: an expression of apology, taking on responsibility, explanation or account, offer of repair and promise of forbearance.

Wouk (2006) stated that, in the analysis of their results, all these studies made reference to Cohen and Olshtain's speech act set, but in a number of cases, additional strategies were included. He stated that it would seem, in spite of the large amount of work that has been done on the practice of apologizing, many issues relating to the choice of strategies remain unresolved.

According to the studies of Woulk (2006) different scholars define apology in different ways. It has been defined as a remedial action (Goffman, 1971), and as an act of verbal redress, used when social norms have been violated by a real or potential offense (Olshtain, 1989). Investigation of apologies began in the early 1980s. Owen (1983) looked at apologies from a Goffmanian perspective, as a type of ritual action, specifically a type of remedial interchange. However, the impetus for most later studies on apologizing was provided by the work of Olshtain and Cohen (Cohen and Olshtain, 1981; Olshtain and Cohen, 1983), in developing Fraser's (1981) notion of a 'speech-act set' of strategies for apologies, and its further development by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) in conjunction with the CCSARP (Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Patterns) project.

Bergman and Kasper (1993) defined an apology as "a compensatory action to an offense in the doing of which speaker was casually involved and which is costly to hearer". Brown and Levinson (1987) claimed that all speakers choose the same strategies under the same conditions, and tried to demonstrate this by looking at three different languages, namely English, Tzeltal (a Mayan language), and South Indian Tamil.

One of the most influential views about the classification of apologies is Goffman's (1971). He distinguishes two types of compensations: ritual and substantive' (Nureddeen, 2008: 282). Following this distinction, Fraser (1981, 265) provides two motivations associated with substantive and ritualistic apologies; in substantive apology the speaker wants to remedy the damage or harm caused by the offense while the ritual apology may be produced as a kind of habit associated with certain routines.

Fraser (1981) and Nureddeen (2008) provide an extended list of strategies which includes announcing apology, stating obligation to apologize, offering to apologize, requesting hearer to accept the apology, expressing regret, requesting forgiveness, acknowledging responsibility, promising forbearance, and offering redress.

Olshtain and Cohen (1983:22-23) and Nureddeen (2008) state that apologies are realized by one of these five strategies: an illocutionary force indicating device (IFID), an expression of responsibility for the offence, an account of cause of violation, an offer of repair, and a promise of forbearance.

Another classification for apology was proposed by Blum Kulka and Olshtain (1984: 206) who provided five verbs (regret, excuse, be sorry, forgive, pardon) beside (apologize) which they considered as performative verbs in English.

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain 1984; Trosberg, 1987; and Holmes, 1989 used another model for apology strategies which categorized as bellow:

1. **An expression of apology:** the speaker uses an offer of apology, an expression of regret, and request for forgiveness.

2. **An explanation or account:** the speaker explains why violation or damage happened.

3. **An acknowledgement of responsibility:** the apologizer admits to having responsibility for the offense.

4. **An offer of repair:** speaker may attempt to repair or pay for the damage caused by the offense.

5. **Promise for forbearance**: the speaker may promise not to repeat the offense in future.

6. **Concern for the hearer:** the speaker does not necessarily imply any sense of responsibility and carries no risk of damage to speaker's face.

7. **Intensification:** the speaker's use of adverbial (e.g. terrible, very, extremely, etc) and repetition of IFID (e.g. I'm sorry, please forgive me).

Bergman and Kasper (1993:86) used another category for apology strategies: IFID, downgrading, upgrading or use of adverbials, taking on responsibility or admitting the offense, offer of repair, and verbal redress.

Brown and Attardo (2000: 84) suggest that an apology consists of the following five components:

a. an expression of apology

b. an explanation of the situation

c. an acknowledgment of responsibility happened as a part of his/her apology

d. an offer of repair

e. a promise of non-recurrence

The present study was an attempt:

• To find out (if there is any) different apology strategies in e-mail writing that used by Iranian EFL learners and English native speakers,

• To compare those apology strategies used by those students that send to their professors and those they send to their friends,

• To compare the strategies that used by male and female in strategy use of apology.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. Is there any difference between Iranian EFL learners and English native speakers in e-mail writing regarding the apology strategies?

2. Is there any relationship between the strategies of apologetic e-mails that students send to their professors and those they send to their friends?

3. Is there any difference between males and females in e-mail writing regarding the apology strategies?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Two different groups of participants took part in this study: Iranian EFL learner students and native English speaking students. The first group of participants were 40 (16 males and 24 females) Iranian EFL learner students and the second group were also 40(20 males and 20 females) native English speaking university students. The rationale behind choosing the 40 participants from each situation as a source of data collection was a convenience of sampling. All of the participants were between 24 and 32 in age. The EFL learner participants were solicited from the university students majoring in different academic fields. And also Native English speaking participants were selected through one of friends that knew natives and sending emails to them.

B. Instrument

This study utilized data from a discourse completion test (DCT). According to Wouk (2006), there are, of course, many advantages disadvantages and in using this type of data. The main advantages of the DCT methodology are that, due to the controlled nature of the study, it is possible to collect and process the data quickly. It is not natural speech, in fact it is not speech at all, and is not produced interactively. However, many studies (beebe & cummings, 1995; kasper and dahl, 1991; sasaki, 1998) support the use of this instrument for the study of speech acts, which is also the purpose of this study. So the data collection was through a controlled elicitation method based on a modified version of 'Discourse completion Tests' questionnaire used in CCSARP (Blum-Kulka, 1984). The DCT used here (see appendix A) included a brief description of the situations. In other words, the researcher designed a questionnaire consisted of two hypothesized discourse situations, which a university student is likely to encounter in his/her daily language interactions.

The questionnaire in the study consists of three parts the same as the one used by Bataineh (2005):
1. An introduction of the study and instructions for answering the questions,
2. A section for collecting demographic information about the participants, and
3. 2 scenarios one formal and another informal; each of which involves a situation which requires an apology.

C. Procedure

The participants were supposed to answer the questionnaire as if they were writing to their professors (instructors) and as if they were writing to their friends. They were supposed to put themselves in real situations and to assume that in each situation what they would say. The reason for choosing these two particular situations was, because the intention was to select situations that represent how the participants react with what they have done and how they apologize in formal and informal situations. Since the questionnaire had already been piloted and checked for reliability (Bataineh, 2005) the researchers did not conduct a pilot study. Furthermore, it was somehow modified by the researcher. And finally it was judged by some experts in the field to assure its content validity.

D. Data Analysis

A discourse-pragmatic analysis was used to analyze the apologetic e-mails collected for the study. The researcher identified the strategies used by the respondents and then classified them based on the model used by Eslami and Eslami (2007); Blum Kulka (1984); Trosborg (1987) and Holmes (1990). Not only was the percentage of the apology strategies used tallied, but also the percentages of those used by the subjects were calculated and compared to discover any potential differences such as gender. First, each e-mail was divided into opening, body and closing. Then, based on the framework employed by Eslami and Eslami (2007), the opening and closing of the emails was analyzed as follows:
I. Openings
   A. Salutation: e.g., Hi, Hello
   B. (Salutation) + Title: e.g., (dear) + Dr./ Ms./ Mrs./ professor + name of the instructor + (Salutation), Hi/hello (dear) Dr. + name of the instructor
   C. Small talk/greeting follow up: e.g., I know how childish is to ask, I know that u are very busy
II. Closings
   A. Pre-closing: e.g., wish you a safe journey, have a great new year, thank you
   B. Farewell: e.g., regards, sincerely yours
   C. Identification of the sender: e.g., Mina, V.P

For the analysis of the body of apologetic emails, the model was used based on the coding scheme developed by Cohen and Olshtain (1981: 113-134) and Olshtain and Cohen (1983: 22-23), as well as on the CCSARP coding manual (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989: 289) as well as Farashaiyan and Amirkhiz, (2011).

Blum-Kulka, et al.'s (1989) coding scheme classifies head acts (i.e., apology strategies) into six different types (Suszczynska, 1999 and Farashaiyan and Amirkhiz, 2011):
(1) Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices (IFIDs)
   a. An expression of regret, e.g. I'm sorry
   b. An offer of apology, e.g. I apologize
   c. A request for forgiveness, e.g. Excuse me/Forgive me
(2) Explanation or Account, e.g. The traffic was terrible.
(3) Taking on responsibility
   a. Explicit self-blame, e.g. It is my fault/ my mistake
   b. Lack of intent, e.g. I didn't mean it
   c. Expression of self-deficiency, e.g. I was confused/ I forgot
   d. Expression of Embarrassment, e.g. I feel awful about it
   e. Self- dispraise, e.g. I'm such a dimwit!
   f. Justify hearer, e.g. You're right to be angry
   g. Refusal to acknowledge guilt
      Denial of responsibility, e.g. It wasn't my fault
      Blame the hearer, e.g. It's your own fault
      Pretend to be offended, e.g. I'm the one to be offended
(4) Concern for the hearer, e.g. I hope I didn't upset you
(5) Offer of Repair, e.g. I'll pay for damage
(6) Promise of Forbearance, e.g. It won't happen again

To establish reliability of this coding scheme, intra-coder as well as inter-coder reliability was used. In so doing, after a three-week interval, the content of the e-mails was analyzed and recoded again by the researcher. Also the contents was analyzed and categorized by another coders or raters (the researcher and her colleague) independently using the same analysis table. The researcher used tables (see results section) to clarify the method used to show the different apology strategies employed in each situation and their percentages. Below, the obtained results and the relevant discussion will be reported.

V. FINDINGS

The students' e-mails were analyzed in terms of descriptive statistics. The data were basically nominal and based on frequencies; therefore, percentages were calculated. Each e-mail was analyzed by the researcher with regard to the opening employed in each apologetic e-mail. First, the level of formality and politeness of the openings in e-mails was examined, and then the realization patterns used both by N and NN groups and also male and female were investigated. The analysis of the opening of 80 e-mails, in student – professor situation and student – student (friend – friend) situation are tabulated in the following Tables.

Concerning the research question one, the analysis of the data revealed that the participants used all these apologetic strategies more than the others: a) an expression of regret, and b) an offer of apology c) a request for forgiveness d) explanations/accounts e) concern for the hearer f) promise of forbearance. Frequency and percentage of usage have been reported in the tables 3 and 4. The following tables illustrate the analysis with regard to the first and second research questions.

TABLE 1-
LEVEL OF FORMALITY IN THE OPENINGS OF THE STUDENTS' E-MAILS (QUESTION 1)

Groups	f/p	Formal	Informal	Not present
M-N	f	13	0	7
	p	65 %		35 %
M-EFL	f	16	0	0
	p	100 %		
F-N	f	12	1	7
	p	60 %	5 %	35 %
F-EFL	f	24	0	0
	p	100 %		
N	f	26	0	14
	p	65 %		35 %
EFL	f	40	0	0
	p	100 %		
M	f	29	0	7
	p	80.55%		35 %
F	f	36	1	7
	p	81.81%	5%	35%

Necessary abbreviations for each table are: M: Male, F: Female, M-N: Male-Native, F-N: Female-Native, f: frequency, p: percentage.

As can be seen in the table, both groups employed some opening realizations in most of the e-mails. For situation one that is a formal situation, all Iranian EFL learner students employed formal openings for addressing their professors (100%); the highest percentage of the use of formal address terms was by female EFL learner students followed by male EFL learner students. The opening of the emails was more absent in NESS e-mails compared to EFL learner students that there was no absent. Also all emails that used by males participants had opening.

The use of formal addressing realization patterns was the most common in EFL learners' data (100%). But related to males and females NESS, males students used 65 % formal address term compared to females students that used 60 %.

TABLE 2-
LEVEL OF FORMALITY IN THE OPENINGS OF THE STUDENTS' E-MAILS (SITUATION 2)

Groups	f/p	Formal	Informal	Not present
M-N	f	0	14	6
	p		70 %	30 %
M-EFL	f	1	15	1
	p	6.25 %	93.75 %	6.25 %
F-N	f	3	9	8
	p	15 %	45 %	40 %
F-EFL	f	0	24	0
	p		100 %	
N	f	3	23	14
	p	15 %	57.5 %	35 %
EFL	f	1	39	1
	p	6.25%	97.5 %	2.5 %
M	f	1	29	7
	p	6.25%	80.55%	19.44%
F	f	3	33	8
	p	15%	75%	40

As illustrated in Table 2, for situation two (an informal situation), Iranian EFL learner students employed informal openings more than native English speaking students; the highest percentage of the use of informal address terms used by female EFL learner students, that followed by male EFL learner students. Less than 98 % of EFL learner students used informal address terms to open their e-mails. The opening was more absent in NESS e-mails compared to EFL learner students.

