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Awareness of Vocabulary Learning Strategies among EFL Students in Khon Kaen University

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Abstract—In recent decades, vocabulary learning strategies have received increasing attention among language educators as they are found to facilitate foreign language learning. Limited vocabulary knowledge can be a crucial problem which leads the learners to encounter difficulties in language learning. In this study, types of vocabulary learning strategies used by Thai EFL students were examined. In order to identify the aforementioned group of students in terms of vocabulary learning strategy use, a semi-structured interview was used as a method of data collection. The participants were 63 undergraduate students studying at Khon Kaen University (2 campuses). Results of the study reveal that the students display awareness of vocabulary learning strategies. Two main types of vocabulary learning strategies were found: 1) strategies for discovering the meaning of unknown words; and 2) strategies for retaining the newly learned words in long-term memory and recalling them at will.

Index Terms—vocabulary learning strategies, language learning problems, second language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, it is undeniable that English has played an increasingly important role as the medium of communication among people from different countries; Thailand is no exception (Somsai & Intaraprasert, 2011). Thus, English skills have become essential for Thai students as it is the global language for the dissemination of academic knowledge and it helps transform the educational experience of countless students (Akkakoson, 2012). Therefore, English is not only a subject studied in the classroom, but also a medium for social and practical use (Foley, 2005).

Thai students generally encounter problems or difficulties learning English, except those who attend international programs where English is used as the medium of instruction. Non-English major students also have less exposure to English than do students majoring in English. Despite a more or less regular use of the English language both inside and outside the classroom settings, they still encounter problems in their learning and they generally see the limitation of vocabulary knowledge as the first problem to overcome. According to Asgari and Mustapha (2011), this may be because vocabulary has been recognized as crucial to language use in which insufficient vocabulary knowledge of the learners led to difficulties in second language learning. Additionally, mastering vocabulary is one of the most challenging tasks that any learner faces while acquiring another language (Nyikos and Fan, 2007). Wilkins (1972) stated that without grammar, very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed. As far as the knowledge of vocabulary is concerned in language teaching and learning, it is a truism that vocabulary learning strategies are necessary. This is according to Soureshjani (2011), words are extremely important in language learning because they are the basic building blocks of language and they are the units of meaning from which the larger structures of language such as sentences, paragraphs, and whole texts are formed. Furthermore, various studies have shown that lexical problems frequently interfere with language learning. That is, language learning can be obstructed when learners lack vocabulary knowledge. Therefore, there is an increased interest in vocabulary as an important element of language learning.

Over the past few decades, it has been noticed that a number of researchers have shifted their interest from language teaching methods to language learning strategy use. This may be because some learners seem to be successful in language learning regardless of teaching methods (Soureshjani, 2011). Oxford (1990) stated that strategies are important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence (p.1). Then, it is undeniable that language learning strategies have played a vital role in second language learning, as they may assist learners in mastering the forms and functions required for reception and production of the second language and thus affect achievement (Soureshjani, 2011). If learners know more about effective learning strategies, they may use those strategies in their learning to enhance their effectiveness in language skills.

Thus, students need to be educated about vocabulary learning strategies. Therefore, vocabulary learning strategies have been brought to the language classroom. According to D'Ázi (2011), vocabulary learning strategies are significant because the acquisition of vocabulary is a never-ending process and can solve insurmountable difficulties for language learners. It can be said that through the use of vocabulary learning strategies, learners may be able to maximize the effectiveness of their English language learning. On this basis, it is crucial to be aware of the basics of vocabulary

learning strategies and how students adopt the strategies effectively. That is to say, it is vital to gain more insights into how Thai learners perceive the use of vocabulary learning strategies to help them learn vocabulary.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Meaning of 'Knowing a Word'*

What does 'knowing a word' mean? Does 'knowing a word' mean being able to recognize its written form and its meaning? This definition is insufficient. This is because it refers to only form and meaning, not all the other aspects of vocabulary knowledge. Vocabulary knowledge involves more than just the link between meaning and form, it is multifaceted (Laufer and Goldstein, 2004). This idea is consistent with that of Oxford and Crookall (1990) who indicate that 'knowing an L2 word' involves not just the ability to recognize the word or to match it with its L1 counterpart. Ling (2005) states that words are interwoven in a complex system in which knowledge of various levels of a lexical item is required in order to achieve adequate understanding in listening and reading or produce ideas successfully in speaking and writing. According to Richards (1976), knowing a lexical item includes knowledge of word frequency, collocation, register, case relations, underlying forms, word association, and semantic structure. Alongside form and meaning, there is a distinction between receptive and productive knowledge that is used by researchers when investigating vocabulary learning (Milton, 2009). Nation (2001) also applies the terms 'receptive' and 'productive' to vocabulary knowledge description covering all the aspects of what is involved in knowing a word. Therefore, we can say that receptive and productive knowledge is another aspect which is useful in understanding the L2 vocabulary learning process.

B. *Vocabulary Learning Strategies (VLSs)*

Regarding a definition of vocabulary learning strategies, different researchers have defined VLSs differently. For example, Rubin (1987, p. 29) defines lexical strategies as "the process by which information is obtained, stored, retrieved, and used." Takač (2008, p. 52) explains that VLSs are "specific strategies utilized in the isolated task of learning vocabulary in the target language." Further, Catalán (2003, p. 56) sees VLSs as "knowledge about the mechanisms (process, strategies) used in order to learn vocabulary as well as steps or actions taken by students (a) to find out the meaning of unknown words, (b) to retain them in long-term memory, (c) to recall them at will, and (d) to use them in oral or written mode." In addition, Asgari and Mustapha (2011, p.85) have defined VLSs as 'steps taken by the language learners to acquire new English words.' Thus, it can be said that VLSs are commonly used not only to discover the meanings of unknown words but also to retain them in long-term memory and to recall them at will. For the present investigation, the term 'vocabulary learning strategies' has been defined as 'an attempt or attempts made by language learners while encountering vocabulary problems to discover the meanings of unknown words, to retain the newly learned words in long-term memory and to recall them at will.'

C. *Taxonomies of Vocabulary Learning Strategies*

VVLs are commonly used by the L2 learners in language class. Currently, a lot of empirical studies based mostly on learners' self-report of their vocabulary learning strategies use are found. Among those studies, there have been attempts to develop taxonomies of vocabulary learning strategies. In classifying learning strategies, scholars have different ways of classifying them (Intaraprasert, 2000). These classification systems give a crucial contribution to lexical knowledge. On the whole, the classifications proposed by Rubin and Thompson (1994), Gu and Johnson (1996), Lawson and Hogben (1996), Schmitt (1977), and Nation (2001) are often cited in the studies on vocabulary learning strategies. The following are some examples of vocabulary learning strategies classifications which have been classified differently according to the principles of terminology and categorization of different researchers. There is a wide-ranging inventory of vocabulary learning strategies developed by Schmitt in 1977. His taxonomy falls into two main groups of strategies: discovery strategies and consolidation strategies. There are two strategy categories emerging in the first group: determination strategies and social strategies. The latter comprises social strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies, and metacognitive strategies. Rubin and Thompson (1994) introduced three main categories of vocabulary learning strategies that have been reported by language learners to be effective. They are Direct Approach, Mnemonics, and Indirect Approach. In addition, there is another accepted classification as suggested by Lawson and Hogben (1996). They classified vocabulary learning strategies based on the information obtained through the think-aloud method and interviews provided by 15 university students learning Italian in Australia. The fifteen strategies were classified under four categories: repetition, word feature analysis, simple elaboration, and complex elaboration. Nation's classification (2001) is another one which is frequently cited in the literature on vocabulary learning strategies. Nation (2001) identified three main categories of strategies—planning, sources, and processes, each covering a subset of strategies. 'Planning' involves choosing what and when to focus attention on the vocabulary items. This category contains strategies for choosing words, choosing the aspects of word knowledge, choosing strategies, and planning repetition. 'Sources' refers to finding information about words from analyzing the words; context, dictionary, etc. 'Process' means establishing lexical knowledge through such powerful processes as noticing, retrieving and generating. One of the most prominent classifications is developed by Gu and Johnson (1996). Gu and Johnson (1996) developed a 91-item VLS questionnaire which can be divided into groups—metacognitive

regulation, cognitive strategies, memory strategies, and activation strategies. The first one makes the meaning of vocabulary items clear through the use of a variety of means. Guessing, use of dictionary, and note-taking are grouped as cognitive strategies. Rehearsal and encoding are instances of memory strategies. Finally, activation strategies include the strategies through which learners actually use new words in different contexts.

The aforesaid vocabulary learning strategy classifications have been classified by different researchers based mostly on the results of their studies. However, exactly the same vocabulary learning strategy classifications cannot be found. This means that there is no exact agreement for vocabulary learning strategy classification. Additionally, some problems, such as a limit of English background knowledge, a fear of criticism and a feeling of shyness for making mistakes, or a lack of chance to be in an English environment, may cause the learners to use different strategies. The researcher believes that an awareness of vocabulary learning strategies can provide a basis for assisting learners in language learning. Accordingly, the present study aims to explore what strategies are employed by the students to deal with their language learning.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participant

A total of 63 undergraduate students studying at Khon Kaen University (2 campuses) were selected through the purposive sampling method on the basis of convenience and availability. At the time of data collection, the participants were enrolled in at least one English course. Within this group, there were 33 science-oriented students and 30 non science-oriented students. Their ages ranged from 18 to 22.

B. Data Collection

To investigate the students' awareness of reading strategy use, one-to-one semi-structured interviews which were carried out in Thai were conducted as the main method of data collection. Prior to the actual stage of data collection, the interview questions were pilot with the Khon Kaen University students in order to check whether or not the questions worked properly, or if there was anything wrong with the wording, question sequences, timing, and so on (Intaraprasert, 2000). After that, the questions were rechecked and refined. The interview was conducted after each English class was finished (henceforth it can be called the 'post-class interview'). There were two main parts in the interview. The first part of the interview (Questions 1 to 4) was concerned with gathering basic information about the interviewees. The second part (Questions 5 to 13) focused on the students' vocabulary learning strategies employed both inside and outside a language classroom. The main purposes of post-class interview were to determine whether students were consciously aware of the specific vocabulary learning strategies they employed while studying, and how they solved problems associated with unfamiliar vocabulary. All interviews were recorded. The following shows the question concept used in the present investigation.

Part I:

Q1: an introduction part of the interviews, including the interviewer's and interviewee's names, the interviewee's field of study, and the purposes of the interview;

Q2: an investigation of the number of English courses each interviewee is studying, or has already studied;

Q3: an investigation of each interviewee's perception of his/her English language ability

Q4: an investigation of each interviewee's opinion about the importance of English in his/her life, and future career;

Part II:

Q5: an investigation of each interviewee's opinion about what he/she finds difficult in learning English and how he/she solves the problems;

Q6: an investigation of each interviewee's opinion on what aspects are necessary for learning English (If the interviewee's answer is that vocabulary is necessary, the interviewer will ask the next question. If the answer is not about vocabulary, the interviewer will stop this interview.)

Q10: an investigation of each interviewee's opinion on what aspects of problems he/she has in learning vocabulary items;

Q11: an investigation of the interviewee's purposes on employing vocabulary learning strategies

Q 12: an investigation of the interviewee's use of vocabulary learning strategies to discover the meanings of new English vocabulary items

Q13: an investigation of each interviewee as to what vocabulary learning strategies he/she employs to recall newly-learned English vocabulary items

C. Data Analysis

After completing the stage of data collection, the interview recordings were transcribed verbatim. Then, the transcribed data were translated from Thai into English for the purpose of data analysis. The translated data were cross-checked for the accuracy by two Thai lecturers and one English native speaking lecturer teaching English at the university. The transcribed data were then analyzed with 'open and axial coding' techniques proposed by Punch (2005) and Strauss and Corbin (1998). The data were carefully read for possible codes and categories relevant to the purpose of the study. The stage of data analysis could be summarized as follows.

1. Looking through the interview data obtained from the 63 students in order to see the overall picture of what they reported doing to deal with their learning in terms of vocabulary.
2. Looking at interview data script in detail, and making a list of statements which can be seen as vocabulary learning strategies. 1,541 statements eventually emerged.
3. Grouping all these 1,541 statements based on the similarities of the context or situation in which the vocabulary learning strategies were reported being employed for English learning. Then, these reported statements were categorized based on the purpose to be achieved. At this stage, the reported statements were initially classified into 64 main groups.
4. Identifying those 64 groups. It was not easy to merge each strategy use into a suitable group and to find the suitable name to cover most because some reported strategies seemed to overlap with others.
5. After some intensive revisions, the researcher had to make a clear distinction between vocabulary learning strategies and other types of strategies. Consequently, 33 groups of the reported statements were deleted because they were not consistent with the definition of vocabulary learning strategies for the present study.
6. Reconsidering and reclassifying the 31 remaining strategy groups under two main purposes to be achieved which are 1) strategies employed to discover the meaning of unknown words; and 2) strategies employed to retain the newly learned words in long-term memory and to recall them at will. At this stage, some individual strategy items were excluded because they were inconsistent with the proposed definition. For some other strategies which shared similar characteristics, they were merged. Eventually, 37 individual strategy items categorized into 6 categories under two main purposes remained.

IV. RESULT

Based on the results of the data analysis, the 37 individual emergent strategies for dealing with language learning in terms of vocabulary were classified by purposes to be achieved: 1) strategies for discovering the meaning of unknown words; and 2) strategies for retaining the newly learned words in long-term memory and recalling them at will. The former make the meaning of unknown vocabulary items clear through the use of strategies. They were further categorized into 3 categories: 1.1) Discovery Strategies (DS); 1.2) Social Strategies (SoS); and 1.3) Support Strategies (SuS). The latter allow the learners to memorize the newly learnt words in the long term, and be able to recall them anytime. They were categorized into 3 categories: 2.1) Memory Strategies (MS); 2.2) Cognitive Strategies; and 2.3) Metacognitive Strategies. Figure 1 below illustrates the complete vocabulary learning strategy classification found from the stage of the data analysis.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies	Strategies for discovering the meaning of unknown words	Discovery Strategies
		Social Strategies
		Support Strategies
	Strategies for retaining the newly learned words in long-term memory and recalling them at will	Memory Strategies
		Cognitive Strategies
		Metacognitive Strategies

Figure1: A Classification of Vocabulary Learning Strategy

Purpose 1: Strategies for discovering the meaning of unknown words

Strategies for discovering the meaning of unknown words are the strategies that the students reported employing to get the meaning of unfamiliar or unknown vocabulary items with or without any helps. This purpose includes a variety of different strategies. And they are divided into three main categories as follows:

Category 1: Discovery Strategies (DS)

The strategies under this category aim to help learners to discover the meaning of words by themselves without any assistance from anyone or anything. There are altogether eight strategies in this category. These strategies include:

DS 1: Guess the meaning from the context

DS 2: Guess the meaning of the new words by analyzing the part of speech of them such as noun, verb, adjective, adverb

DS 3: Guess the meaning from the grammatical structure of sentence

DS 4: Guess the meaning of the new words by analyzing the affixes and roots of them

DS 5: Guess the meaning of the new words from aural features, such as stress, pronunciation

DS 6: Guess the meaning of the new words from real situations

DS 7: Guess the meaning of the new words from gestures

DS 8: Guess the meaning of the new words from some available pictures, graphs, figures, etc.

Category 2: Social Strategies (SoS)

The strategies under this category aim to help learners to discover the meaning of words by interacting with someone, such as peers, classmates, teachers, etc. In using the strategies in this category, the student was likely to consult someone expected to be able to explain the meanings of unfamiliar or unknown vocabulary items. Eventually, he/she could get the meaning of those vocabulary items. The emergent strategies in this category include:

SoS 1: Ask classmates and friends for the meaning of the words

SoS 2: Ask teachers for the meaning of the words

SoS 3: Ask other people, such as members of one's family or native speakers of English for the meaning of the words

Category 3: Support Strategies (SuS)

The strategies under this category aim to aid learners in discovering the meanings of new words by using some support mechanisms such as a dictionary. The students likely to consult some support equipment expected to help them with the meaning of unknown words. The strategies under this category include:

SuS 1: Use an English-English dictionary

SuS 2: Use an English-Thai dictionary

SuS 3: Looking up the meaning of a new vocabulary item from electronic resources e.g. talking dictionary, dictionary program in a computer, and the Internet

SuS 4: Use websites in the internet, such as Google

Purpose 2: Strategies employed to retain the newly learned words in long-term memory and to recall them at will

Category 4: Memory Strategies (MS)

The strategies under this category aim to aid learners in learning the new words through mental process by linking their existing knowledge with the new words. There are altogether nine strategies in this category. These strategies include:

MS 1: Link the word to a Thai word with similar sound

MS 2: Try to use newly learned words in conversation with friends and teachers

MS 3: Try to use newly learned words in imaginary situations in one's mind

MS 4: Use words and concept associations

MS 5: Link the words to visual images

MS 6: Make up one's own sentences using the newly learned words

MS 7: Link the words to other English words with similar sound

MS 8: Link the words to other English words with similar spelling

MS 9: Link the words to one's own experience

Category 5: Cognitive Strategies (CS)

The strategies under this category are the procedures the learners employ while learning intended to help the learners to retain the newly learned words in long-term memory and to recall them at will. The strategies under this category include:

CS 1: Say the word with its meaning repeatedly

CS 2: Write newly learned words items with meanings on papers and stick them on the wall in one's bedroom and repeatedly spell the words

CS 3: Make a vocabulary list with meanings and examples in a notebook

CS 4: Label English words on physical objects

CS 5: Use word cards

Category 6: Metacognitive Strategies (MetS)

The strategies under this category are carefully planned techniques intended to help the learners to retain the newly learned words in long-term memory and to recall them at will. The strategies under this category include:

MetS 1: remember words by doing English exercises after class

MetS 2: remember words by grouping newly learned words according to the similarity of pronunciation and spelling

MetS 3: remember words by grouping newly learned words according to the synonyms and antonyms

MetS 4: remember words by doing dictations.

MetS 5: remember words by playing crossword puzzles and scrabble

MetS 6: remember words by watching an English-speaking film with subtitles

MetS 7: remember words by reading novels, newspapers, short stories, magazines, something from the internet, etc.

MetS 8: remember words by listening to English songs

V. DISCUSSION

The main purpose of the present study was to investigate how Khon Kaen University students deal with language learning in terms of unknown words. The findings from the interview demonstrated that the students are well aware of different vocabulary learning strategies. In summary, this study has arrived at the result that the vocabulary learning strategy classification emerging from the interview is consistent with some classifications classified by other scholars. For example, the classification from this study was similar to that from Schmitt's taxonomy (1997).

Moreover, the findings show various emergent strategies were reported to be employed to cope with language learning problems in terms of unknown words. In this situation, the students relied on different strategies to handle the problems. What follows is a discussion of certain strategies to deal with their vocabulary learning problems.

'Using a dictionary' and 'guessing from the context' were common strategies which were reported to be employed by all 63 research subjects, when they encountered vocabulary difficulties. These strategies are under categorization of Support Strategies and Discovery Strategies respectively. This finding is consistent with that of Asgari and Mustapha (2011) who found that among the Malaysian students, both 'using a monolingual dictionary' and 'guessing from the

context' has been mentioned as common strategies which have been employed in vocabulary learning situations. The popularity of these two strategies may be because the use of a dictionary and guessing from context clues are common practice in language class for second/foreign language learners. Furthermore, a dictionary gives detailed guidance on pronunciation, grammar and usage with explanations written in controlled, simplified vocabulary (Asgari and Mustapha, 2011). Carter (1987) also added that a dictionary provides examples of words used in various contexts as well. This finding is also in agreement with the findings of Wu (2005) which showed the common use of electronic dictionary strategy among Taiwanese students. In addition, in English language classes in Thai situation, most of the time, teachers encourage students to consult their dictionaries for the meanings of unknown words. Therefore, we can say that 'using a dictionary' and 'guessing from the context' are likely to be significant for language learners to employ when they encounter some sort of vocabulary learning problems for better language learning results.