The use of informal addressing realization patterns was more common in male NN data (93.75%). All of females NNESS were very informal with their friends (100%). male NNESS were more informal than males NESS. All females EFL learner students used no opening for interacting with their friends.

The data in table 3 shows the number of actual apology strategies used for situation 1 and the percentage of subjects which used each strategy.

TABLE 3-
CLASSIFICATION SCHEME FOR THE APOLOGY STRATEGIES (SITUATION1)

group	M-N		F-N		M-EFL		F-EFL		N		EFL	
1.illocutionary force indicating device/IFID	f	p	F	p	f	p	f	p	f	p	f	p
a. Expression of Apology	10	50%	8	40%	4	25%	9	37.5%	18	45%	13	32.5%
b.offer of Apology	7	35%	7	35%	5	31.25%	11	45.8%	14	35%	16	40%
c. request of forgiveness	1	5%	2	10%	1	6.25%	3	12.5%	3	7.5%	4	10%
2.explanation/account	18	90%	18	90%	14	87.5%	21	87.5%	36	90%	35	87.5%
3.taking on responsibility	0		0		0		0		0		0	
a. explicit self-blame	2	10%	0		0		1	4.16%	2	5%	1	2.5%
b. lack of intent	1	5%	0		0		1	4.16%	1	2.5%	2	5%
C .expression of self-deficiency	0		0		0		0		0		0	
D.expression of embarrassment	3	15%	0		2	12.5%	1	4.16%	3	7.5%	3	7.5%
e. self-dispraise	0		0				0		0		0	
f. justify hearer	0						0		0		0	
g. refusal to acknowledge guilt	0		0		0		0		0		0	
-Denial of responsibility	0		0		1	6.25%	0		0		1	2.5%
-blame the hearer	0		0		0		0		0		0	
-pretend to be offended	0		1	5%	1	6.25%	1	4.16%	1	2.5%	2	5%
4.concern for the hearer	7	35%	8	40%	9	26.25%	2	8.33%	15	37.55%	11	27.5%
5.offer of repair	4	20%	3	15%	3	18.75%	4	16.66%	7	17.5%	7	17.5%
6.promise of forbearance	9	45%	12	60%	7	43.75%	16	66.66%	21	52.5%	23	57.5%

The situation one is a formal situation. In this situation participants tried to be more formal and careful in their relation with their professors. The data collected clearly shows the use of an IFID as the most common strategy for both NSS and NNS. 45% of NSS used an IFID while 25% (males) and 37.5% (females) NNS used this strategy. "I'm sorry" and "I apologize" were the most common choice of an IFID. 1 male NS and 2 females NSS wrote "excuse me" as an apology to their instructors. One male NSS wrote "pardon me" as his response.

None of the participants used these five apology strategies: expression of self-deficiency, self-dispraise, justify hearer, refusal to acknowledgment, and blame the hearer. Only 1 male EFL learner (6.25%) used the strategy of denial of responsibility in this situation.

The most common strategies that were used by all of participants were: expression of regret, offer of apology, explanations/accounts, concern for the hearer, offer of repair, and promise of forbearance.

TABLE 4-
CLASSIFICATION SCHEME FOR THE APOLOGY STRATEGIES USED BY MALES & FEMALES (QUESTION1)

group	Male		Female	
1.illocutionary force indicating device/IFID	f	p	f	P
a. Expression of regret	14	38.88%	17	38.63%
b.offer of Apology	12	33.33%	18	40.90%
c. request of forgiveness	3	8.33	5	11.36
2.explanation/account	32	88.88%	39	88.63%
3.taking on responsibility				
a. explicit self-blame	2	5.55%	1	2.27%
b. lack of intent	1	2.77%	1	2.27%
C .expression of self-deficiency	0		0	
D.expression of embarrassment	5	13.88%	1	2.27%
e. self-dispraise	0		0	
f. justify hearer	0		0	
g. refusal to acknowledge guilt	0		0	
-Denial of responsibility	1	2.77%	0	
-blame the hearer	0		0	
-pretend to be offended	1	2.77%	2	4.54%
4.concern for the hearer	16	44.44%	10	22.72%
5.offer of repair	7	19.44%	7	15.90%
6.promise of forbearance	16	44.44%	28	63.63%

Concerning the research question 3, with regard to the gender differentiation, it can be said: None of the males and females participants used these four apology strategies in their email to their professors: self-dispraise, justify the hearer, refusal to acknowledge guilt, and blame the hearer. 3 males and 5 females choose "excuse me" – 50% IFIDs used by NSS and 40% by NNS were "I'm sorry".

Only one male used the strategy of denial of responsibility in his email. Males used more expression of embarrassment strategy (13.88%) than females that used just 2.27% from this strategy. The percentage of the females that used the strategies of expression of regret, offer of apology, and promise of forbearance was higher than males'. For females it was 38.63%, 40.90%, 63.63%, respectively and for males it was 38.88%, 33.33%, 44.44%, respectively. Females used more offer of repair (19.44%) compared to males that used 15.90% from this strategy.

TABLE 5-
CLASSIFICATION SCHEME FOR THE APOLOGY STRATEGIES USED BY MALES & FEMALES (SITUATION 2)

Group	Male		Female	
1.illocutionary force indicating device/IFID	f	p	F	p
a. Expression of regret	28	77.77%	34	77.27%
b.offer of Apology	4	11.11%	5	11.36%
c. request of forgiveness	4	11.11%	7	15.90%
2.explanation/account	24	66.66%	19	43.18%
3.taking on responsibility				
a. explicit self-blame	1	2.77%	2	4.54%
b. lack of intent	1	2.77%	1	2.27%
C .expression of self-deficiency	4	11.11%	9	20.45%
D.expression of embarrassment	1	2.77%	2	4.54%
e. self-dispraise	0		2	4.54%
f. justify hearer	2	5.55%	0	
g. refusal to acknowledge guilt	0		0	
-Denial of responsibility	2	5.55%	0	
-blame the hearer	0		0	
-pretend to be offended	0		0	
4.concern for the hearer	6	16.66%	5	11.36%
5.offer of repair	14	38.88%	7	15.90%
6.promise of forbearance	10	27.77%	4	9.09%

Concerning the research question 3, with regard to the gender differentiation, the analyses show: Three apology strategies were used in this informal situation by neither males nor females. They were: refusal to acknowledge guilt, blame the hearer, and pretend to be offended. Denial of responsibility just used by 2 males and no female used that. The percentage for promise of forbearance that used by females (27.77%) were higher than males (9.09%). The two most common strategies that were used by males and females were expression of regret and explanations/accounts; 77.77%, 66.66% for male and 77.27% and 43.18% for female participants.

TABLE 6-
CLASSIFICATION SCHEME FOR THE APOLOGY STRATEGIES (SITUATION 2)

group	M-N		F-N		M-EFL		F-EFL		N		EFL	
1.illocutionary force indicating device/IFID	f	p	f	p	f	p	f	P	f	p	f	p
a. Expression of regret	10	50%	8	40%	4	25%	9	37.5%	18	45%	13	32.5%
b.offer of Apology	7	35%	7	35%	5	31.25%	11	45.8%	14	35%	18	45%
c. request of forgiveness	1	5%	2	10%	2	12.5%	3	12.5%	3	7.5%	5	12.5%
2.explanation/account	12	60%	8	40%	12	75%	11	45.83%	8	20%	23	57.5%
3.taking on responsibility												
a. explicit self-blame	1	5%	1	5%	0		1	4.16%	2	5%	1	2.5%
b. lack of intent	1	5%	0		0		1	4.16%	0		1	2.5%
C .expression of self-deficiency	1	5%	7	35%	3	18.7%	2	8.33%	8	20%	5	12.5%
D.expression of embarrassment	1	5%	1	5%	0		1	4.16%	2	5%	1	2.5%
e. self-dispraise	0		2	10%	0		0		2	5%	0	
f. justify hearer	1	5%	0		1	6.25%	1	4.16%	1	2.5%	2	5%
g. refusal to acknowledge guilt	0		0		0		0		0		0	
-Denial of responsibility	2	10%	0		0				2	5%	0	
-blame the hearer	0		0		0		0		0		0	
-pretend to be offended	0		0		0		0		0		0	
4.concern for the hearer	74	20%	4	20%	2	12.5%	1	4.16%	8	20%	3	7.5%
5.offer of repair	13	65%	3	15%	1	6.25%	4	16.66%	16	40%	5	12.5%
6.promise of forbearance	5	25%	1	5%	5	31.2.5%	3	12.5%	6	15%	8	20%

In the second situation that is an informal situation, the most common apology strategies that used by native English speaking students and EFL learners were expression of regret and explanations/accounts, 45% and 20% used by natives and 32.5% and 75.5% EFL learners.

No participants used the refusal to acknowledge guilt, blame the hearer, and pretend to be offended strategies. One male native used explicit self-blame in his email while no male EFL learners used this strategy.EFL learner students used more explains/accounts strategy (57.5%) than native English speaking students (20%). No EFL learners used the strategy of self-dispraise while 5% of native English speaking student used this strategy.

TABLE 7-
LEVEL OF FORMALITY IN THE CLOSINGS OF THE STUDENTS' E-MAILS (QUESTION1)

Groups	f/p	Formal	Informal	Not present
M-N	f	8	0	12
	P	40 %		50 %
M-EFL	f	10	2	4
	p	62.5 %	12.5 %	50 %
F-N	f	4	0	16
	p	20 %		75 %
F-EFL	f	19	2	3
	p	79.16	8.33 %	6.25 %
N	f	12	0	28
	p	30 %		70 %
EFL	f	29	0	7
	p	72.5 %		17.5 %
M	f	18	2	16
	p	50 %	12.5 %	44.44 %
F	f	23	2	18
	p	52.27 %	8.33%	40.90 %

As it can be seen in Table 7, instructors received formal closings more than informal; females EFL learner students used more formal closing terms compared to the females NSS (about 79% more). The males EFL learner students were more formal (about 62.5%), and no informal closing term found in native English speaking students. 75% females native English speaking students used no term in their closing emails that in comparison to females NNSS were of too much high percentage (6.25%).

TABLE 8-
LEVEL OF FORMALITY IN THE CLOSINGS OF THE STUDENTS' E-MAILS (SITUATION 2)

Groups	f/p	Formal	Informal	Not present
M-N	f	3	5	12
	p	15 %	25 %	60 %
M-EFL	f	1	12	3
	P	6.25 %	75 %	18.75 %
F-N	f	2	7	11
	p	8.33%	35 %	55 %
F-EFL	f	3	15	6
	p	12.5 %	62.5 %	25 %
N	f	5	15	23
	p	12.5 %	37.5 %	65 %
EFL	f	4	27	9
	p	10 %	65.5 %	22.5 %
M	f	4	17	15
	p	11.11%	47.22%	41.66%
F	f	5	22	17
	p	11.36	50%	38.63%

In this situation that is informal, most of the participants have tried to be informal. However there are a number of participants that used formal closing term in this situation. As can be observed in Table 8, EFL learner students employed informal closings more than native English speaking students; the highest percentage of the use of formal closings was by males EFL learner students followed by EFL learners, and female EFL learners. Most of the students either N or NN used informal closings to terminate their e-mail interactions with their instructors. The closing was more absent in EFL learner students' e-mails compared to native English speaking students.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The data depicted in the tables above represent the level of formality of the opening and closing of the emails and various patterns of apology strategies used by both Iranian EFL learner students and native English speaking students in two situations of formal and informal.

The data collected in this study shows that in general, apology strategies between EFL learner students and non-native speakers of English were not dramatically different. Variation was found, however, in the degree to which the strategies were used between the two groups and also between males and females.