'Watching an English-speaking film' and 'listening to English songs' were other reported strategies by a few students to remember newly learnt words. The use of films and songs in this study is consistent with the results of the study conducted by Asgari and Mustapha (2011) which showed that using the English-language media such as songs, movies, TV programs, etc. were reported to be used frequently by Malaysian students. Asgari and Mustapha (2011) point out that authentic materials are good in terms of learning new words in their context. Moreover, a possible explanation of this finding may relate to the convenient accessibility of the new technology. That is to say, students may be able to maximize their English learning practice opportunities through media.

Regarding 'reading novels, newspapers, short stories, magazines, or something from internet, etc', this finding is in agreement with the findings of a number of studies which have shown that second language learners acquire vocabulary through reading (Haggan, 1990; Asgari and Mustapha, 2011; Pigada and Schmitt, 2006; Yali, 2010). Pigada and Schmitt (2006) found that an extensive reading program can enhance lexical knowledge, words spelling, meaning, and grammatical knowledge. According to Yamamoto (2011), extensive reading can promote the incidental learning of L1 and L2 receptive vocabulary. Additionally, Dóczy (2011, p.142) states that "Reading stands out as one of the most important sources of language input, perhaps because this is the most traditional way of expanding vocabulary". A possible explanation for this finding may relate to the traditional Thai educational system whereby in English language classroom, teachers have usually used English newspapers as a teaching method to improve and assist the learning and acquisition of vocabulary. This finding is also consistent with that of Haggan (1990) who found that the use of newspapers in EFL classes is a successful language method.

With regard to the strategies of learning new words through the mental process, "trying to use newly learned words in conversation with friends and teachers" emerged from this study. The students showed that they applied new English words in their daily speaking. Four of them mentioned that they practiced new words among their friends and tried to ask the teacher questions about the English lesson in the classroom. To explain this emergence, it is necessary to define the term 'knowing a word'. If 'knowing a word' means the ability to recognize it (form) and to use it (meaning) correctly, the productive and receptive vocabulary knowledge may explain this emergence. Then, a possible explanation for this finding might be that the receptive and productive knowledge of vocabulary learning affects the amount of vocabulary gained. It can be said that a number of new words can be learned receptively through listening, and productively through speaking. Shahov (2012) states that receptive knowledge is being able to understand a word in its spoken form and productive knowledge means to be able to use a word correctly in speech. However, word knowledge is not only form and meaning. It is multifaceted because it involves more than just the link between meaning and form (Laufer and Goldstein, 2004). Although speaking practice can help learners expand their vocabulary, it cannot be the totality of vocabulary learning. Therefore, we can say that the relation between the ability in producing speech and lexical knowledge is very complex and still unclear.

'Linking the words to visual images' was another strategy which was reported to be frequently employed by the research subjects. This finding is consistent with that of Siriwan (2007) who found that in the Thai Rajabhat university students context, 'words and pictures associations' was also reportedly used by the students to help them link new words and visual symbols. Oxford and Crookall (1990, p. 16) states that "Visual image is a very useful aid for learning L2 vocabulary. The use of visual imagery for vocabulary learning is based on making associations between a picture and a word. The theory on which this technique is founded is that most learners are capable of associating new information to concepts in memory by means of meaningful visual images, and that visual images make learning more efficient." Therefore, visual imagery is likely to be significant for language learners to employ when they encounter some sort of vocabulary learning problems.

VI. CONCLUSION

The main objective of the study was to examine types of vocabulary learning strategies employed by Thai EFL students. Lexical knowledge is very important for improving students' English proficiency, but learners normally feel a lot of anxiety about their vocabulary learning because of its difficulty. Both language teachers and learners should be aware of how important vocabulary learning strategies are in their language learning. In this study, many strategies have been reportedly employed by the research subjects. That is, the findings of the study have several pedagogical implications in the field of foreign language teaching for the tertiary level of education, particularly for teachers and learners. Raising awareness of vocabulary learning strategies may assist the learners to overcome their vocabulary

learning problems. The ability to use appropriate VLSs in a more efficient way is a useful skill that the students require. In sum, raising awareness of EFL students of the vocabulary learning problems, and of the advantages for employing different VLSs to overcome those problems should be included as a part of the teaching process.

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The Impact of Using Explicit/Implicit Vocabulary Teaching Strategies on Improving Students' Vocabulary and Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—This study aims at investigating the impact of a combination of both the explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching strategies on developing EFL learners' vocabulary size and improving their reading comprehension skills. The sample of the study consisted of 55 second-year students studying in the College of Economy at Al-Imam University. The two sections were randomly selected out of 10 sections studying English as a basic requirement in this college during the first semester of the academic year 2013/2014. The two sections were assigned to both experimental and control groups. A vocabulary and reading comprehension pre-test was given to both groups at the beginning of the study to get sure that were equivalent and homogenous. The experimental group was taught vocabulary and reading texts explicitly and implicitly, while the control group was taught in the traditional vocabulary teaching method. Two English instructors with similar qualifications and experiences taught the two groups for one complete semester. The same vocabulary and reading comprehension pre-test was given as a post-test at the end of the treatment. The gathered data out of the Pre-post Test were statistically analyzed, and the findings were obtained. The findings revealed significant differences between the control and experimental groups in favor of the experimental one. The combination of explicit and implicit vocabulary strategies has proved to be effective in increasing students' vocabulary size, and as a result, in improving their reading comprehension skills. The researcher reached some conclusions, implications and recommendations.

Index Terms—explicit/implicit vocabulary teaching strategy, traditional vocabulary teaching method, reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Improving EFL students' reading comprehension is a goal which every responsible teacher tries hard with his students to achieve. The mastery of reading comprehension skills is the key for students to get well with most content courses. Therefore, writers, educators and researchers have dealt with this matter seriously. In particular, they have investigated the relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension, and they tried hard to find out the best techniques to improve EFL students' reading comprehension.

Writers and researchers have expressed several views and have reached several conclusions on the relationship between vocabulary and language skills in general, and between vocabulary and reading comprehension in particular. For instance, Neumann & Dwyer (2009), states "The importance of vocabulary can be defined as "the words we must know to communicate effectively: words in speaking (expressive vocabulary) and words in listening (receptive vocabulary)" (p.385). Sedita (2005), asserts that "One of the oldest findings in educational research is the strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension. He adds that word knowledge is crucial to reading comprehension and determines how well students will be able to comprehend the texts they read in middle and high school" (p.38). Chall & Jacobs (2003), points out that "the correlation of word knowledge with reading comprehension indicates that if students do not adequately and steadily grow their vocabulary knowledge, their reading comprehension will be affected" (p.47). Cunningham & Stanovich (1998), also says that students who do not understand some words in texts tend to have difficulty comprehending and learning from those texts. Hirsch (2003), goes further by saying that "Vocabulary experts agree that adequate reading comprehension depends on a person already knowing between 90 and 95 percent of the words in a text" (p.16). Camille L.Z. & Fisher, P. (2005), clarify that "one area of particular significance to the curriculum is that of vocabulary and reading comprehension" (p.1). Dressler, C., August, D., Carlo, C., et al (2005), also found that "English language learners who experienced slow vocabulary development were less able to comprehend texts at the grade level than their English-only peers" (p.50). Wolley (2010), asserts that a particular problem for students with poor comprehension is that they have difficulty learning new vocabulary. Smith (1997) says that there is a common sense relationship between vocabulary and reading comprehension since messages which are composed of ideas are expressed in words. Wallace (2008) points out that difficulty in reading at the appropriate grade level is perhaps due to the a lack of sufficient vocabulary. Boulware-Gooden, R., Suzanne Carreker, S., Ann Thornhill, A., et al (2007) clarifies that comprehension is the reason for reading, and vocabulary plays a significance role in comprehension.

Different articles and studies have focused on the effect of teaching vocabulary implicitly or explicitly to improve students reading comprehension, while very few articles and studies have tackled the impact of combining both vocabulary teaching techniques on improving students' reading comprehension skills. Ellis (1994) claims that implicit vocabulary teaching and learning method involves indirect or incidental, whereas the explicit method involves direct or intentional. Greenwood & Flannigan (2007) think that "90% of the words that a student learns over the course of a year are without direct instruction. These words are learned through incidental contact" (p.249). Jenkins (2012) asserts that "By explicit instruction, we mean teaching where the instructor clearly outlines what the learning goals are for students, and offers clear, unambiguous explanations of the skills and information structures they are presenting. He also adds that by implicit instruction, we refer to teaching where the instruction does not outline such goals or makes such explanation overtly, but rather simply" (p.1).

To conclude, we can clearly say that selecting the correct or the most efficient technique or strategy to introduce vocabulary items is an integral factor in improving EFL students' reading comprehension.

Location of the Study

This study was administered in the College of Economy at Al-Imam Mohammad Bin Saud University located in Riyadh, the capital of Saudi Arabia. Al-Darayseh (2013), states "This university is one of the biggest and most prominent universities in Saudi Arabia. The population of this university is more than 25,000 Saudi students who join this university for graduate and postgraduate Studies. There are hundreds of foreign students who join this university to study Islamic religion and Arabic language. Al-Imam University teaches several human, applied, medical, admin, and religious majors. It has got several branches in big Saudi cities as well as intermediate and secondary Islamic institutes in major cities of Saudi Arabia, Ras Al-Khaimah, the USA, Indonesia, Malaysia, Djibouti and Japan" (p.424).

Statement of the Problem

Most English instructors complain that their students suffer a lot from being unable to comprehend reading texts because they lack the required size of vocabulary to understand the target texts. Therefore, Students are not successful in reading comprehension due to their deficiency in vocabulary. Unknown words hinder students from understanding the reading texts and the given questions as well. Therefore, it is very important to attempt and examine various vocabulary teaching techniques and strategies so as to find the most effective ones which may help a lot in developing students' vocabulary, and as a result, to improve their reading comprehension skills. Thus the purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of a combination of explicit and implicit vocabulary strategies on the development of EFL learners' vocabulary and improving their reading comprehension skills.

Questions of the Study

1. Are there any significant differences between the total mean scores of students in the experimental group and those in the control group attributed to the use of explicit/implicit vocabulary teaching strategies?
2. Are there any significant differences between students' reading comprehension mean scores in the experimental group and those in the control group attributed to the use of explicit/implicit vocabulary teaching strategies?
3. Are there any significant differences between students' vocabulary mean scores in the experimental group and those in the control group attributed to the use of explicit/implicit vocabulary teaching strategies?
4. Is there a significant relationship between the experimental group students' mean scores in reading comprehension and vocabulary?

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Several researchers have investigated the effect of using different strategies and techniques to facilitate the vocabulary teaching/learning process, and as a result, to improve students' reading comprehension skills.

Mirzai (2012), compared "the effectiveness of Implicit Vocabulary Learning (IVL) through Extensive Reading with that of Explicit Vocabulary Learning (EVL) through activities requiring Deep-Level Cognitive Processing on the long-term vocabulary recall of 62 Iranian intermediate EFL learners. Quasi-experimental; the IVL and EVL, comprising 30 and 32. Prior to the treatment, both groups underwent a proficiency test namely, preliminary English Test (PET), the IVL participants did regular 20 minutes in-class extensive reading. The EVL participants, on the other hand, were taught new vocabulary using activities which demanded deep-level cognitive processing. A pre-test prior to the treatment and post-test after the treatment were administered, both in the form of a standardized vocabulary test with three subtests meaning, preposition and collocation. Data analyses indicated significant improvement of both groups on the post test. Concerning the subtests, nevertheless while the EVL outperformed the IVL in meaning and preposition, the IVL did marginally better on the subtest of collocation" (p.3).

Gulcan and Cem (2013), "explored the relationship between second-language (L2) explicit/implicit knowledge sources, embedded in the declarative/procedural memory systems, and L2 working memory (WM) capacity. It further examines the relationships between L2 reading comprehension and L2 WM capacity as well as those between L2 reading comprehension and L2 explicit knowledge sources. Participants were late adult learners of English as an L2, with a relatively advanced level of English proficiency. They completed tests measuring their WM capacity, explicit knowledge, implicit knowledge, and L2 reading comprehension. Correlation analysis revealed significant relationship between L2 WM capacity and both explicit and implicit L2 knowledge. Exploratory factor analysis showed that explicit

knowledge, WM capacity, and L2 reading comprehension loaded on a single factor, whereas implicit L2 knowledge formed an independent factor with no relationship to L2 reading” (p.13).

Hyso. and Tabaku (2011), conducted a research “with 80 first-year students studying English as their major in the University of Vlora and University of Tirana, Albania. The aim of this research was to give an overview of the benefits the students have about vocabulary learning, its direct teaching, its importance in university studies and of the vocabulary learning strategies used by them. The conclusions reached were that direct teaching of vocabulary in university context was important and lead to better text comprehension” (p.53).

Yali (2010), conducted a case study “to explore the role of reading in L2 vocabulary acquisition, and the effect of different vocabulary instructional techniques on the vocabulary learning of ESL students of different levels in Chinese universities. The results of the study reached the following finding: 1) Both instructional treatments resulted in significant gains in learners’ receptive vocabulary knowledge, but the combination of the incidental and intentional learning instruction lead to greater vocabulary gains and better retention 2) Students’ vocabulary size played a decisive role in acquiring the productive aspect of the vocabulary knowledge” (p.74).

Mihara (2011), “focused on two pre-reading strategies: vocabulary pre-teaching and comprehension question presentation. He examined the effects of the two reading strategies and discussed the relationship between students’ English proficiency and their reading comprehension. The participants in the present study were asked to perform a pre-reading strategy, read a passage, and then answer comprehension questions. They read four passages altogether. Three weeks after they read the fourth passage, they were asked to answer a questionnaire. This study indicates that vocabulary pre-teaching is less effective for Japanese students, although students with higher English proficiency outperformed lower-level students regardless of which pre-reading strategy they used” (p.51).

Taboada (2011), “explored the extent to which two instructional frameworks (the Contextualized Vocabulary Instruction and the Intensified Vocabulary Instruction) influenced and supported the Fourth-grade English-language learners’ reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. In the (CVI) framework, four reading comprehension strategies were integrated with two autonomy-supportive practices and implicit instruction of academic science vocabulary were used, while in the (IVI) framework, students experienced explicit instruction of academic vocabulary in relation to reading, without explicit strategy instruction or attention to autonomy supports. Results indicated that the IVI framework increased students’ academic vocabulary even 3 weeks after the intervention was over, whereas CVI benefited reading comprehension as well as autonomous learning in the classroom” (p.113).

To sum up, the previous review of related literature has clearly shown that researchers and educators have tried hard to find out the best techniques and strategies to teach vocabulary and reading comprehension. To the best knowledge of the researcher, no studies at the national level and very few ones at the international level have been conducted to investigate the impact of combining explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching strategies so as to improve EFL students’ reading comprehension skills. Some researchers have investigated the effect of using either explicit or implicit vocabulary teaching strategy, and a result, to improve EFL students’ reading comprehension skills, whereas they have rarely investigated the impact of combining both of these strategies. Therefore, this study is expected to be an effort in the right direction to investigate the influence of combining both of these strategies to introduce vocabulary items and to improve EFL students’ reading comprehension.

III. METHODOLOGY

Design of the Study

The experimental design for this study was a quantitative design. Specifically, the design was a quasi-experimental Pretest-posttest experimental design which was used to investigate the effectiveness of using a combination of vocabulary implicit/explicit teaching strategies to develop students’ vocabulary and to improve their reading comprehension.

Sample of the Study

Two parallel groups from the second-year students, majoring in economy at Al-Imam Mohammad Bin Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia participated in this study. There were 55 subjects in the two groups, ranging from 19 to 22 in age. The control group consisted of 28 students, and the experimental one consisted of 27 students.

Instrument of the Study

A vocabulary-reading comprehension Pre-posttest was used before commencing the treatment and at its end (see Appendices A and B).

Validity of the Instruments

To guarantee the validity of the vocabulary-reading comprehension pre-posttest that was prepared by the researcher, it was given to a group of TEFL specialists at Al-Imam University to examine their accuracy and adequacy. They The TEFL group consisted of five university professors who teach reading comprehension to English majors enrolled at the English college at the same university. Their comments and views were received, and the necessary modifications were made accordingly.

Testing Stability:

In order to verify the stability of the test, the researcher used the (Test R Test) which was applied on a sample, that was extracted from the original sample of the study, of 15 students and re-applied a week after on the same sample. The

extracted correlation coefficient between the two applications reached (0.95) which indicates a significant value of the stability of the application.

Equality of Groups

To find out the equality of means and standard deviations of students' performance on the pre-test, the Independent Samples T-Test was applied. Table (1) shows that.

TABLE (1):
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR STUDENTS' PERFORMANCE IN THE PRE-TEST BY THE STUDY SAMPLES.

	Groups	Mean	S.D	T	DF	Sig.
Students' Reading Comprehension	control group	10.69	4.99	0.64	55	0.52
	experimental group	9.93	3.97			
Students' Vocabulary	control group	19.90	6.19	1.63-	55	0.10
	experimental group	22.71	6.85			
Total	control group	10.00	5.46	1.62-	55	0.11
	experimental group	12.79	7.43			

Table (1) shows that there were no significant differences on the pre-test between experimental and control groups in relation to the students' size of vocabulary and reading comprehension, which means that students in both groups were equivalent.

Definition of Terms

Explicit/ Implicit Vocabulary Teaching Strategy

This includes a combination of explicit and implicit teaching strategies to teach the vocabulary items in certain reading texts. This combination includes the teaching of some key words explicitly (directly) by using different techniques such as giving definitions, using synonyms and antonyms, word collocations..etc. before asking students to read the assigned texts silently, and then to teach independent word-learning strategies which mainly depend on the included contextual clues.

Traditional Vocabulary Teaching Method

This method depends on listing and defining most new words, using English /Arabic translation dictionaries , and then asking them to memorize the meanings in English and in Arabic.

Vocabulary

Neumann & Dwyer (2009), defines vocabulary can as "the words we must know to communicate effectively: words in speaking (expressive vocabulary) and words in listening (receptive vocabulary)" (p. 385).

Reading Comprehension

It is the ability to read a certain text, to process it skillfully and to understand its major and minor ideas.

IV. THE FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Question 1: Are there any significant differences between the total mean scores of students in the experimental group and those in the control group attributed to the use of vocabulary explicit/implicit teaching strategies?

To answer this question, descriptive statistical means and standard deviations for students' performance on the post-test were computed, and Independent Samples T-Test was applied. Table (2) shows that.

TABLE (2):
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR STUDENTS' PERFORMANCE ON THE POST-TEST .

Groups	Mean	S.D	T	DF	Sig.
Control Group	20.10	3.23	-6.23	55	0.00
Experimental Group	28.75	6.71			

Table (2) shows that there were significant differences between students' means and standard deviations on the on the vocabulary-comprehension post-test since the T. value reached (-6.23), by Sig. (0.00). Through table (2), the results indicate there were significant differences between the control group and the experimental group in favor of the experimental one.

Question 2: Are there any significant differences between students' reading comprehension mean scores in the experimental group and those in the control group attributed to the use of vocabulary explicit/implicit teaching strategies?

To answer this question, descriptive statistical means and standard deviations for students' performance on the reading comprehension post-test by the control and experimental groups were computed. For this purpose, the Independent Samples T-Test was applied, and the results are shown in Table (3).

TABLE (3):
RESULT OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR STUDENTS' PERFORMANCE ON THE READING COMPREHENSION POST-TEST BY EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS.

Groups	Mean	S.D	T	DF	Sig.
Control Group	10.59	4.63	-3.10	55	0.00
Experimental Group	15.07	6.19			

Table (3) shows that there were significant differences on students' performance on the reading comprehension post-test since the T. value reached (-3.10), by Sig. (0.00). Table (3) indicates significant differences between control group and experimental group in favor of the experimental one.

Question 3: Are there any significant differences between students' vocabulary mean scores in the experimental group and those in the control group attributed to the use of vocabulary explicit/implicit teaching strategies?

To answer this question descriptive statistical means and standard deviations for students' performance on the vocabulary post-test by the control and experimental groups were computed, Independent Samples T-Test was applied, and the results are shown in Table (4).

TABLE (4):
RESULT OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR STUDENTS' PERFORMANCE ON THE VOCABULARY
POST-TEST BY THE CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS.