Regarding research question one, the present study aimed to provide a descriptive picture of the typology of apology strategies that Iranian EFL learners and native English speaking students display in dealing with identical apology situations. Exploring these strategies revealed some similarities and differences in Iranians and native English speaking students' tendencies towards utilization of apology strategies. These similarities and differences are indicated very clearly in the tables and it was mentioned in the previous section. From seventeen types of strategies on the DCT, Iranian subjects and native English respondents used twelve and fourteen types of strategies, respectively. In other words, Iranians and native English speaking students used similar types of strategies in many of the situations (thirteen).

One of the points that the data revealed is that while use of an IFID is most common for all the two questions and between two groups. The general trend is that as a situation becomes more formal, participants decided to use other strategies (such as expression of self-deficiency, justify hearer, and explanation/accounts). Table 3 and 4 show also that while there is a general trend for more apologetic strategies when the situation becomes formal, there is not a strict correlation between formality and the number of apology strategies employed.

For the research question 3, according to the figures in Tables 1 and 2, Iranian male and female respondents were different in their use of apology strategies. Although male and female respondents used the various forms of the statement of remorse, it seemed the female respondents had tendency to use this strategy more, options for the various forms of remorse in 25% of the situations compared to the male respondent's 5% this is consistent with the claim that females are trained from childhood to apologize more for their mistakes (cf. Brown, & Attarde, 2000).

The two main strategies used by the females for situation 1(formal), were explanations/accounts and promise of forbearance (88.63% and 63.63%, respectively). For situation 2 (informal) the two primary strategies were expression of regret (I'm sorry) and explanation/accounts (77.27% and 43.18%, respectively). While those used by male respondents for situation 1 were an offer of apology, accounts, concern for the hearer, promise of forbearance (33.33%, 88.88%, 44.44%, 44.44%, respectively) and for situation 2, expression of regret, explanation/accounts, offer of repair were the most used strategy (77.77%, 66.66%, 38.88%, respectively).

Females respondents tended to use expression of self-deficiency more than their females counterparts, for situation 2 (20.45%, 11.11%, respectively).Males respondents used the strategy of expression of embarrassment in 13.88% of the first situation, while their female counterparts used this strategy only in 2.27% of that situation.

According to tables 3 and 6, the results reveal that the most explicit realization of an apology is the explicit illocutionary force indicating device (IFID). Table 3 and 6 Show that "an expression of an apology (IFID) is the first one in the list of apologies strategies. It is the most direct realization of an apology. As tables demonstrate, the participants used IFIDs in both formal and informal situations at high frequency ranging from 7.5% - 90%. Regarding the formal situation IFIDs were supplied at high frequency. The respondents used different forms of the expression of remorse. The most common expressions of apology are (IFIDs) e.g. (I am sorry), (pardon), (pardon me) IFID + taking on responsibility. (I am so sorry. It's my fault). IFID + promise of forbearance e.g. (I am sorry for being late. I promise it will be the last time to be late). IFID + interest of the hearer e.g. (I am so sorry, are you OK?) Or IFID + intensifier & acknowledging responsibility + offer of repair e.g. (I am terribly sorry. It is my fault. Can I help you?)

Both native English speaking and EFL learner students' responses in these two situations display regular use of IFIDs, explanations/accounts, offer of repair, concern for the hearer, and promise of forbearance.

In summary the purpose of this study was to obtain a detailed description of how apologies are realized by Iranian EFL learner students and native English speaking students.

VII. LIMITATIONS AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

First of all, the size of the population was relatively small which limits its generalizability. Secondly, the EFL learner participants were solicited from the university students majoring in different academic fields. And also Native English speaking participants were of different cultural and social backgrounds. Therefore, hardly can the findings be generalized beyond this group. Last but not least, the situational factors (Social power, social distance, and gender) were not considered in the analysis of the results in more details.

Moreover, it would have been more desirable if the participants had been interviewed about their apologies. However, it was neither possible for the researcher nor for the participants to have an interview.

The findings of this study may be helpful to the EFL learners who need to know the popular forms of apology as well as the situations in which these forms may be used to communicate effectively and appropriately in their native language.

APPENDIX. THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

I am conducting a research project on pragmatics. I want to analyze the apologetic strategies of native English speakers and compare it with Iranian EFL learner students. I need some English speakers to answer the two following questions. I will appreciate your kindness if you can help me and answer the items.

Thanks,

mohamadi(mohamadi.zeinab65@yahoo.com)

Nationality: age: education: gender:

Please read the two following description of situations and then write what you would SAY in each situation. Please answer as realistically as possible.

1. Imagine that you have postponed the submission of your final project to your professor because of some reason/s. Now you want to send an email to your professor and apologize for that and explain your reason/s. try to persuade your professor!

....

....

....

....

2. Imagine that you have borrowed the pamphlet of one of your intimate classmates. And just when you were supposed to give it back, you didn't do that because of some reason/s. Now you want to send an email to him/her and make apology and explain the reason/s. Try to make him/her happy!

....

....

....

………………………………………………………

Thanks

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The Influence of Cultural Differences between English and Chinese in Advertisement Translation and the Application of Domestication Principle

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Abstract—Cultural differences are caused by different view on value, belief, different esthetic level, morality concepts and so on. The radical cultural differences between English and Chinese exert deep influence upon advertisement translation. Domestication principle is target culture oriented. And advertisement translation, being set at the reader's level of language and knowledge, is more likely to create equivalent effect, which makes it natural to apply domestication principle. What' more, the vocative function of advertisement requires the translators to strictly follow domestication principle in translation. The effectiveness of domestication principle in English and Chinese translation contributes a lot to successful cross-cultural communication.

Index Terms—advertisement translation, culture differences, domestication principle

I. INTRODUCTION

Advertisement, a widely used medium of communication in modern society, has direct effects on people's daily life in many aspects. Since it is an important driving force for the promotion of sales, it plays more and more critical role in enhancing the volume of domestic sales and international sales. Especially after China entering WTO, there are more opportunities of trade communication with other country around the world. In order to convey the producer's message to the target language consumers, advertisement translation is working as a bridge.

Advertisements generally contain specific meanings of a particular culture. Therefore, when they are translated to another language, knowledge of the different values and customs in different cultures is essential to the creation of effective and fruitful advertisements. So, translation of advertisements is, in a larger sense, a means of cross - cultural communication.

II. CULTURAL DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE IN ADVERTISEMENT TRANSLATION

Cultural differences mean that due to different living environments, history, customs, etc people have different ideas in belief, value concepts, and modes of thinking, morality, etc. Advertisement is communication, not only a kind of which influence the economic activities, but also a kind of which influence people's life style and consumption patterns like invisible hands. Advertisement takes many forms, including language, pictures and music etc. Advertisement is the active constituent in the whole market, and the advertising language is full of abundant culture. All languages are the carriers of their respective cultures and they inevitably will be stamped with their own cultural characteristics. Advertisement language is the most important carrier of message, which conveys to us not only the information of the commodity, but also the unique ideas, values and other cultural messages. Without a good command of different cultures, it is difficult to realize a perfect communication between different languages. So a qualified translator should complete a communication between different cultures, making the translation follow the thinking habit of target language cultures, and to build a bridge for them. He or she should know clear about the basic culture differences which can make the translated version well understood and arouse the sympathetic purchasing action. The cultural differences can exert influence over advertisement creation and advertisement translation in various aspects.

A. Different Cultural Values

Obviously, cultural values have laid a strong foundation for people in different cultures. In advertising, it is strongly believed that the most effective advertisements are those that best express and affirm core cultural values. What advertisers and translators should do is to make the advertisements consistent with values of the targeted people. If not, they are likely to be rejected.

For example, respect for the old is a traditional virtue in the Chinese culture. There is an old saying in China"万善以孝为先"(Filial respect for the old goes first in virtue). These ideas have been so deeply rooted in Chinese and regulate people's actions and behavior. In advertising, respect for the old is reflected by many Chinese brand names, such as"阿香婆"(Granny A'xiang),"老干妈"(old nominal mother), and"老干爹"(old nominal father). These brand names sound cordial to Chinese consumers and quite attractive. Similarly this virtue can be illustrated in the following advertising, for example,"正清制药, 关爱老人健康"(Zheng Qing Pharmaceutical Factory shows the utmost solicitude for the health of the elderly),"威力洗衣机,

献给母亲的爱”(Weili Washing Machine is the love dedicating to Mothers). However, in the Western culture the word "old" is associated with the concepts of being "outdated" and "useless", and the words and phrases related to "age" are taboos. Since Western people are afraid of being old, such kind of advertisements is not often presented in English advertisement.

衣食住行，有龙则灵。(建设银行广告)

Your everyday life is very busy. But our Long Card can make it easy.

On one hand, "Long", Chinese people are easily able to associate it with cultural connotation of Chinese character"龙".On the other hand, native speakers in English will regard "Long" as English word "long", which has deep implication that Construction Bank will offer long help for depositors to manage money matters, thus bringing out their long trust to savings.

B. *Different Traditions and Customs*

Every country has its own traditions and customs, which has formed by people's daily life. As we all know that when we learn a foreign language, it's very important to learn the relevant traditions and customs. So it is true in advertisement translation, the version must accord with the native traditions and customs. Here is a example. It is reported that the brand name of the Alarm Clocks made in Tianjin, has changed to "Golden Rooster" to supersede the original "Golden Cock". According to English tradition, "cock" is a taboo word, which can date to early 17th century England and it is one of the many until Queen Victoria's coronation, whereby it became taboo to use it in her court. Misuse of the same word had appeared in trademark "Black Cock Pill" of traditional Chinese medicine Wu Ji Bai Feng Wan(乌鸡白凤丸) Such pill is beneficial to women's health, but ladies in English countries may shrink back at the sight of the taboo word "cock". To get pragmatic equivalence in source and translated advertisement, it would be better to use "rooster" to replace "cock", which can both keep up original connotation and avoid such embarrassed failure as Jin Ji shoe polish factory does: "金鸡鞋油，颜色有黑、棕、白、红、黄等。" Golden Rooster shoe polish comes in black, brown, white, red, yellow, and so on.

Another example is concerned with "YONG FANG" Pearl Cream(永芳珍珠膏)which misuse the taboo word "fang". It is believed that"芳"in Chinese often evokes a beautiful image and association. According to Modern Chinese Dictionary, "芳"is defined as 芳香的(fragrant) and 美好的(happy or splendid). As a result, in Chinese language, positive qualities and attributes such as "beautiful", "fragrant", "glorious", etc. is imposed on the word"芳". Take famous American brand name AVON as an example. In order to open up Chinese market for its cosmetics, the company endeavors to design a Chinese name with a favorable impression on Chinese ladies. Up to now it proved that"雅芳"is deeply rooted in our country and its products are very popular with Chinese women. In English, however, the word "fang" which has same form with Chinese Pinyin "fang(芳)"is defined as: a long sharp tooth, as of a dog or a wolf; a snake's poisonous tooth. In such kind of negative, metaphoric models, audience can do nothing but escape from the product branded with Fang.

C. *Different Orientations: Customer Oriented vs. Product or Service Oriented*

Oriental people have different value and beliefs from occidental people. Most western countries adore individualism, freedom, equality and democracy, and they often use "you" attitude in their advertisements. So their advertisements can be regarded as customer-oriented because they take their own culture into full consideration. This conforms to the western style "Customer is God". Besides, they usually invite you to do something, but seldom give you a command. Because they believe that all people are equal and it is your own choice whether to accept the invitation or not, but never is of their business. They want you feel independent. However, in China, what we worship is collectivism, altruism and rank. Therefore, what we always use is "we" attitude and the tone of the advertisement is always imperative, asking you to do or not to do, and having made the choice for you. A good evidence for this can be the slogan that "Trust me and you will not miss it". Confronting with such a Chinese advertisement, many foreigners may not be free from making their own choice because they have just been put in such a passive environment.

Different orientation helps make different buying tendency. As we all know, western societies are more individualistic and thus more prone to strive for self-achievement, while the Chinese tend to be more collectivistic thus making constant reference to their peers. Reflected in buying beliefs, the westerners will choose products based on their specific needs while Chinese consumers tend to think that products or services favored by the majority are good ones. When the western people are going to purchase bags made by LOUIS VUITTON (LV) or shirts by GEORGIA ARMANI (GA), that is mostly because they think the quality and style match their needs. When the Chinese are to buy the same products, nine out of ten are influenced by others' opinion that people who buy and use those brands are rich, trendy and superior.

China is a society featuring collectivism and conformism, which leads to the individual's strong commitment and loyalty to his group and which poses strong influence on the creation of Chinese advertisements. Chinese advertisements stressing social norms and social acceptability will be favored while in western countries those featuring personal preferences and feelings will be well accepted.

Gillette Sensor: The only Razor that Senses and Adjusts to the Individual Needs of Your Face.

In the advertisements, the advertisers are fully aware of core values like individualism, self-respect, independence, and pursuit of individual benefits. In a society advocating individualism, such advertisements just hit the core value and meet consumers' pursuit of uniqueness and individualism Phrases like "especially for you" appear frequently in English advertisements.

On the contrary, traditionally as a collectivistic society, most Chinese consumers regard themselves in the context of a

society and do not want to stray away from the society. Thus, they will choose the same products and brands chosen by other members of the group. So the advertiser makes full use of such conformity tradition and persuades all the consumers at the same time. The advertisements imply that it is natural to use things used by others.

Some examples:

(1).娃哈哈果奶:今天你喝了没有?

(Literal meaning: Have you drunk Wahaha Juice Milk today?)

(2)瑞奇服装:我们的牛仔服。

(Literal meaning: Ruiqi clothes---our jeans.)

So, if example (1) is translated as "Have you drunk Wahaha Juice Milk today", the first response of target consumers is the wonder why they should drink Wahaha Juice Milk at all with a repulsive feeling. Obviously, this first response is not desirable at all to advertisers. If example (2) is translated as "Ruiqi clothes---our jeans", the foreign consumers will feel uncomfortable of being stuck together with so many others of the same group of people, which run against the core value of individualism of a lot of western people. They will surely avoid such products likely to become uniforms.

D.   Different Political Background

Because of different political systems and religious beliefs, misapplication of words in terms of policy, economy and culture with distinctive national features is another typical reason to cause miscommunication to English people who are unfamiliar with Chinese conditions. For instance,

"白熊牌"香兰素 Polar Bear Xiang Lan Essence

"大鹏牌"卷笔刀 ROC Sharpener

The phrase "Polar Bear" has particular connotation in international political language which refers to Russia, so consumers may think that the product was made in Russia. To avoid misunderstanding we would better change this English version to "White Bear" or something. As we know, in Chinese fairy tale "Da Peng" refers to the biggest bird with commendatory meaning. People can use the idiom"鹏程万里"to express blessing that someone will have a bright future. But it is possible for foreign customers to associate ROC with abbreviation of Republic of China. This translated brand name neither does good to establish good image of exports nor helps defend national dignity. If the products enter into the international markets, the English brand name should be changed like "Giant Eagle" or something to get pragmatic equivalence.

E.   Different Modes of Thinking: Hypotaxis vs. Parataxis

Western and Oriental people have different modes of thinking: hypotaxis vs. parataxis. Western countries emphasize hypotaxis, and there is a strong logic relation among their language marks, while Chinese emphasizes parataxis that meaning of words connects sentences. In English advertisements, different parts of the sentences are always connected by many conjunctions and propositions, which do not have practical meanings. It pays much attention to the attributive, rhetorical, equal and contrastive relations between the sentences through the meanings of words. So, from this point, we say that English is more complicated than Chinese. Translators should either add or omit some words to make readers with different native tongues feel comfortable and to minimize the strangeness brought by a foreign language.

Different modes of thinking make people express themselves in different ways. The obvious contrast is coming straight to the point and talking in a roundabout way. Foreigners like to speak out their ideas at the beginning of their statement, and then give their detailed description. But we Chinese people are not used to stating the ideas too directly. Instead, we speak more tactfully and may use more euphemism. We are accustomed to put less important things first, and then talk step by step, with the conclusion given at the end of the paragraph. So the focus is put at the end of an advertisement. But this does not conform to foreigners' expression habit. So during advertisement translation, translators must pay attention to the difference and try to make the translation accords with the expression habits of target language readers.

From the above analysis we can see that advertising is the products of culture, and is deeply rooted in the whole national culture. In designing and translating advertisements, advertisers or translators may easily neglect the customs, conventions, religions in different countries and nationalities, etc. The values, life style of a nation, religion, morals, and ethic standards have to be seriously considered in the translation of advertisement. The application of appropriate translation methods is quite essential in order to make the advertisement well understood and accepted by target language customers.

III.   THE NECESSITY TO APPLY DOMESTICATION PRINCIPLE

Domestication is a translation strategy which is target culture oriented, which came out in the old Rome, but has been widely used in the practice for a long time. It uses target or some other language that are similar with target language to translate works, articles, and papers, which are written in another different language. It uses transparent and fluent style, and follows the thinking habit of target language readers to the minimum level, also to make the translation fluent, folk and easy to be understood, with the pursuit of the accomplishment of communication between different cultures. (Guo, 2000) The application of domestication principle in English and Chinese translation is in accordance with the requirement of translation, in which the dynamic equivalent effect should be taken into consideration. In *The Theory and Practice of the Translation* Nida proposed the theory of Dynamic Equivalent Effect, which advocates producing the same effect on the readership of the original during the translation. (Nida, 2001) His theory has been the criterion by which the effectiveness, and therefore the value of the translation of advertisement are to be assessed.

Advertisement translation as a communicative translation, being set at the reader's level of language and knowledge, is more likely to create equivalent effect. Owing to their communication style, English advertisements are going to be settled in the Chinese background after being translated, and vice verse. But one same purpose is that the effects created among the source language readers and the target language readers are the same. Different from literature translation, the essence of the source language culture is not as important in the communicative translation. Therefore, only if we can successfully obtain the closest effect in two languages, can the translation be called reasonable and whether it keeps the same flavor or culture seems not at all important. That is the main reason why we should adopt the domestication principle.

Then the vocative function of advertisement requires the translators to strictly follow domestication principle in translation. Advertising spreads related information of services and ideas to consumers. It has the function of communication. People rely on advertising to obtain product and service information, then further decide whether to take buying actions or not. Thus, it has the informative, vocative and persuasive functions. The core of the vocative function is the readership, the addressee. It is used to call upon the readership to act, think or feel, in fact to react in the way intended by the advertisement. It has two factors. The first one is that the relationship between the writer and the readership is realized in various types of socially or personally determined grammatical relations or form of address, playing a great role in determining the tone of advertisement; the second one is that the advertisement must be translated in a language that is immediately comprehensible to the readership. From these two factors we can conclude that the vocative function of advertisement requires the translators to strictly follow domestication principle in translation.

If we are guided by domestication principle, we are setting the advertisements in the target language and culture, considering their customs, values, modes of thinking, etc, to deliver the original meaning of the advertisement. Therefore, the target customers' reaction can be judged from their own backgrounds, which tend to be the same or at least the closest to the source language customers. So the application of domestication principle is very helpful to achieve the dynamic equivalent effect.

IV.   APPROPRIATE APPROACHES OF APPLYING DOMESTICATION PRINCIPLE

In order to minimize the cultural strangeness for target language readers, domestication is suggested in the translation in order to get the expected effect, because it has full consideration of target language readers' acquisitive ability and esthetic orientation. The application of domestication in advertisement translation is feasible and helpful. Translators can benefit from this strategy to play well the role of decoder and mediator, so that the message in the advertisement can be transferred to the target language readers correctly and effectively. In order to make an appropriate application, several approaches are available as follows:

A.   Omission

Omission generally refers to omitting some articles, prepositions, adverbs, pronouns, etc. when we do translation from English to Chinese. Those omitted are necessary in an English text that emphasizes hypotaxis, but they have no practical meanings. While we are translating Chinese into English, we also should omit some words, and what we omit are words that have strong Chinese characteristics. These words are just used to reinforce the focus or for the sake of parallelism or the balance of the whole sentence, so as to strengthen the persuasive power of advertisement. So, we do omitting to make the translation conform to target language readers' thinking or expressive habit, and to make the translation easy to be accepted. For example:

我公司以"质量第一，顾客至上"的经营宗旨，集潮州工艺之精华，博采众家之长，独领风骚，深受国内外客户的好评，并已在世界上建立了良好的贸易关系网。竭诚欢迎各界同仁光临垂询，友好合作，共同发展陶瓷业。

Adhering to the principle of quality and client first, our commodities are of high quality and enjoy a good reputation among the users both at home and aboard. We sincerely welcome orders and cooperation.

Comparing with the original, some words have been omitted in the translation, such as "集潮州工艺之精华，博采众家之长，独领风骚", just be translated into "our commodities are of high quality", which is simple enough. "并已在世界上建立了良好的贸易关系网" has totally been omitted. In Chinese, there are so many rhetorical words, such as fours words or six words paraphrases, which have strong power. But in English, there is no equivalent for them, so omission is necessary here. Although the parallelism in the original makes force, it will be tiresome and will enervate for English readers. Another word "风骚" and the last sentence "共同发展陶瓷业" have strong Chinese characteristics. This is a reflection of collectivism. But foreigners adore individualism. This is contrary to our Chinese habit "welcome to cooperate with us" and so on. So omission is adopted here to make foreign readers easy to understand the meaning of the advertisement and feel comfortable to get the general but essential meaning of the original. Considering their own value concepts can make it easier for them to accept the advertisement at last.

B.   Addition

Addition means that while translating, translators should add some words to make the translation consecutive, fluent and perfect. It is opposite to omission. The added parts contain the omitted contents of the original, the latent means of the text, some rhetorical words such as adjectives or adverbs, to make the translation affluent, and to suit with target language readers' taste. For example:

7 UP

The Uncola
Made to go the cola one better
Fresh, clean, crisp
Never too sweet
No after taste
Everything a cola's got and more
7 UP...The Uncola
The Un and only
七喜
大众的可乐，
它是众可乐中的佼佼者，
它新鲜，干净，清爽。
甘甜可口，
意犹未尽。
它博取众家之长，
七喜，大众的可乐，
它是你唯一的最佳选择。

In the translation, four pronouns of "它" are added, which gives a definite indication of the drink——7 UP. "It" emphasizes that it is this drink that brings us those pleasant feelings. Its name ——7 UP has been put at the most important position, which can give the readers an obvious guidance, leading them to come to the drink, and have a taste of it. Besides, there are some other words added to the translation, such as the two "最", to make the translation fluent and folk. In this way addition helps extrude the focus of the advertisement——the product, which suits well people's way of acceptance.

C. Inversion

As being discussed above, English and Chinese have different orientations and ways of expression, so translators should flexibly follow their separate habits and change the sentence order or adjust the focus. So inversion is necessary. And here are some examples:

We have hidden a garden full of vegetables where you'd expect. In a pie.
在你意想不到的地方，我们珍藏了满园的蔬菜，那是在小小的馅饼里。

Here the translator put the meaning of "where you would expect" at the beginning of the sentence, with the purpose of emphasizing the surprise. So at the first sight of this advertisement, people may want to know what the place is exactly in. This meets Chinese people's curiosity, and they get great pleasure from it. Because of this strong attraction, they come to the restaurant, sit down and have a good share of this delicious pie.

Another good example for the use of inversion is an advertisement of electronic warmer.
外面冰冻三尺，屋内春意融融。
Better cozy is here than cold there.

In this advertisement, the translator applies the structure "better...than..." to the translation, which conforms to the English thinking habit. Through the use of this structure, the comparative effect is achieved and the readers are given good visual sense. They may then form in their mind a clear understanding of this product, which helps a lot in their decision making.

D. Substitution

Substitution is to use some target language words to substitute the unfamiliar words so that we can minimize the strangeness brought by the original to the minimum level. For example:

Revlon
露华浓

For Chinese, the first impression of this translation might be memory of the popular poem written by Li Bai, a famous poet in the Tang dynasty. It writes that "云想衣裳花想容，春风拂槛露华浓。若非群玉山头见，会向瑶台月下逢。" which describes a well known ancient beauty——Yang Yuhuan's attraction. In this translation homophony is adopted——"Revlon" and "Lu Hua Nong", to give readers an imagination of her beauty. Then a hint is given to the readers that by using this kind of cosmetics, they will own the appearance as attractive as Yang Yuhuan. So in the translation, the domestication principle is adopted due to Chinese people's familiarity of Li Bai's poem, and it is also a good illustration of substitution.