Groups	Mean	S.D	T	DF	Sig.
Control Group	8.97	3.55	-2.69	55	0.00
Experimental Group	12.71	6.57			

Table (4) shows that there were significant differences in students' performance on the vocabulary post-test since the T. value reached (-2.69), by Sig. (0.00). Table (4) indicates that there were significant differences between the control group and the experimental groups in favor of the experimental one.

Question 4: Is there a significant relationship between the experimental group students' mean scores in reading comprehension and vocabulary?

To answer this question, Pearson Correlation between the experimental group students' mean scores in vocabulary and reading comprehension was computed. The results are shown in Table (5).

TABLE (5):
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN EXPERIMENTAL STUDENTS' MEAN SCORES IN READING AND VOCABULARY

	Pearson correlation	Sig.
Vocabulary	0.84	0.00
Reading		

Table (5) shows that the correlation coefficient between the experimental group students' mean scores in reading and vocabulary reached (0.84) by Sig. (0.00). This indicates that there was a significant relationship between the experimental group students' mean scores in reading comprehension and vocabulary.

V. DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

Concerning the first question of the study about whether there are any significant differences between the means of students in the experimental group and the students' means in the control group attributed to the using a combination of explicit/implicit vocabulary teaching strategies, the findings of the study indicated that there were significant differences between the mean scores of students in the experimental group and those in the control group in favor of the experimental group attributed to the use of explicit/implicit vocabulary teaching strategies. It seems that the combination between the explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching strategies has led to a very good progress in the total EFL students' language performance. Introducing the meanings of the key words prior to starting reading the assigned text helped students a lot in getting good background knowledge about the topic of the reading text and in understanding the main ideas of this text. In addition, giving students the chance to improve their word-meaning attack skill through the reading text added a lot to their vocabulary size and to their skills in comprehending the assigned reading passages. In general, using both explicit and implicit strategies together in teaching vocabulary and reading comprehension has proved to be more effective than using only one or depending on the traditional method which is mainly based on defining new words and showing their meanings prior to reading a new text or having students look words up in a dictionary, finding the nearest equivalents which are often used in order to help them learn these new words and memorize them in word lists.

With respect to the second question of the study about whether there are any significant differences between students' reading comprehension mean scores in the experimental group and those in the control group attributed to the use of vocabulary explicit/implicit instruction, the results of the study showed significant differences between students' reading comprehension mean scores in the experimental group and those in the control group in favor of the experimental one. This means that the effective utilization of explicit/implicit vocabulary instruction has contributed a lot in getting the meanings of the difficult words and expressions included in the reading comprehension text, and as a result, in improving their comprehension skills especially skimming and scanning. This result is in line with the findings of Gulcan (2013).

With regard to the third question of the study about whether there are any significant differences between students' vocabulary mean scores in the experimental group and those in the control group attributed to the use of explicit/implicit vocabulary teaching strategies, the findings of the study also indicated significant differences between

students' vocabulary mean scores in the experimental group and those in the control group in favor of the experimental one. This is really justified, since students passed through two stages to study the vocabulary items. The first stage was directly done by the teacher before reading the assigned text by presenting the meanings of the key words and expressions explicitly prior to tackling the reading text. The second stage occurred when students were asked to tackle more words and expressions implied in the reading text. Dealing with vocabulary explicitly and implicitly has actually improved students' vocabulary retention, and as a result, has greatly improved their grades on the post-test exam. This result is in harmony with the findings of Mirzai (2012) and Yali (2013).

Concerning the fourth question of the study, the results showed that there was a significant relationship between the experimental group students' mean scores in reading comprehension and theirs in vocabulary. This finding could be logical and justified since vocabulary is one of the main cornerstones of reading comprehension skills. EFL students usually face hardships and difficulties in comprehending even simple texts because of their vocabulary deficiency. The use of both explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching strategies has given students enough chance to practice and learn new vocabulary items and has greatly influenced students' vocabulary size, and as a result, has reflected positively upon their skills in reading comprehension.

In general, the findings of this study tie up with the theoretical assumptions and opinions cited in the introduction of this study. These findings really present clear evidence that the combination of both explicit and implicit vocabulary teaching strategies has proved to be a very effective method in developing students' vocabulary items and improving their reading comprehension as well.

VI. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the present study, the researcher reached the following conclusions, implications and recommendations.

- Teachers should try hard to vary their vocabulary teaching techniques and strategies and should avoid traditional ones which mainly depend on memorization.
- Students should be given enough chance to develop their meaning- attack skills by utilizing the implicit vocabulary teaching strategy effectively.
- The utilization of the explicit vocabulary teaching strategy should also be given enough attention so as to provide students with background knowledge about the assigned texts and to facilitate students' reading comprehension.
- Students should be always encouraged to utilize the clues implied in the reading texts so as to develop their general language proficiency and to improve their reading comprehension skills in particular.
- Arabic translation of new vocabulary items should always be avoided. There are various teaching techniques which should effectively be used. Arabic translation only be used as the last solution.
- More studies are recommended to investigate the effectiveness of other innovative vocabulary teaching strategies and techniques.

APPENDIX A. PRE-POST TEST: VOCABULARY AND READING COMPREHENSION

Vocabulary:

Question I: Read the following sentences and choose the correct answers. (10 marks)

1. These trousers are a bit tight around my.....
a. back b. stomach c. wrist d. waist
2. Ahmad forgot to plug the television into the wall.....
a. cable b. duvet c. socket d. vas
3. I spilled the juice when I was It.
a. pouring b. chopping c. peeling d. baking
4. The potatoes are.....I'll put them back in the oven.
a. overcooked b. burnt c. tender d. underdone
5. "I'll tidy the kitchen if you clean the car." "OK. It's a.....
a. bargain b. surgery c. discount d. receipt
6. I am very busy. Could we.....the meeting for a few days?
a. aisle b. terminus c. delay d. way out
7. The weather.....said it was going to rain later today.
a. comedy b. forecast c. horror d. Quiz
8. I got a 20%.....on every computer I sell.
a. commission b. mean c. saving d. refund
9. Do you want to go on the school.....to Medina this year?
a. compartment b. conductor c. trip d. journey
10. He pulled a big fat.....stuffed with bank notes.
a. bracelet b. cheque book c. umbrella d. wallet

Question II. a: Decide if each of the following statements is true or false. (5 marks)

1. Sole is the bottom part of a foot or shoe which touches the ground. T F

2. "Earn" means receiving money as payment for work that you do. T F
3. Documentary is a TV program that gives facts about many subjects. T F
4. "Queue" means a line of people, standing or in cars, waiting for food. T F
5. A person whose job is to make bread and cake for sale is a baker. T F

Question II. b: Match the words in column A. with their meanings in column B. (5 marks)

- | | |
|---------------|--|
| 1. optician | a. willing to give money, help, kindness, etc. |
| 2. dubbed | b. provide with a soundtrack of foreign language |
| 3. terminus | c. extremely unpleasant or unacceptable |
| 4. disgusting | d. the last stop or the station at the end of a bus railway route |
| 5. generous | e. someone who examines people's eyes and sells glasses |

Question III. Choose the correct words. (5 marks)

A bottle	A tub	A bar	A loaf	A can
----------	-------	-------	--------	-------

1. of ice cream.
2. of bread
3. of chocolate.
4. of cola.
5. of lemonade.

Reading Comprehension:

Question IV: Scan the passage below and then put a circle around the correct answer. (10 marks)

Dentists always ask questions when it is impossible for you to answer. My dentist had just pulled out one of my teeth and had told me to rest for a while. I tried to say something, but my mouth was full of cotton-wool. He knew I collected birds' eggs and asked me whether my collection was growing. He then asked me how my brother was and whether I liked my new job in London. In answer to these questions, I either nodded or made strange noises. Meanwhile, my tongue was busy searching out the hole where the tooth had been. I suddenly felt very worried, but could not say anything. When the dentist at last removed the cotton-wool from my mouth, I was able to tell him that he had pulled the wrong one.

1. The underlined word "searching" means.....
a. pulling b. collecting c. looking for d. making
2. The dentist asked the patient about.....
a. his brother b. his job c. his interests d. his university
3. Because.....was in his mouth, the patient couldn't speak.
a. a tooth b. cotton-wool c. his tongue d. an egg
4. The patient was moving his.....to find the hole in his mouth.
a. tongue b. teeth c. mouth d. cotton
5. The mistake the doctor made was.....
a. pulling the correct teeth b. collecting birds' eggs
c. making strange noise d. pulling the wrong tooth

Question V: Read the text again, and then decide if each of the following statements is True or False. (5 marks)

1. Dentists usually ask questions when it is possible for the patient to answer.
2. The patient's mouth was full of food.
3. The dentist asked the patient about his brother.
4. The patient's job was in Riyadh.
5. The dentist had pulled the correct tooth.

Question VI: Read the text below, and then answer the questions that follow. [10 marks]

The parents decided they should have fewer children so they could give each one a good life. They thought it was important for the mother to spend as much time as possible with her children. Before, all the family worked together at home. After 1800 more fathers worked outside the home for money. Mothers stayed home and had greater control of the home and children. Most homes did not produce anything. Home was a safe, warm place for the father after work and for the mother and small children all day. The other relatives were still important, but they were separated more than before.

1. Why did the parents decide to have fewer children?
2. How did the roles of mothers and fathers change after 1800?
3. The underlined pronoun "they" refers to.....
4. How has the relationship with the relatives become?
5. Find a word in the text which means the same as make?