E. Conversion

Conversion usually takes words and sentence as its object. It contains adjustment of the relation between words and sentences. Translators may change nouns into verbs or adjectives, and change preposition or adverbs into verbs during translation. Sometimes, conversion from passive to active voice is also necessary. Another case is to change the sentence pattern when necessary, making the change between the imperative, exclamatory, question and so on. For example:

The choice is yours.
The honor is mine.(某大型商场牌角广告)

带走你的选择，留下你的荣耀。

Here the two nouns "choice and honor" are changed into two verbs "带走" and "留下", which makes the translation polite and active enough to match the customers' psychological needs. This translation has given the customers a message of invitation and respect. Comparing with the translation "选择是你的，荣耀是我的",will the customers not feel a little bit uneasy and a sense of distance and indifference between themselves and the storeowner! The latter translation has created a gap, while the former one has been a reflection of freedom and democracy. The customers are invited but never commanded. Since the advertisement is designed to please the customers, translators should think what the customers may think and feel what they may feel, in order to guide the advertisement to success.

V. CONCLUSION

With the development of world integration, the earth is becoming a global village. China's entering WTO has brought the country even more closely to the world market. Advertisement translation is working as a bridge to connect the producer's message and the target language consumers.

Different languages have different culture backgrounds. Without a good command of different cultures, it's impossible to realize a perfect communication between different languages. Cultural differences are caused by different view on value, belief, esthetics, morality concepts and so on. Advertisement translation requires translators to be fully aware of the differences, get rid of culture influence to fit target language, know well the consumers' psychology and consumers' behavior, master target language usages and cultural specifics.

The cultural differences between English and Chinese calls for the application of domestication principle, which is necessary and beneficial. With the adoption of domestication principle, translators could make the translation follow the thinking habit of target language cultures and conform to foreign readers' specific mode of thinking. The effectiveness of domestication principle in English and Chinese translation contributes a lot to successful cross-cultural communication.

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Investigating L2 Refusals: A Case Study of Chinese Native Speakers' L2 Pragmatic Competence

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Abstract—The speech act the researcher studies in this paper is *refusal* which, according to Ellis (**2008**), involves high level of pragmatic competence of the speaker, especially when it is compared with other speech acts like *apology* and *request*. Refusal seems to be particularly high-demanding for L2 learners, for L2 linguistic proficiency might be the hindrance. The researcher studies on one Chinese L2 learner's pragmatic competence by focusing on the pragmatic strategies adopted in his L2 refusals. The result of this study suggests that L2 pragmatic competence is restrained by learners' linguistic proficiency from utilizing more effective pragmatic strategies. Both linguistic and pragmatic transfer limits Chinese L2 learners' pragmatic behaviors. Therefore, pedagogical intervention involving pragmatic knowledge for enhancing Chinese L2 learners' pragmatic competence is advised and it might be even more helpful to the learners if culture is covered in the intervention.

Index Terms—refusal, speech act, directness, indirectness, "face", pragmatic competence

I. INTRODUCTION

L2 learners' refusals, though more limited than the study of the speech acts of apologies and requests(Ellis, 2008), are investigated by many researchers to the date, among which contrastive rhetoric method is used to compare the refusal strategies employed by native speakers and L2 learners. The study of L2 learners' refusals focuses not only on the employment of pragmatic strategies but also on the negative transfer of L1sociocultural knowledge. Relevant pedagogical implications are drawn from those research studies as well.

Politeness strategies are primarily focused on when researchers investigate in speech acts of refusals. Chen et al (1995) elaborates two kinds of Chinese refusals (substantive and ritual refusals), in which Chinese notion of politeness plays a very significant role. According to Hong (2011), directness and indirectness existing as strategies in refusing speech acts indicates the considerable differences between Westerners and Asians in conventional ideas of politeness. However, it is suggested in the research studies that direct strategies are employed greatly in accordance with the social status while the indirect strategies are not (Nelson et al, 2002 & Felix, 2003). Otherwise, the politeness markers of apology are usually utilized before or after the statement of refusals (Liao & Bresnahan, 1996).

In the contrastive study of refusal strategies between L1 and L2 learners, the negative transfer of L1 sociocultural knowledge can be perceived and apparently, just like what Felix (2003) and Hong (2011) both point out, it is due to the lack of sociocultural knowledge of L2.

Pedagogical implications are drawn from researchers' studies in variety of facets. Textbooks and instructions should try to provide L2 learners an appropriate and applicable L2 pragmatic environment in order to raise their awareness of pragmatic factors and social contexts so that they can develop their L2 pragmatic competence as a whole (Hong, 2011). Simultaneously, pragmatic information "has to be attended to and stored in short-term memory" (Felix, 2003, p.247) by practicing conversations and discussing L2 sociocultural values in the classroom.

In this study, the researcher focuses on analyzing what pragmatic strategies are preferably employed by the informant (a female Chinese native speaker) in various L2 refusals towards requests, offers, etc. and what crucial factors have influenced his choice of refusal strategies. The researcher also tries to examine the informant's L2 pragmatic competence in coping with various situations of refusals, and accordingly draws the pedagogical implications.

II. DESCRIPTION OF THE INFORMANT AND THE PROCEDURES

The learner providing data on the performance of the refusal speech act that is discussed in this paper is a Chinese native speaker who was one of the researcher's students two years ago. He, who only had English class in the first year of college, now is a junior ready to graduate from college within one year. Although he had learned English for 7 years and passed CET4 (College English Test Band Four, a countrywide examination in China for testing college students' English proficiency) a year ago, his English proficiency draws back a lot (according to his own explanation) due to the little exposure to English in almost one year, especially in spoken English. Otherwise, he hasn't any cross-cultural experience. Data were collected through a roleplay task including 6 scenarios on refusing speech acts adapted from the

published research studies (Chen et al, 1995 & Nelson et al, 2002), in which various situations (+/- social power, social distance and size of imposition) with different topics (borrowing money, offering a promotion, etc.) are provided. The informant was offered the six situations before the roleplay task and told to ask any questions about the task if he has. However, he was not informed what the author aimed at in the research or anything referred to refusal language and strategies. The speech acts reflected from the roleplay task between the informant and the author were recorded through telephone and then were transcribed and analyzed.

The strategies employed in speech acts of refusals are discussed in this study in accordance with the politeness theory which is elaborated by Brown and Levinson who focus on politeness as a pragmatic phenomenon (Thomas, 1995). Brown and Levinson propose 3 strategies of politeness: positive politeness, negative politeness and off-record (politeness), all of which are derived from one crucial factor---"face", individuals' self-esteem. In positive politeness, the speaker shows in his speech that he wants what the hearer wants, or wants some of what the hearer wants, whereas negative politeness focuses on satisfying the hearer's being respected or recognized. Off-record politeness means to claim the imposition in a very unambiguous way or indirectly to minimize or mitigate the speaker's responsibility for his imposition (Brown and Levinson, 1987). No matter what strategies are utilized in the conversations between the speaker and the hearer, minimizing the threat of the face-threatening act (FTA) to maintain each other's faces seems to be crucial to the social interaction. With respect of culture, "face" is of great importance in communication and interaction for Chinese people who tend to be quite indirect in claiming the impositions and assume politeness a central factor for maintaining people's "faces". As to the speech act of refusing, according to Chen et al (1995), face preserving is much more important in order not to destroy the social relationship between the interlocutors (Chen et al, 1995).

Quite a number of strategies have been referred to in Brown and Levinson's study on politeness, such as Claiming common ground by hedging, avoiding disagreement, etc., conveying that the speaker and the hearer are cooperators by giving reasons, offers, promises, being direct or indirect, utilizing off-record politeness by giving hints, understating and so on. The employment of those strategies is determined by the relationship of the speaker and the hearer and the content of their conversation (Brown and Levinson, 1987). The rating of imposition (R) can be re-ranked in accordance with the speaker and the hearer's social distance (D) and social status (P); social status makes a big difference in strategies-employing; social distance also contributes largely in the speaker or the hearer's choice of strategies (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

III. DATA ANALYSIS

In all the six situations including refusing requests and offers, the informant has employed politeness strategies to make his refusals successful with respect of directness level, semantic formulas and modification types.

Directness and Indirectness

"One distinction between direct and indirect speech acts is that through direct speech acts, the speaker says what he or she means, and through indirect speech acts, the speaker means more or something other than what he or she says" (Hong, 2011, p.133). The informant seemed to know what the functions indirectness has in completing his goals of conversation and thus he was motivated to utilize indirect strategy in all the six situations, which indicates that preserving and defending one's face by not refusing directly is of great importance for maintaining social relations between the speaker and the hearer. The informant indicated his refusals very indirectly by using a lot of modifications and semantic formulas in order to serve the purpose of politeness. Directness was adopted only in the situations (1, 2 and 5) of refusing an offer from a lower social status (cleaning lady), a big offer from a higher social status (his boss) and a small request from a very close social distance (elder sister). But even in situation1, 2 and 5, the informant employed indirectness at the very early moves before he stated his final refusals.

Direct strategy:

The informant employed non-performative statement in his direct refusals. (i.e., line 7 *"Don't pay"*. line 12 "I can't leave my family now". line 31 *"No! I don't want to borrow to you!"*)

Indirect strategies:

1. The informant adopted quite a number of reasons or explanations in his indirect refusals. (i.e., line 7 *"It's very cheap.";* line11 & 12 *"I have a little child.";* line16 *"I already borrow it to Li Mei.";* line19 *"I have to pay for my house charge.";* line23 *"my tape recorder is, is broken too.";* line33 *"I don't like you!";* line36 *"but, but buy a ticket for you is, is hum unfair for other people."*)

2. He also utilized statement of regret several times. (i.e., line 16, line 19, line 20, line 36: *"I'm sorry…. "*)

3. The informant offered a statement of alternative in situation 6. (i.e., line 39 *"Maybe you can ask the, the train station, right, the train station."*)

4. He used the indirect strategy of "attempt to dissuade interlocutor". (*i.e.*, line 8 *"Anyway you ah did your job very well."*)

5. He knew how to set condition for the future acceptance. (i.e., line19-20 *"I have no enough money if I hum…".*)

6. Acceptance that functions as refusal (i.e., line29 *"Well…".*)

All of those semantic formulas that had made his speech acts longer and more complex indicate that his indirectness strategy was employed to try to be more polite and save both the speaker and hearer's "faces".

Modification types:

The informant employed only few external modifications. In situation 2 (i.e., line 11 *"I'm very glad to hear that"*.), he tried to make the hearer feel good and to show his agreement here, though the language he used was not very appropriate.

The use of "*my buddy*" (line 19) and "*my boss*" (line 11), where positive politeness strategy being reflected, indicates that the speaker wanted to compensate the relationship between the speaker and the hearer while he tried to refuse the hearer and thus make the hear feel better.

The data indicates that the informant was, to some extent, able to be aware of utilizing different strategies in accordance with various situations, and he could also use some modifications for his refusals, such as the utilization of "*my buddy*" (line 19) and "*my boss*" (line 11). *"Anyway you did your job very well"* (line 7) in situation 1 was used to downgrade the old lady's fault and try to compensate it by complimenting how well she did in other aspects and then to persuade her not to pay for the broken vase. But he hasn't got enough sensitivity to the varying of P (social status), D (social distance) and R (the rating of imposition). He used the expression of regret "*I'm sorry*" no matter the social distance was far or close, or the size of imposition large or small (e.g., the informant employed the statement of regret "*I'm sorry*" in both situation 4 and 6 where close and distant relationship respectively existed; borrowing notes and money in situation 3 and 4 indicates the variation of imposition, but the informant seemed paying no attention to the size of imposition by employing the same indirect strategy of politeness).

IV. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

The informant knew some strategies in doing speech acts of refusals and he was able to change his refusing in different ways according to the variations of situations. However, the limited L2 proficiency restrains him from utilizing more complex linguistic codes to fulfill his pragmatic strategies in refusing. As we can see in his responding to his interlocutor, there were some grammatical mistakes in his language: e.g. *"although…but…"*(line 5)*; "I'm very like…"*(line 5)*; "borrow it to…"*(line 16)*; "But buy a ticket for you is* (line 36)*...*and all the sentences were simple and short: e.g., *"It's very cheap"; "Don't pay"(line 7); "I have a little child" (line 11)….* Long-time pauses and repetitions appeared frequently in his expressions: e.g., *"Anyway you ah did your job very well"* (line 7)*; "but, but buy a ticket for you is, is hum unfair for other people"*(line 36)*; "Maybe you can… ask the, the train station, right, the train station"* (line 39). Undoubtedly the fact that he couldn't express himself freely in L2 directly and negatively influenced his choice of refusing strategies.

The linguistic transfer from L1 (Chinese) to L2 (English) (e.g., the usage of "*although … but*" possibly was derived from the Chinese words "不但，而且" and the informant used English in Chinese way, ignoring the different ways of using conjunctions in Chinese and English.) takes the most responsibility for the informant to output simple, short and even grammatically wrong sentences. But the pragmatic transfer from L1 to L2 determines more of his L2 pragmatic behaviors. Chinese people preferably employ indirectness in interaction between interlocutors because they inherited the cultural legacy from Confucius in terms of maintaining an appropriate relationship with each other while communicating (Hong, 2011). The informant adopted indirectness more than once in his refusals in order to avoid giving any clear messages which might be a breaker of the harmonious relationship between the interlocutors. To Chinese, refusing people directly may be seen as very impolite behaviors. They would rather express their refusals very vaguely by using variety of reasons or explanations, as what the informant did in his speech acts.

Apparently the informant needs pedagogical intervention for improving his L2 pragmatic competence so as to perform his speech acts more appropriately. He used one strategy (giving reasons or explanations) frequently in all the situations regardless of the variations of P (social status), D (social distance) and R (the rating of imposition), from which we can see his shortage of strategies utilization in performing speech acts of refusals and undoubtedly this could be improved within L2 pragmatic instructions. "Learners progress steadily in developing a full range of strategies for performing illocutionary acts and in learning how to perform them using varied linguistic means" (Ellis, 2008, p.190). However, it is absolutely doubtable that how much L2 pragmatic ability could be obtained in classroom teaching. It is clear, according to the data analysis, that the informant's L2 pragmatic proficiency could be higher if his L2 proficiency were higher, as he could convey his ideas freely within the linguistic instructions. But there are other crucial determinants for enhancing one's L2 pragmatic competence, such as cultural differences and awareness of pragmatics. Could all of these skills be acquired simply in pragmatic instructions? Possibly it is necessary for teachers to focus on pragmatic respect, linguistic ability as well as the cultural facet so as to help the L2 learner to reduce the negative transfer from L1 to L2, and increase his awareness of using pragmatic skills also. But as what Ellis (2005) suggested, "it takes learners a long time to learn the sociocultural rules underlying the performance of specific illocutionary acts" (p.190). Therefore, an authentic pragmatic environment is of great significance in terms of one's L2 pragmatic competence.

Considering the EFL environment in China, Chinese native speakers lack of opportunities to put L2 (English) into practical use, which results in their weakness both in language and pragmatic proficiency. It should be highlighted that achieving higher efficiency of classroom teaching in language proficiency is necessarily urgent in that it will consequently impact the learners' pragmatic competence. Though CET band 4 serves as a language proficiency test, having passed it doesn't mean the command of every facet of English which should be regarded as a language instead of a subject only. Therefore during the obtaining process of L2, the instructors should not only focus on the linguistic

aspect but also the pragmatic scope, and the sociocultural knowledge as well. All college English classrooms should be fully aware that students' overall ability in language needs more than simply giving linguistic instructions, though language proficiency does impact students' pragmatic level significantly. Besides teaching L2 learners pragmatic strategies, offering them a pragmatic environment by practicing and interacting with this language is equally important.

The findings in this paper indicate that there is correlation between L2 linguistic and pragmatic proficiency and the informant's less L2 pragmatic competence, to some extent, was determined by his limited linguistic ability. He did use some strategies in performing his speech acts, yet not enough for indicating his awareness and sensitivity of the variety of situations. And more importantly, L1 transfer had a great impact on the informant's pragmatic strategies utilized in expressing his refusals. These findings are partly in accordance with the previous findings. Indirectness was employed in the informant's speech acts proves what Hong (2011) suggests in her study that the preference of indirectness is realized by offering explanations and apologies. As far as the sociocultural factors are concerned, Felix (2003) and Hong (2011) make a clear stance that the negative transfer lies in being short of sociocultural knowledge. The author also places much emphasis on the L1 transfer factors and appeal to a L2 pragmatic environment for nonnative speakers to acquire enough L2 sociocultural knowledge. However, as for the relationship between L2 proficiency and pragmatic competence, the author finds difference within Ellis (2005)'s findings in which it declares the non-linear relationship between learners pragmatic behavior and their general proficiency. Probably the difference lies in the limitations of this research project that only one informant was engaged and no comparison with other L2 learners of different general proficiency, which could not sufficiently support the researcher's findings. Otherwise, though interactive enough, the instrument of data collection might have been less supportive because making recordings somewhat drove the informant into nervous state while doing role-play task, which consequently and negatively influenced his final pragmatic behaviors.

APPENDIX.   INSTRUCTION FOR PARTICIPANTS AND SIX ROLE-PLAY SITUATIONS

INSTRUCTION SHEET FOR PARTICIPANTS

Pretend you are the person in all the six situations. Read the situations first and then respond as you would in actual conversations. While you are reading, if you have some questions or if you have problems to understand the situations, please ask me without any hesitation. When we do the role play, our conversations will be audio-taped.

Thank you for your cooperation.

SITUATION 1:

You arrive home and notice that your cleaning lady is extremely upset. She comes rushing up to you and tells you that she has broken your china vase. She insists on paying for it. But you don't think it is necessary.

1 Cleaning lady: Oh, God, I'm so sorry! I had an awful accident.

2 Xiao Li: What's wrong?

3 Cleaning lady: While I was cleaning I bumped into the tables and your china vase

4 fell and broke. I just feel terrible about it. I insist on paying for it.

5 Xiao Li: oh, although, although I'm ah very like this Chinese vase, but ah never

mind. It's a fake one.

6 Cleaning lady: But that's your favorite, I'm afraid I have to pay for it.

7 Xiao Li: It's very cheap. Don't pay. Anyway you ah did your job very well.

SITUATION 2:

You have been working in an advertising agency now for some time. The boss offers you a raise and a promotion, but it involves moving. You don't want to go. Today, the boss calls you into his office.

8 The boss: I'd like to offer you an executive position in our new offices in Nanchang. 9 It's a great city---only 3 hours from here by plane. And, a nice raise comes with the 10 position.

11 Xiao Li: oh, I'm very glad to hear that. But you know, my boss, I have a little

12 child. I can't leave my family now.

SITUATION 3:

You are in your third year of college. You attend classes and you take really good notes. Your classmate often misses classes and asks you for the lecture notes. But you don't want to lend it to her.

13 The classmate: oh no! We have an exam tomorrow but I don't have the notes from

14 last week. I am sorry to ask you this, but could you please lend me your notes once 15 again?

16 Xiao Li: ah I already ah borrow it hum to Li Mei. I'm sorry you are late.

SITUATION 4:

Because of some urgent need, you have just withdrawn ￥500 from the bank. Your classmate Li Jun approaches you. Obviously, he wants to borrow money from you.

17 Li Jun: Xiao Li, Could you lend me ￥500 ? I want to buy a gold necklace for my

18 girlfriend, but I don't have enough money.

19 Xiao Li: Hum… I'm sorry my buddy. I have to pay for my house charge (rent). I

20 have no enough money if I hum I'm' sorry.

SITUATION 5:

You are a boy of 14 years old. Your elder sister wants to borrow a tape recorder from you. But you suddenly remember the time when you were refused by her while you were trying to borrow some money from her last week.

21 Xiao Li's sister: Xiao Li, Can I use your tape recorder? Mine doesn't work right

22 now.

23 Xiao Li: ah my tape recorder is, is broken too.

24 Xiao Li's sister: When ?

25 Xiao Li: Well, today, in my class. It is broken by my classmate.

26 Xiao Li's sister: Oh, what a pity? When do you want to fix it?

27 Xiao Li: I want to repair it tomorrow.

28 Xiao Li's sister: So after you have it repaired, could you lend it to me?

29 Xiao Li: Well …

30 Xiao Li's sister: Could you?

31 Xiao Li: No! I don't want to borrow to you!

32 Xiao Li's sister: Why, we are a family.

33 Xiao Li: I don't like you!

SITUATION 6:

You are a third year college student. After a long-time queuing, you finally get your turn to buy a ticket for going home, when an old man comes to you and asks you to buy a ticket for him. But obviously there are still a lot of people waiting in the queue.

34 Old man: Could you please buy me a ticket to Beijing? I am in a hurry, but the

35 queue is too long for me to catch the train which is leaving about 20 minutes later!

36 Xiao Li: I'm sorry, but, but buy a ticket for you is, is hum unfair for other people.

37 Old man: I know, but you see, I am going to be late for my meeting. Could you just 38 do me a favor?

39 Xiao Li: Maybe you can ask the, the train station, right, the train station.

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Raymond Carver, Male and Female Interventions in "Cathedral"

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Abstract—**Generally speaking, the narratives are divided into two categories; those written by men writers and those written by women writers. In other words, some narratives are narrated by a male narrator who employs distancing strategies and some are narrated by a female narrator using engaging strategies, which are respectively employed by men and women writers. This is what Warhol, the feminist narratologist, proposes while she bases her ideas on Genette's narratological theories concerning the narrators and a 'distance' they create between the readers and the story which is told in the narrative. Carver's "Cathedral" is an exception. "Cathedral" significantly represents a narrator whose gender changes throughout the narrative. Though, the whole narrative is recounted by a first person narrator, by a man, his gender changes from a male to a female narrator. Investigating Carver's aim of using this method, this paper probes the male and female interventions in the narrative.**

Index Terms—**Raymond Carver, "Cathedral", Gerard Genette, Robyn R. Warhol, gendered intervention**

I. INTRODUCTION

Unlike Donald Barthelme, Kurt Vonnegut, and John Barth who have felt that simple realism was no longer an up-to-date way in which to write, Raymond Carver (1938-1988) proved that it was. "Cathedral", a short story included in Carver's collection called the same, *Cathedral*, was written in 1983 and is a realistic short story in which the narrator, based on Robyn R. Warhol's feminist narratological theories, is a man in one part and a woman in another part of the narrative and the events are narrated through their eyes. When "Cathedral' is viewed from Warhol's perspective, one could find significant narratological characteristics which are surely worth studying precisely.

Warhol in her book in the field of feminist narratology which is called *Gendered Intervention*, investigates the differences between the narrators male and female authors employed in their realist novels of the Victorian era. She chooses the Victorian age, since it is the pivotal time of the realist movement in Europe in the nineteenth century and Warhol emphasizes that her theories are very much apt to the realist texts. Though, she examines narrative discourse in the Victorian novel, her theories have wider implications and can be applied to all realistic narratives.

Warhol tries to show which narrator, men or women authors' narrators, can depict a more realistic atmosphere from which the reader gets the least distance. That is why Warhol prefers realist texts to other kinds of narratives. What Warhol discusses is very much indebted to Gerard Genette's theories in the field of narratology. Gerard Genette is not a feminist narratologist, but what he proposes is the base for Warhol's theories. Genette, a key narratologist, in his very influential book called *Narrative Discourse*, probing different narratives, differentiates between different narrators making the least or the most distance between the reader and the story. Thus, to investigate the gender of the narrator of "Cathedral", this paper builds its argument, first of all, on the foundation of Genette's ideas which are the base of Warhol's theories, then it probes Warhol's and finally, the narrator of the male author, Carver, in the "Cathedral" will be examined in the light of the theories of both Genette and Warhol.

II. METHODOLOGY

Before discussing about Genette's narrative discourse, it should be mentioned that Genette differentiates between 'narrative' and 'story'. Genette agrees with Culler who defines story as "a series of events" or as "reported in the narrative" (2004, p. 117). In other words, the text in one's hand is the narrative in which the story or stories are narrated by the narrator. For Genette, analysis of narrative discourse is the study of the relationships between narrative and story, between narrative and narrating, and between story and narrating. Besides, Genette differentiates between the 'narratee' and the 'reader'; the narratee is the communicative partner of the narrator, he suggests, who can be different from the flesh-and-blood reader. Very much like Toolan's definition of 'implied author' as "the mental picture of the author that a reader constructs on the basis of the text in its entirety" (2001, p. 65), narratee can be defined as the mental picture of the reader that a narrator constructs.