Vocabulary:

Question I: Read the following sentences and choose the correct answers. (10 marks)

- These trousers are a bit tight around my.....
a. back b. stomach **c. wrist** d. waist
- Ahmad forgot to plug the television into the wall.....
a. cable b. duvet **c. socket** d. vas
- I spilled the juice when I was It.
a. **pouring** b. chopping c. peeling d. baking
- The potatoes are..... I'll put them back in the oven.
a. overcooked b. burnt **c. tender** d. underdone
- "I'll tidy the kitchen if you clean the car." "OK. It's a.....
a. **bargain** b. surgery c. discount d. receipt
- I am very busy. Could we.....the meeting for a few days?
a. aisle b. terminus **c. delay** d. way out
- The weather.....said it was going to rain later today.
a. comedy **b. forecast** c. horror d. Quiz
- I got a 20%.....on every computer I sell.
a. **commission** b. mean c. saving d. refund
- Do you want to go on the school.....to Medina this year?
a. compartment b. conductor **c. trip** d. journey
- He pulled a big fat.....stuffed with bank notes.
a. bracelet b. cheque book c. umbrella **d. wallet**

Question II.a: Decide if each of the following statements is true or false. (5 marks)

- Sole is the bottom part of a foot or shoe which touches the ground. **T** **F**
- "Earn" means receiving money as payment for work that you do. **T** **F**
- Documentary is a TV program that gives facts about many subjects. **T** **F**
- "Queue" means a line of people, standing or in cars, waiting for food. **T** **F**
- A person whose job is to make bread and cake for sale is a baker. **T** **F**

Question II. b: Match the words in column A. with their meanings in column B. (5 marks)

- optician a.**5**..... willing to give money, help, kindness, etc.
- terminus b.**3**..... provide with a soundtrack of foreign language
- dubbed c.**4**.....extremely unpleasant or unacceptable
- disgusting d.**2**..... the last stop or the station at the end of a bus railway route
- generous e.**1**.....someone who examines people's eyes and sells glasses

Question III. Choose the correct words. (5 marks)

A bottle	A tub	A bar	A loaf	A can
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- **A tub**of ice cream.
- **A loaf**of bread
- **A bar**of chocolate.
- **A can**of cola.
- **A bottle**of lemonade.

Reading Comprehension:**Question IV: Scan the passage below and then put a circle around the correct answer. (10 marks)**

Dentists always ask questions when it is impossible for you to answer. My dentist had just pulled out one of my teeth and had told me to rest for a while. I tried to say something, but my mouth was full of cotton-wool. He knew I collected birds' eggs and asked me whether my collection was growing. He then asked me how my brother was and whether I liked my new job in London. In answer to these questions, I either nodded or made strange noises. Meanwhile, my tongue was busy searching out the hole where the tooth had been. I suddenly felt very worried, but could not say anything. When the dentist at last removed the cotton-wool from my mouth, I was able to tell him that he had pulled the wrong one.

- The underlined word "searching" means.....
a. pulling b. collecting **c. looking for** d. making
- The dentist asked the patient about.....
a. his brother b. his job c. his interests d. his university
- Because.....was in his mouth, the patient couldn't speak.
a. a tooth **b. cotton-wool** c. his tongue d. an egg
- The patient was moving his.....to find the hole in his mouth.
a. **tongue** b. teeth c. mouth d. cotton
- The mistake the doctor made was.....
a. pulling the correct teeth b. collecting birds' eggs

c. making strange noise

d. pulling the wrong tooth

Question V: Read the text again, and then decide if each of the following statements is True or False. (5 marks)

1. Dentists usually ask questions when it is possible for the patient to answer. F.....
2. The patient's mouth was full of food. F.....
3. The dentist asked the patient about his brother. T.....
4. The patient's job was in Riyadh. F.....
5. The dentist had pulled the correct tooth. F.....

Question VI: Read the text below, and then answer the questions that follow. [10 marks]

The parents decided they should have fewer children so that they could give each one a good life. They thought it was important for the mother to spend as much time as possible with her children. Before, all the family worked together at home. After 1800 more fathers worked outside the home for money. Mothers stayed home and had greater control of the home and children. Most homes did not produce anything. Home was a safe, warm place for the father after work and for the mother and small children all day. The other relatives were still important, but they were separated more than before.

1. Why did the parents decide to have fewer children?
to give each one a good life
2. How did the roles of mothers and fathers change after 1800?

More fathers worked outside the home for money. Mothers stayed home and had greater control of the home and children.

3. The underlined pronoun "they" refers to.....
the parents

4. How has the relationship with the relatives become?

The other relatives were still important, but they were separated more than before.

5. Find a word in the text which means the same as make?
produce

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The Comparative Typology of French and Georgian Journalistic Discourses

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Abstract—Some major changes that occurred in the 20th century were the result of growth of the role and influence of media. Today, print media, TV and the Internet represent integral parts of the modern world and have a significant impact on people's lives. Consequently, studying the peculiarities of informative newspaper texts, due to their topicality and importance, is one of the difficult but interesting aspects. The purpose of this article is to identify the similarities and differences that characterize French and Georgian journalistic discourses. We will also try to show stylistic-grammatical and pragmatic features of Georgian and French political articles.

Index Terms—media, journalistic discourse, standardization, speech cliches, political realia

I. INTRODUCTION

According to K. Djachy, linguistic diversity is the reality faced by mankind since its formation. According to the author, translation plays the most important role in bringing together civilizations (Djachy 2012, p. 1).

In the modern world, information links represent the main sources of the social-cultural progress, where newspaper is one of the best ways to inform and persuade the reader. According to D. Izachenko¹, print media is an inexhaustible source of not only information, but also of linguistic material. It is impossible to deny that mass media and in particular print media strongly influence languages and causes much interest of linguists and traductologists. Print media is a separate genre, the main feature of which is an instant description of reality.

Journalistic discourse, which is a specific type of communication, has always played a great role in the formation of public opinion. Its influence is demonstrated by the fact that it is often called the fourth branch of government (or "fourth estate").

Newspaper represents one of the powerful means of providing information and raising awareness of the reader, which is intended to be both wide and heterogeneous.

Journalistic articles are characterized by diversity. News articles and messages are especially concise, businesslike and dry. In translation of this kind of texts, accuracy is achieved through syntactic and structural transformations of the sentences of the source text and through using lexical and contextual equivalents, because these changes are due to the necessity of maintaining the norms of the source language and the standards of the newspaper style.

Despite the fact that the number of newspaper texts is increased, thematic structure of the texts is not diverse and the form of newspaper reports has not changed, in fact. News reports, advertisements and journalistic texts are characterized by particular stylistic features. Exactly these types of texts form the corpus of modern mass media texts. News reports, in particular political articles, represent the foundation of mass media.

II. METHODOLOGY

The research methodologies used in this study cover the methods of philological research and comparative research. Using this methodology we try to show similarities and differences in French and Georgian journalistic discourses as well as the stylistic-semantic characteristics of French and Georgian journalistic discourses.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Beyond the features characteristic of each genre, which, for example, distinguish analytical articles from political commentaries or from sports news we can identify some features that are generally characteristic of mass media.

One of the features of the newspaper style is the existence of standards and linguistic characteristics. It should be noted that articles are produced in a very short period of time and often there is no opportunity to get a linguistically complete article; besides, materials for a newspaper article are prepared by different journalists, who often work on their material independent of each other. Mass character of communication has a great influence on the newspaper style. Newspaper is a typical example of mass media and propaganda, as the addressees, as well as the authors, are of mass character.

¹ <http://dea.isachenko.free.fr/>

The characteristics that distinguish the language of the mass media from other functional styles, as A. Mikoyan² notes, can be grouped into following style: 1. high standards and quality of the means used; 2. frequent use of indirect speech; 3. frequent use of narrative infinitives; 4. speech clichés, patterns and evaluative epithets; 5. political and cultural realia; 6. stylistic techniques.

1. High standards and quality of the means used: frequent use of set expressions and clichés, different journalistic patterns, standard terms and nominations (characteristic of news reports and expressing the desire of their authors to create the impression of objectivity and impartiality). For example: *une tension nucléaire* - ბირთვული დაპირისპირება - nuclear tension; *des résultats escomptés* - გათვალისწინებული შედეგები - expected results; *les pourparlers sont en cours* - მიმდინარეობს მოლაპარაკებები - negotiations are underway; *l'ouverture des négociations* - opening of the negotiations; *un accord bilatéral* - bilateral agreement; *une conférence de presse* - press conference; *le rétablissement des relations diplomatiques* - restoring diplomatic relations; *le redémarrage des relations* - resetting relations; *une solution politique et pacifique de la crise* - peaceful solution to the crisis; *des conflits gelés* - frozen conflicts; *la cohabitation politique* - political cohabitation; *le respect de la souveraineté et de l'intégrité territoriale* - respect for the sovereignty and territorial integrity; etc.

2. Frequent use of indirect speech is one of the stylistic characteristics of French print media which is worth noting. Journalists frequently refer to quotations from different publications. Quotations are used in parentheses or are enclosed into the discourse context with minor changes. Quotations are introduced with the help of the following declarative verbs³: *affirmer* - to claim; *ajouter* - to add; *conclure* - to conclude; *commenter* - to comment on; *constater* - to notice; *décrire* - to describe; *dévoiler* - to disclose; *démander* - to ask; *déplore* - to regret; *écrire* - to write; *évoquer* - to mention; *estimer* - to reckon; *faire remarquer* - to draw attention to; *s'exclamer* - to exclaim again; *expliquer* - to explain; *exposer* - to show; *s'interroger* - to question; *ironiser* - to be ironic; *noter* - to note; *poursuivre* - to continue; *préciser* - to clarify; *raconter* - to tell; *rappeler* - to remind; *remarquer* - to point out; *répondre* - to respond; *renchérir* - to add; *souffler* - to prompt; *souligner* - to underline; *titrer* - to highlight; etc. While quoting, authors use a parenthetical clause with the help of which a reference is made to the source.

• *"Quinze mois plus tard", commente Ouest-France, "le maire de la capitale et l'ex-candidate sont en compétition pour prendre la direction du Parti socialiste."* - "15 თვის თავზე", - დასძენს, - ჟურნალი Ouest-France-ი, - "ქალაქის მერი და მერობის ყოფილი კანდიდატი ერთმანეთს სოციალისტური პარტიის სადევებისთვის უპირისპირდებიან" - *"Fifteen months later," adds journal Ouest-France, "the mayor of the city and the former candidate compete to take the leadership of the Socialist Party"*

3. Frequent use of narrative infinitives is characteristic to French print media (ET+sujet+verbe déclaratif à l'infinitif). Such citations are typically used as conclusions of paragraphs and add compactness and dynamism to the article.