Todorov divides the problems of narrative in three categories: Tense, aspect, and mood; Genette, very much like Todorov, distinguishes these three categories while he adds "voice" to this division. In other words, Genette adds voice, since he believes that the voice we hear (the narrator's) may not be the same as the eyes we see through (the perspective). Among these divisions, what is the base of Warhol's discussions is "mood". And for Genette, mood is "the type of discourse used by the narrator" (1980, p. 29).

Mood, in Genette's view, is divided into "distance" and "perspective" (1980, p. 162). His definition of 'perspective' is in line with what we normally call 'point of view'. But what is distance? Genette argues that distance normally exists between 'story' and 'narrative' and the least distance, or the greatest imitation of life, is created by maximum information and minimum presence of the narrator; in other words, when a tale seems to tell itself. Thus, this formula is what is proposed by Genette (1980, p. 166): Information + informer = C. As Genette explains, these two modalities have a reverse relationship with each other for creating the least or the most distance. Accordingly, Genette describes 'distance' and 'perspective' as "the view I have of a picture depends for precision on the distance separating me from it, and for breadth on my position with respect to whatever partial obstruction is more or less blocking it" (1980, p. 162).

Booth argues that "in any reading experience there is an implied dialogue among author, narrator, the other characters, and the reader" (2004, p. 143). The reader, as one agent of the narrative, who normally has distance from the story with which, according to Booth, has an implied dialogue, may get the least or the most distance from the story narrated in the narrative, just by another constitutive factors of narrative which is called a narrator. In other words, the narrator is the main agent of creating distance between the narrative and the story or between the reader, as one part of the narrative, and story. So, for a better understanding of 'distance' created by a narrator, as Genette suggests, one should distinguish between four positions a narrator possesses in the act of narration.

Genette says that "any event a narrative recounts, is at a diegetic level immediately higher than the level at which the narrating act producing this narrative is placed" (1980, p. 228). A literary act carried out at first level is extradiegetic; the events told inside the first narrative are diegetic, or intradiegetic, and a narrative in the second degree is metadiegetic. The second-degree narrative is a form that goes back to the origins of epic narrating. Lanser gives priority to extradiegetic narrator and says that "Extradiegesis will hold higher authority than intradiegesis" (2004, p. 13). In another place, she says: extradiegetic narrator "holds the text's highest position of authority by bringing the primary narrative into existence" ("Sexing Narratology", 2004, p. 127). Genette distinguishes two types of narrative: one with the narrator absent from the story, *heterodiegetic,* and the other with the narrator present as a character in the story, *homodiegetic* (1980, p. 245). Therefore, in every narrative based on both the narrator's status in his/her narrative level (extra- or intradiegetic) and also based on his/her relationship to the story (hetero- or homodiegetic), Genette suggests four basic types of narrators (1980, p. 248):

Level: Relationship:	*Extradiegetic*	*Intradiegetic*
Heterodiegetic	Homer	Scheherazade
Homodiegetic	Gil Blas	Ulysses

Warhol constructs her ideas based on Genette's narratological theories. Warhol differentiates between men and women authors' narrative techniques. She explains about engaging and distancing strategies related to women and men writers, respectively. She, very much like Genette, differentiates between the reader and the narratee and on the other hand, between the narrative and the story. She believes that a narratee is a figure of a reader not the reader himself; for defining the narratee, she quotes from Prince and says that the narratee is: "someone whom the narrator addresses" (qtd. in Warhol, 1989, p. 27). Warhol emphasizes the distance the narrator of the female and male authors creates between the narrative and the story; or—as both Genette and Warhol believe that the reader is engaging in the narrative and is one part of the narrative—between the reader and the story.

Engaging strategies or the least distance between the reader and the story is created by the female authors by employing the engaging narrators and on the other hand, the distancing strategies or the most distance between the reader and the story is created by the male authors by employing the distancing narrators, Warhol believes. However, as she suggests, there are some exceptions but the general narrative inclination in both men and women's narratives is towards the narrative frameworks, she proposes. Very much like Genette or precisely speaking, based on Genette's idea about 'mood' and its constitutive factor, 'distance', Warhol believes that 'distance' is created with maximum presence of the narrator in the process of narration and also with minimum information the narrator provides for the reader. Based on the formula suggested by Genette: Information + Informer (Narrator) = C, Warhol proposes five strategies for distinguishing 'engaging narrators' from 'distancing narrators', as she names them.

Warhol believes that the engaging narrators give more information about the characters or generally speaking about the story than the distancing ones and this way, they engages the readers in the story. Besides these narrators intervene less than the distancing narrators in the process of narration and this way, they persuade the readers to believe the realistic fiction as part of a real life happened to the characters who are very much like the flesh-and-blood readers. On the other hand, Warhol believes that "the more specifically a heterodiegetic narrator characterizes the narratee, the less likely will be the resemblance between this addressee and the actual receiver of the text" (1989, p. 29). In other words, the narratee of the engaging narators is more general than the narratee of the distancing narrators. In addition, a narrator who provides so much information about the narratee, places a distance between the actual reader and the inscribed "you" in the text and this narrator is called distancing narrator.

Generally speaking, a distancing narrator, as the name implies, discourages the actual reader from identifying themselves with the narratee, with the characters and in general with the story. The distancing narrator may evoke laughter or annoyance in an actual reader who do not like to identify with the narratee. The task of the engaging narrator,

in contrast, is to evoke sympathy of an actual reader who is unknown to the author. In realist narratives, engaging narrators try to foster sympathy of the readers for real world sufferers who are the characters of the story. In her response paper to Furst, who confuses the difference between the aim of engaging narrator and that of distancing narrator, Warhol stipulates:

Distancing narrators intrude to 'interfere with the integrity of the illusion.' Engaging narrators intervene in their stories for a very different reason: to persuade readers that the stories are both "real" and "true" and that each reader is individually responsible for carrying over into life what he or she has gleaned from the fiction. (1987, p. 352)

The distinction between engaging and distancing stances may seem inconsequential on the textual level but the significance of the difference shows itself in narratives aiming to inspire personal, social, or political changes.

To make the long story short, the followings are the five strategies proposed by Warhol to distinguish distancing narrators from the engaging ones (1989, pp. 33-43):

1. *The names by which the narratee is addressed.* The engaging narrator usually avoids naming the narratee, on the other hand, the narrator uses the names that refer to large classes of potential actual readers.

2. *The frequency of direct address to the narratee.* The narratee is addressed as "you" frequently and sometimes as "we", by the engaging narrator, and seldom, if ever, referred to in the third person.

3. *The degree of irony present in references to the narratee.* Two kinds of ironic conventions characterize the distancing narrator's attitude toward the narratee. The first one is the distancing narrator's pretense that 'you' are present on the scene of the story, especially the distressing one. Genette uses the term 'metalepsis' for this ironic convention. By "metalepsis" he means the practice of crossing diegetic levels to imply that figures inside and outside the fiction exist on the same plane (1980, p. 236). The effect of 'metalepsis', Genette declares, is to affirm the fictionality of the story and its effect is "comical or fantastic" (Genette, 1980, p. 235). The second is to address the readers as flawed readers, so that the readers get distance from the story. In both kinds of ironic intervention, the effect is distancing because the strategy discourages the actual readers to identify themselves with the narratee. In contrast, the engaging narrators try to get the readers sympathize with the narratee and the characters in the story.

4. *The narrator's stance toward the characters.* A distancing narrator reminds the narratee that the characters are fictional and under the writer's control while the engaging narrator insists that the characters are "real."

5. *The narrator's implicit or explicit attitude toward the act of narration.* The distancing narrator, directly or indirectly, reminds the narratee that the fiction is a game and the characters are pawns. It means that the distancing strategy pushes a text into the realm of metafiction which is a kind of playing with the text's fictionality.

III. DISCUSSION

Raymond Carver's "Cathedral" significantly demonstrates Genette and Warhol's theories. "Cathedral", as a realistic narrative, establishes some significant narrative characteristics nicely yielding to Genette's narrative discourse and Warhol's discourse of gendered narratives. Carver's scholars believe that his patient narration does not strive for a reader's suspension of disbelief and this is in sharp contrast with Motte's discussion about engaging strategy; Motte believes that it is the engaging strategy of women writers to "suspend our disbelief" (2007, p. 192). So, what Carver's scholars have found about Carver's narrative method truly yields to the first part of "Cathedral".

"Cathedral" starts with a first person narrator narrating in plain and flat statements unadorned by devices meant to persuade or convince. Suzanne Keen in her article "A Theory of Narrative Empathy," discusses the relation between the narrator and feelings evoked. She states that the "first person fiction more readily evokes feelings responsiveness than the whole variety of third person narrative situations" (2006, p. 215). From the very beginning of "Cathedral", the absence of a persuasive or convincing style of writing is very suggestive of the presence of a male narrator through whose eyes the events are seen. The introduction of the bizarre situation of "Cathedral" tellingly represents a distancing strategy and establishes the so called manly distance between the reader and the story narrated by a male narrator.

The narrator tries to make the humorous atmosphere, which is the effect men writers prefer in their narratives, since the comical and humorous effect is the strategy men writers employ to highlight the fictionality of the narrative. Unlike women writers and their engaging narrators who try to make the readers sympathize, the male narrator of the beginning part of "Cathedral" does not want to engage the narratee in the blind man's story. Not only does the narrator avoid using sympathizing strategies, but he also starts with: "A blind man in my house was not something I looked forward to" (Carver, 1983, p. 2368).

The first person narrator stands in the intradiegetic level of the narrative and homodiegetic relation with the story. The male narrator is one of the characters of the story he is narrating and the narrative is narrated through his limited point of view. The story narrated through his eyes is a story of a blind man, the old friend of his wife, who comes to his house. The narrator's wife had worked for the blind man before her marriage with an officer. After divorcing from the guy, the officer, she married the narrator but she kept in touch with the blind man and constantly sent the tapes recording the story of her life to him. The narrator cannot exactly define the kind of relationship between the blind man and his wife; he cannot demystify a touch which was very influential on his wife and later on the source of inspiration for her to write different poems about that happening and later on this weird relationship with the blind man. When the blind man comes to their home and watches television together with the narrator, he wants to learn what the architecture

of a cathedral, shown on television, suggests. "Cathedral" is about the epiphany and a kind of catharsis occurred to the narrator at the end of the story, which would be very similar to what happened to his wife ten years ago.

The blind man is the fixed character throughout the narrative from whom the distance of the narrator varies; together with other factors, this distance is one of the cornerstones by which the gendered narrative is specified in "Cathedral". The narrator informs the implied reader of his wife's past and talks about her personal relationships. What he narrates surprises the readers, for he is the first person narrator with a very limited perspective. How is it possible that he knows these things?

She [Narrator's wife] didn't have any money. The man she was going to marry at the end of the summer was in officer's training school. He didn't have any money either. But she was in love with the guy, and he was in love with her, etc. ... she'd worked with this blind man all summer. She read stuff to him, case studies, reports, that sort of thing. (Carver, 1983, p. 2368)

The narrator intervenes in the narrative and informs the readers that his wife told him these secrets of her life. The male narrator intervenes in the narrative to remind the readers that this is just a tale and to make distance between the narrative— the readers as one part of the narrative—and the story. The frequent intervention of the narrator and the way he treats the two other characters in the story, the blind man and his wife, increases the distance.

Based on Genette and Warhol's formula, the more the narrator intervenes and the less he gives information, the more distance is created. The intrusive narrator addresses the narratee and says: " They'd become good friends, my wife and the blind man. How do I know these things? She told me. And she told me something else" (Carver, 1983, p. 2368). The intrusive narrator avoids giving much information; he just superficially points to the happenings without mentioning any details, without explaining about them in details. What he does is very much in agreement with what he aims. The comical effect the male narrator tries to create does not need any employment of engaging strategies. That's why he does not seriously engage the readers in the process of narration, and dexterously evades any engaging situation. When he talks about the mysterious event happened between the blind man and his wife, he just points to the event her wife has explained to him in detail. He does not engage himself in the happening and does not give much information about them. In contrast, his wife has even tried to write some poems about the happening. The following is the way the male narrator reacts to his wife's sayings about the mysterious touch of the blind man on her face:

When we first started going out together, she showed me the poem. In the poem, she recalled his fingers and the way they had moved around over her face. In the poem, she talked about what she had felt at the time, about what went through her mind when the blind man touched her nose and lips. I can remember I didn't think much of the poem. Of course, I didn't tell her that (Carver, 1983, p. 2368).

Unlike the intrusive narrator, the wife can never forget the happening and she explains it thoroughly to her husband and also tries to write a poem about it. As the narrator states, "she wrote a poem or two every year, usually after something really important had happened to her" (Carver, 1983, p. 2368). Not only does the narrator try to make distance between the readers and the story, but also he escapes from any engagement in the events of the story in which he is playing as a character; even he escapes from the engagement in the poems his wife reciting to him.

Whatever he does is a kind of reminder to the readers that they are reading a story filtered through his eyes and also his apathetic treatment towards the events and the characters is very reminiscent of the fictionality of the story they are reading. He does not tell the narratee how the blind man's fingers had moved around over her wife's face, though her wife has told him the details. The narrator says: "my wife filled me in with more detail than I cared to know" (Carver, 1983, p. 2370). This way, he avoids engaging the readers by giving them the minimum information. The intrusive narrator tries to detach himself from all parts of the story to the extent that he emphasizes that he does not even understand poetry ; he says that poetry is not "the first thing I reach for when I pick up something to read" (Carver, 1983, p. 2368). So he cannot sympathize with his wife or even understand her and consequently is not able to engage the readers in the narrative and arouse their sympathy.

The intrusive narrator constantly reminds the reader that they are reading a story; this way he highlights the fictionality of the narrative. "Pieces of the story began to fall into place", the intrusive male narrator says (Carver, 1983, p. 2370). In addition to these techniques, he places the narratee in a humiliating situation in which the reader avoids taking part and consequently, as Warhol suggests, the distance gets further. One of these situations happens when the male narrator is talking about Beulah (the late wife of the blind man) and the blind man's wedding:

Beulah had gone to work for the blind man the summer after my wife had stopped working for him. Pretty soon Beulah and the blind man had themselves a church wedding. It was a little wedding—who'd want to go to such a wedding in the first place?—just the two of them, plus the minister and the minister's wife. (Carver, 1983, p. 2370)

The narrator addresses the narratee; he asks the narratee a rhetorical question and as a distancing strategy discourages the narratee and consequently the readers from approaching and getting close to the story and its characters. As the quoted text from the narrative shows, the male narrator frequently intervenes in the narrative and reminds the fictionality of the narrative to the readers. In the first place, as he says, he interferes and dissuades the narratee. Thus, his constant presence in the narrative is a strong factor leading to creating more distance. Also by depicting a humiliating situation, as another distancing strategy, he discourages the narratee and accordingly the readers from engaging in the story; therefore with regard to the aim of the distancing narrators, the male narrator in "Cathedral" has

been successful up to this part of the narrative. But from now on, according to the aim of the author, Carver, the narrator inclines towards employing the engaging strategies.

From now on, little by little, the density of the distancing strategies weakens and the narrator is changing towards the female narrator. However, the narrator of the narrative is a man (the wife's husband), from the very beginning to the very end but the way he recounts the rest of the narrative is very much like a female narrator. In other words, the role of the narrator as a man in the story does not change, what changes is the gender of the narrator. Therefore from now on, feminine pronouns are used for the narrator. It is as if the story is narrated from a woman writer's point of view and we also hear a woman's voice, but we know that "Cathedral" is written by Carver without the interference of any woman writer in it. So, the only remaining possibility is that Carver has employed a female narrator for the rest of the narrative with a specific purpose. The gradual transformation of the male narrator to the female narrator happens when the narrator sees the blind man in his house. This change from male to female narrator is like the change of colors in a spectrum. The more the narrator gets familiar with the blind man the more she employs engaging strategies.

The first person narration which makes the job of the distancing narrator harder in the previous session, here reinforces the engaging narrative techniques and adds to the narrator's power to engage the readers in the narrative. The narrator, here, based on Genette's theory is standing at homodiegetic relationship and intradiegetic level of the story. It means that she is one of the characters of the story she is narrating; and this increases the credibility of the story. Her 'level' and 'relationship' are very much like the beginning of "Cathedral", but what is significant and different here is her very active homodiegetic relation in the story which is in contrast with his very inactive homodiegetic relation with the characters in the first part of the narrative. Another factor functioning as a deterrent in the distancing part and a helper in this part is the first strategy proposed by Warhol, the name by which the narratee is addressed. The male and the female narrators, both, use the names referring to large classes of potential actual readers, but this strategy is an assistant factor lessening the distance and increasing the credibility of the story.

The female narrator seldom, if ever, addresses the narratee; her aim is completely different from the male narrator's. She tries to engage the narratee and accordingly when the narratee is willing to engage in the story, the readers get closer to the naratee and the story. So, as Warhol says, the engaging narrators may intervene for a very different reason; they intervene to persuade readers that the stories are real and this is the responsibility of the readers to transfer into life what they have got from the narrative (1987, p. 352). The transformation of the male narrator to a female narrator is not abrupt; very gradually the male narrator's distancing strategies are replaced with engaging ones. The narrator from this part up to the end of the narrative tries to put herself in the blind man and his wife's shoes so much that at the end of the narrative the completely transformed narrator deeply immerges in the blind man's world and take the readers, too, to the realm of catharsis.

The newly transformed narrator starts getting involved in the story of the blind man and his wife. She tries to employ the most engaging strategies to engage the narratee and consequently the readers in order to change people's view towards the eccentric world of the blind people. Thus, in contrast to the comical effect of the previous part of the narrative narrated by a male narrator, this part of the narrative has a pathetic effect on the readers and paves the way for change in the readers' views. As mentioned before, the distinction between the engaging and distancing stances shows itself in narratives aiming to inspire personal, social, or political changes and as it is seen here; the personal change would happen at the end of the narrative which is the pivotal moment of empathy, epiphany and catharsis. And this is the very purpose of the author by changing the gender of the narrator in "Cathedral".

The female narrator does not constantly intervene and if she addresses the narratee, it is for the sake of more engagement and also for arousing more sympathy in the readers. She also gives as much information as she can for the sake of making more sympathetic atmosphere. The female narrator describes the blind man like this: "he wore brown slacks, brown shoes, a light brown shirt, a tie, a sports coat. Spiffy. He also had this full beard. But he didn't use a cane and he didn't wear dark glasses" (Carver, 1983, p. 2371). The use of these two factors, less intervention and more information lessens the distance between the readers and the story. Instead of making a comical, fantastic, or satiric situation, the female narrator is thinking about the pathetic situation of the blind man's wife to decrease the fictionality of the narrative and engaging the readers more in the story:

A woman who could go on day after day and never receive the smallest compliment from her beloved. A woman whose husband could never read the expression on her face, be it misery or something better. Someone who could wear makeup or not—what difference to him? ... I'm imagining now—her last thought may be this: that he never even knew what she looked like, and she on an express to the grave. (Carver, 1983, p. 2370)

In addition, the narrative gradually gets distance from the pure narrative and gets closer to mimesis. This issue was raised for the first time by Plato who differentiates between 'pure narrative' and 'mimesis'. In the *Republic*, Plato distinguishes between logos (what is said) and lexis (the way of saying it), and then divides lexis into three types: diegesis, or "simple narrating" (when the poet speaks in his own voice, as, for example, in lyric poetry); mimesis, or "imitation" (when the poet speaks through the voice of a character, as happens in drama); and the combination of both (as happens in epic) (qtd. in Waugh, 2006, p. 273). In the discourse of distance, Genette believes that "narratized, or narrated speech is obviously the most distant" form and in contrast to this form there is the mimetic form "where the narrator pretends literally to give the floor to his character" (1980, pp. 171- 172). This is the case in this part of the narrative recounted by the engaging narrator.

The more the female narrator gets acquainted with the blind man, the more she employs the engaging strategies and the less the distance becomes between the readers and the story. After seeing the blind man, the narrator' stance towards him changes from humiliating him, to on and off listening to the blind man's speech, to very short talks to him, to watching television with him, to long conversation with him, to wholeheartedly and strongly sympathizing with him so much that, at the end of the story, he identifies herself with the blind man and reaches to the stance of epiphany and catharsis. In all these stages, using different strategies, the narrator makes the readers accompany her. The followings, very nicely, show the process of the development of the engaging strategy; the way sympathizing increases and gets its highest point at the end:

The narrator teases the blind man:

As I stared at his face, I saw the left pupil turn in toward his nose while the other made an effort to keep in one place. But it was only an effort, for that eye was on the roam without his knowing it or wanting it to be. (Carver, 1983, p. 2371)

The narrator listens to the blind man:

For the most part, I just listened. Now and then I joined in. I didn't want him to think I'd left the room, and I didn't want her to think I was feeling left out. They talked of things that had happened to them—to them!—these past ten years. (Carver, 1983, p. 2372)

Then, she has very short talks with him:

From time to time, he'd turn his blind face toward me, put his hand under his beard, ask me something. How long had I been in my present position? (Three years.) Did I like my work? (I didn't.) was I going to stay with it? (what were the options?) finally, when I thought he was beginning to run down, I got up and turned on the TV. (Ibid)

In all these stages what makes the engaging strategies stronger than the distancing one are the pathetic feeling of the narrator towards the characters, her rarely presence in the process of narration, the use of mimesis and the last but not the least important one is her detailed descriptions and much information she provides. This way she does not remind the readers that they are reading a story and does not highlights the fictionality of the story. In other words, she tries to make the readers feel that this story is real and to make the distance as little as she can.

The engaging strategy develops as such: towards the end of "Cathedral", the narrator and the blind man (just listening) are watching television and are talking with each other when the blind man asks about the paintings in the cathedral the narrator is watching on television: "are those fresco paintings, bub?" (Carver, 1983, p. 2375); the narrator does not know how to answer him, but something occurs to the narrator; she asks the blind man whether he knows what the cathedral is and when she understands that he does not know and has not a good idea about it, she decides to explain. They talk a lot about cathedrals, religion and some related matters. Finally, the blind man suggests the narrator draw one cathedral together. The blind man closes his hand over the narrator's hand drawing a cathedral and asks her to close her eyes. This is at this part of the narrative that an especial understanding happens to the narrator; at this moment, the peak of engagement, the narrator thoroughly identifies herself with the blind man and a kind of catharsis happens to the readers following the narrator's narration. "Cathedral" finishes like this:

It was like nothing else in my life [the narrator's] up to now.

Then he said, "I think that's it. I think you got it," he said. "Take a look. What do you think?"

But I had my eyes closed. I thought I'd keep them that way for a little longer. I thought it was something I ought to do.

"Well?" he said. "Are you looking?"

My eyes were still closed. I was in my house. I knew that. But I didn't feel like I was inside anything.

"It's really something," I said. (Carver, 1983, p. 2378)

'Something' happens, a kind of epiphany happens to the narrator and the readers are extremely engaging. The readers would close their eyes and experience what the narrator is experiencing.

IV. CONCLUSION

"Cathedral" significantly shows two kinds of gendered interventions, Warhol is talking about. It also, very well, yields to Genette's theories of 'mood' and its constitutive part, 'distance'. In the first part of the narrative, the role of distancing strategies is stronger than the engaging ones. From the five strategies proposes by Warhol, almost four (except the first strategy) of them are detected in the first part in which the events are recounted by a male narrator and on the other hand the formula suggested by Genette is completely applicable to the distancing narrator. In the other part of the narrative, nearly all five factors are applicable and Genette's formula is completely adjusted to the narrator's engaging stance.

At the beginning of the narrative, Carver purposefully uses the distancing narrator; as a male author he tries to make a comical effect while in the middle and at the end of the narrative, he prefers to provide some personal changes in the readers' attitudes, so it is not viable without employing the engaging strategies to encourage the readers to get involved in "Cathedral" to the extent that after putting aside the book, they feel changes in their feelings and emotions towards the eccentric world of the blind men; to understand that what you see is what there is and if you are blind, you will be helped feel your way through, but never as a direction to meaning, only to an apprehension of the facts.

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- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
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- 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.

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- 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.

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