• *Et le président candidat d'ajouter sans ciller : cela "témoigne d'une reprise économique sensible"* - "ეს ყოველგვარ მნიშვნელოვან ეკონომიკურ ზრდაზე მიუთითებს",- მტკიცედ განაცხად პრეზიდენტმა სარკოზიმ, რომელიც საპრეზიდენტო არჩევნებში მონაწილეობის მიუხედავად კვლავ აპირებს - *"All these point to economic growth" - President Sarkozy, who is still going to take part in presidential elections, said firmly*

4. Speech clichés, patterns and evaluative epithets belong to the category of expressions which are noteworthy among the stylistic characteristics of French print media and which have specific connotations: *heureusement/malheureusement* - საბედნიეროდ/საუბედროოდ - fortunately/unfortunately; *constater avec amertume* - სინანულით აღნიშვნა - note with regret; *d'une excellente qualité* - არაჩვეულებრივი ხარისხის - of excellent quality; *progrès hautement qualifié* - considerable progress; etc.

5. Multitude of various realia taken from the social, political and cultural life of a society: *Le palais de l'Élysée* - ელისეს სასახლე - Élysée Palace; *Le Quai d'Orsay* - ორსეს სასახლე - the French Ministry of Foreign Affairs located on the Quai d'Orsay; *La Guerre froide* - ცივი ომი - cold war; *Les Événements de Mai-68* - 1968 წლის მოვლენები - events of May 1968; *La Cinquième République* - მეხუთე რესპუბლიკა - French Fifth Republic; *un accord en 6 points* - six-point agreement; *la guerre russo-georgienne d'août 2008* - The August war of 2008; etc.

Realia are frequently used in the products of the mass media. The main features of realia are its national and historical overtones. 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 (Djachy, Pareshishvili 2014, 12).

² <http://evartist.narod.ru/text12/12.htm>

³ http://www.rfi.fr/1ffr/articles/102/article_2427.asp

• *მომხდენობის კანდიდატი ამ სფეროში არსებულ პრობლემებზე* - *Le candidat au poste d'Ombudsman évoque les difficultés récurrentes dans ce domaine* - *The candidate for the post of Ombudsman talks about of the recurring difficulties in this domain*

6. Print media, the function of which is to cover the facts, often uses metaphors, hyperboles, litotes, comparisons and antithesis. Stylistic techniques do not represent purely literary phenomenon; they are widely used in print media. As a rule, the main purpose of this stylistic technique is to emphasize information. J. Gautier noted that political discourse is characterized by an abundance of metaphorical expressions (Gautier 1994, p. 140).

It should be noted that metaphor is the most common stylistic means used in print media. Metaphors are more frequently used in newspaper headlines and the titles of newspaper articles than in articles themselves. Metaphors used in the headlines and titles of newspaper articles are most original and effective among all the journalistic metaphors. It is believed that metaphors are most effective when they are persuasive in cognitive terms and, at the same time, cause emotional response. Metaphor has persuasive power, as it combines pragmatic, cognitive and linguistic knowledge, reflecting culture, ideology and history (Charteris-Black 2004).

The following are most frequently used metaphors in the French journalistic discourse: *La scène politique* - პოლიტიკური სცენა - political stage; *jouer la carte de la paix* - მშვიდობაზე ფარის დება - bet on peace; *Le carrefour intellectuel* - ინტელექტუალური გზაჯვარედნი - intellectual crossroads; *le feu vert pour* - მწვანე შუქი - green light; *la température des relations* - ურთიერთობების ტემპერატურა - temperature of relationship; *les variations du climat politique* - პოლიტიკური კლიმატის ცვლელა - changes in the political climate; *les débats orageux* - ცხარე დებატები - heated debates etc. Using these means journalists try to dramatize the situation or vice versa to downplay the significance of a given event. Typically, in doing so, they try to attract the reader's attention. The reader, in turn, has to carefully study the information in order to realistically assess the events and situations.

We should note that Georgian journalists are especially fond of dramatizing any situation. Consequently, stylistic techniques such as a metaphor and metonymy are quite often used in Georgian print media. However, use of literary means is typical of Georgian as well as of French print media. This way, journalists try to influence and attract the attention of the reader.

In Georgian as well as French journalistic discourse we quite often come across the metaphors, such as *მმართველ გუნდი* - l'équipe dirigeante - leadership team; *პრეზიდენტის მარჯვენა ხელი* - le bras droit du président - the president's right arm; *პოლიტიკური გარემო* - le climat politique - political climate; *დემოკრატიის შუქურა* - le phare de la démocratie - beacon of democracy; *გაფართოების ტალღა* - la vague d'élargissement - wave of enlargement; *დემოკრატიის მამები* - les pères de la démocratie - fathers of democracy; *პოლიტიკური ქარიშხალი* - la tempête politique - political storm; etc.

Print media often uses military metaphors. Military metaphors are quite common stylistic means used in headlines and titles of newspaper article, and the purpose of their use is to impress the readers. Military metaphors are frequently used in Georgian print media: *“ეკონომიკური ჯაშუშობა”* - espionnage économique - economic espionage; *“მოწინააღმდეგეების განეიტრალება”* - neutralisation des concurrents - neutralization of competitors; *“პოლიტიკური სტრატეგია”* - la stratégie politique - political strategy; *“ბრძოლის არენა”*, *“ბრძოლის ველი”* - le champ de bataille - battlefield; *“ბაზრის დაპყრობა”* - la conquête des marchés - to conquer new markets; *“საბრძოლო სულისკვეთება”* - l'esprit de combat - fighting spirit; etc.

Metonymy is widely used in French journalistic discourse, one of the notable examples of which is the use of nominations of places and toponyms that stand for government institutions (Lecolle 2001, p. 163). For example:

• *Hollande à l'Élysée, Ayrault à Matignon?* - *საფრანგეთის პრეზიდენტად ოლანდი აირჩიეს, დიკაველს თუ არა ჟან მარკ ეირო პრემიერის პოსტს?* - *Hollande is elected as France's president, is Ayrault going to be the Prime Minister*

Metonymy is a stylistic technique, which is also often used in the Georgian media. For example:

• *ოფიციალური ანკარა გაეროს უშიშროების საბჭოს აკრიტიკებს* - *Les autorités turques critiquent le Conseil de sécurité de l'ONU* - *Official Ankara criticizes UN Security Council*

The analysis showed that print media widely uses phraseological units, such as: *l'épée de Damoclès* - sword of Damocles; *“ავგიას თავლა”* - les écuries d'Augias - Augean stables; *“აქილევის ქუსლი”* - le talon d'Achille - Achilles heel; *“პანდორას ყუთი”* - la boîte de Pandore - Pandora's box; *“ტროას ცხენი”* - le Cheval de Troie - Trojan Horse; *“განხეთქილების ვაშლი”* - la pomme de discorde - apple of discord; *“არიადნეს ძაფი”* - le Fil d'Ariane - breadcrumb trail; *“სიზიფეს შრომა”* - le travail de Sisyphe - Sisyphean labour; etc.

- *რუსეთში კოსოვოს დამოუკიდებლობის აღიარებას პანდორას ყუთის გახსნას ადარებენ* - *La reconnaissance de l'indépendance du Kosovo est comparée en Russie à l'ouverture d'une boîte de Pandore* - *Recognition of Kosovo's independence, in Russia, is compared to the opening of Pandora's Box*

Grammatical ellipses are often used in headlines and the titles of newspaper articles. Omission of the verb “Être”-ყოფნა -“to be” is common in French headlines:

- *Élections en Ukraine: la corruption en toile de fond* - *Elections in Ukraine: corruption in the background*

Elliptical forms are used in Georgian headlines as well, though we believe that this is the result of the influence of English print media and is not acceptable for the norms of Georgian language. For example:

- *უსუფაშვილი ბიბლიოთეკასთან მომხდარი ინციდენტის შესახებ* - *Usupashvili about the incident at the library*

Frequent use of cliché is characteristic to French as well as to Georgian media. Use of newspaper cliché is one of the important components of media texts. Cliché are not only used regularly in print media, but, as T. Dobrosklonskaia notes, often repeated in the form of finished information product (Dobrosklonskaia 1986, p. 106).

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Based on the analysis of political articles the following can be concluded:

1. French as well as Georgian journalistic discourse mainly use the present tense, which is the result of the principle of economy, as well as the main function of newspaper headlines, which lies in the “actualization” of information.

- *Cameron et Merkel imposent l'austérité à Hollande* - *Cameron and Merkel insist on austerity measures*
- *პარლამენტი ელჩობის კანდიდატებს განიხილავს* - *Parliament Discuss Ambassadorial Candidates*

2. Grammatical ellipses are often used in journalistic discourse. Omission of the verb “Être”-ყოფნა /to be/ is common in French headlines.

3. The abbreviations that stand for international organizations are widely used in French and Georgian print media: გაერო - L'ONU - UN; ეუთო - OSCE; ნატო - L'OTAN -NATO; La CPI (Cour pénale internationale) - ICC (the International Criminal Court), Le FMI (Fonds monétaire international) - IMF (International Monetary Fund); BIRD (Banque internationale pour la reconstruction et le développement) - IBRD (the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development).

4. A headline or a title of newspaper articles can be presented in the form of a simple or complex sentence.

- *Paris hausse le ton contre le Hezbollah* - *Paris raises the voice against Hezbollah*
- *საქართველოს პრემიერი 14 თებერვალს თურქეთში ჩავა* - *Georgian Prime Minister arrives in Turkey on February 14*

However, some of the Georgian newspapers prefer long titles and difficult structural. For example:

- *თედო ჯაფარიძე - რუსულ-დასავლურ დღის წესრიგში გამაღიზიანებლის როლი საქართველოს ევროატლანტიკური მიზნებისთვის კონტრპროდუქტიულია* - *Tedo Japaridze - Upsetting the Russian-Western agenda is counterproductive for Georgia in its strive to meet Euro-Atlantic goals*

5. Indirect speech is used in both French and Georgian journalistic discourses.

- *Le président français Hollande déclare qu'il ne vient en Algérie pas pour "faire repence ou excuse"* - *French President Hollande says the purpose of his visit to Algeria is not to "repent or apologize"*

- *პროკურატურა აცხადებს, რომ ნაციონალურ მოძრაობას დაფინანსების თვალთმაქცური სქემა ჰქონდა* - *Prosecutor's office declares that the National Movement had a hypocritical funding scheme*

6. Passive voice is widely used in French as well as Georgian journalistic discourses.

- *ტერაქტის შედეგად ერაყში 100-ზე მეტი ადამიანი დაიღუპა* - *As a result of the terrorist attack more than 100 people were killed in Iraq*

- *Une enquête est lancée, Juncker parlera jeudi* - *The investigation is launched, Juncker announced on Thursday*

7. Frequent use of cliché is characteristic to French as well as Georgian print media. Use of newspaper cliché is one of the important components of media texts. Newspaper style is distinguished by a high degree of standardization and stylistic peculiarities.

Besides the similarities, which is generally characteristic to print media, there are some differences in French and Georgian newspaper discourses, such as:

1. Use of the titles consisting of two phrases is common in French print media, whereas such titles are used less in Georgian journalistic tradition. For example:

- *La Géorgie, après la guerre* - *საქართველო 2008 წლის ომის შემდეგ* - *Georgia after the war of 2008*

2. Use of initials of the names of famous people is frequent in French print media, unlike Georgian print media. For example: MAM - Michèle Alliot-Marie, DSK - Dominique Strauss-Kahn etc. For example:

• *DSK déclare qu'il n'est plus "dans l'action" mais "la réflexion"* - DSK says he is no longer "in action" but "in reflection"

3. Anglicisms are frequently used in French headlines and the titles of newspaper articles. Anglicisms are also used in Georgian print media; however, they are more often used in newspaper articles than in headlines and the titles of newspaper articles. For example:

• *Notre-Dame: le happening des Femen fortement critiqué* - Notre Dame: Femen demonstration strongly criticized

• *Opération anti hold-up dans la ville* - Anti-crime operation in the city

4. French print media is characterized by the use of the prepositional infinitives.

• *Biden: les Etats-Unis prêts à engager un dialogue direct avec l'Iran* - Biden: U.S. ready to engage in a direct dialogue with Iran

5. Omission of article is characteristic to French print media, which is done for the purpose of conciseness. For example:

• *Affaire Sonatrach, Chakib Khelil ciblé par la justice* - Scandal involving Sonatrach, arrest warrant against Chakib Khelil

6. Use of quotations is frequent in French print media. Full name of the author of the words enclosed in parentheses typically comes before a quotation and is followed by a colon.

Joly: "Hollande veut combattre la finance avec un sabre de bois" - Joly: "Holland wants to fight crisis with a wooden sword"

7. In headlines or titles of French newspaper articles the names of officials come first and their positions next, whereas in Georgian headlines and titles of newspaper articles, the positions of officials come first and their full names are written next. For example:

• *France: Jean-Marc Ayrault, un Premier ministre à la fibre africaine*

• *საქართველოს პრემიერ - მინისტრი ბიძინა ივანიშვილი სამუშაო ვიზიტით ბრიუსელს ეწვია* - *Le premier ministre géorgien Bidzina Ivanishvili en visite officielle à Bruxelles* - Georgian Prime Minister Bidzina Ivanishvili pays a working visit to Brussels

Understanding and translating newspaper headlines and the titles of newspaper articles is a serious challenge and requires a range of skills from a translator. From Deontological viewpoint, the role of the translator is crucial. The translator should be aware of what he/she is translating. (Djachy 2012, p. 5).

Print media depicts current developments in real time. Naturally, sharp decline in speech culture is reflected by media as well. In order to timely inform readers about ongoing developments, reporters have to prepare articles in the shortest period of time, therefore, they do not have the time to pay attention to the language they use in the articles, which clearly manifests itself in the daily newspapers, mainly in the news media. Print media is experiencing constant change and is quite diverse in terms of style. Therefore, the newspaper language has always been an object of criticism.

While translating newspaper headlines and the titles of newspaper articles special attention should be paid to the stylistic, semantic and pragmatic peculiarities of the discourse of this type. It should be noted that the quality of the translation depends on the experience accumulated in a particular field (Djachy 2011, p. 192). Majority of newspaper articles are of informational nature. Successful translation of this type of texts requires good knowledge of the characteristics and peculiarities of the newspaper style from the translator. According to K. Djachy, the main purpose of translation is to ensure communication between people speaking different languages. The greater the cultural differences, the more difficult are the problems translators face, since translation, which serves as a mediator between languages and cultures, requires from the translator not only an in-depth knowledge of the two languages but also of the implicit cultures (Djachy 2012, p. 391).

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Linguistic and Cultural Constraints in Vietnamese General Practitioners' Act of Initiating Clinical Information-seeking Process in First Encounters with Outpatients

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Abstract—Doctor-patient communication is crucial in medical care as it is the significant instrument by which information influential to doctor's decisions of patients' health condition, their treatment plan or further examinations is provided and exchanged. While extensive studies on doctor-patient interaction in Western cultures have been made from both medical and linguistic perspective and communication is culturally conditioned across languages and cultures, little research has examined doctor-patient communication in Southeast Asian contexts. This article reports the result of a study on Vietnamese general practitioners' act of initiating information-seeking process in initial encounters with outpatients. Attempts have been made to understand Vietnamese general practitioners' choice of utterances in this process from an interdisciplinary perspective. The findings suggest a need to integrate both linguistic and cultural knowledge into the communication skills training for medical students and further research on health communication from a multi-disciplinary perspective.

Index Terms—doctor-patient communication, speech act, culture, language

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Doctor-patient Communication

It is widely believed that effective doctor-patient communication is “the main ingredient in medical care” (Ong, De Haes, Hoos, Lammes, 1995, p. 903), the central clinical function by which doctors and patients exchange information (Skopek, 1979; Street, 1991; Roter & Hall, 1992) for the optimal goal of improving patients' health and medical care. Effective doctor-patient communication is a source of support, motivation, re-assurance and incentive, which then reinforces patients' self-confidence and positive view of their medical situation, and hence influences patients' health outcomes (Kaplan, Greenfield & Ware, 1989).

From a pragmatic perspective, doctor-patient communication is categorized as institutional talk where nature of communication is strongly influenced by the characteristics of clinical contexts. Being “the heart and art of medicine” (Ha, Anat & Longnecker, 2010, p. 38), it is one of the most complex communications as it involves interaction between individuals of non-equal positions about issues of great significance (Chaitchik, Kreiler, Shaked, Schwartz, & Rosin, 1992; Watson, & Gallois, 2002; Ha, Anat & Longnecker, 2010).

Three different purposes of doctor-patient communication are identified: creating a good inter-personal relationship, facilitating exchange of information and involving patients in treatment decision making process (Ha, Anat & Longnecker, 2010) among which creating a good inter-personal relationship is viewed as a prerequisite for optimal health care (Ong et al., 1995, p.904). Doctor-patient communication helps build mutual trust between doctors and patients (Irwin, McClelland, Love, 1989) and enables patients to express all their reasons for coming, impart information about their symptoms, feelings, thought, needs, perceptions and expectations (Weston, Brown, & Stewart, 1989).

Exchange information involves information seeking and information giving. Doctors need information from the patient to facilitate accurate diagnosis and establish the right treatment plan while patients have two basic needs when coming to see the doctor: the need to know and understand what the matter is (i.e., cure) and the need to feel known (listened to) and understood (i.e., care) (Ong et al., 1995). However, research has shown that physicians and doctors seem to underestimate the patient's desire for information and explanations (e.g., Chait et al., 1992), overestimate their communication skills (Tongue, Epps & Forese, 2005) and that patients are not satisfied with doctor communication while doctors consider communication satisfactory or excellent (Stewart, 1995). More linguistics research has begun to give voice to patients from a linguistic perspective (e.g., Watson & Gallois, 2002; Connor et al., 2012). Studies have also shown that most complaints by patients about doctors are about the issues of communication, not the issues of doctors' medical competence or clinical competency (e.g., Tongue, Epps & Forese, 2005; Clack, Allen, Cooper & Head, 2004; Claramita, Utarini, Soebono, Van Dalen & Vleuten, 2013).

B. Doctors' Act of Initiating Information Seeking Process from a Pragmatic Perspective

Pre-suppositions

In pragmatics, presuppositions refer the pre-assumptions that the speaker holds before making an utterance. For instance, the utterance "What are you going to give Mary and John for their wedding?" contains several pre-suppositions. Before making that utterance, the speaker has at least the following major presuppositions:

- a) A person called Mary and a person called John exist.
- b) These two people are going to get married.
- c) People often give newly wed couples presents.
- d) The listener of this utterance is going to give these 2 people a present for their wedding.

Yule (1996) lists 6 main types of pre-suppositions:

- Existential presupposition: pre-assumptions of the existence as can be seen in a) of the example above;
- Factive presupposition: pre-assumption of something as facts. For example, the utterance "I'm glad Kate passed the test" shows the speaker's takes the proposition of Kate having passed the test as a fact);
- Lexical presupposition: pre-assumptions associated with the use of certain vocabulary. For instance, the use of "stopped" in "Peter stopped smoking" shows that the speaker assumes that the person called Peter used to smoke or the presupposition b) in the example above comes from the use of the word "wedding);
- Non-factive presupposition: pre-suppositions that something is not true, not a fact. The utterance "They wish they were rich" shows the speaker's prior-to-utterance assumption that the people mentioned are not rich);
- Counter-factual presupposition: presuppositions that something is not only not true but contra to the truth. The utterance "She pretended to be sick" indicates the speaker's assumption that the person mentioned was not just not sick but actually very healthy;
- Structural presuppositions: prior-to-utterance assumptions inferred from the use of certain structures. For instance, the use of "what" in "What are you going to give Mary and John for their wedding?" shows the already assumption that the listener will give Mary and John something.

The use of pre-suppositions is helpful in understanding what people uphold to before they make an utterance and the inference of the speakers' prior-to-utterance assumptions facilitates the listener's understanding of the perspective of the speaker takes (i.e., where the utterance comes from).

Doctors' major speech acts

Austin (1962) introduced Speech act theory in which speech acts are defined as acts that are performed by means of making utterances. For instance, a person does the act of apologizing by saying "I apologize". The utterance "I apologize" then performs the function of expressing the speaker's apology, and hence is considered as a speech act. In a similar vein, "I promise" helps language users to perform the act of promising and utterances such as "Could you help me with this?" perform the act of requesting. Speech acts therefore are different from physical acts such as "swimming" or "dancing", which require physical movements of the agent.

Austin maintained that speech acts conveys 3 main forces or level of meanings: propositional/locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary force. Locutionary force refers to the literal meaning of the utterance. Illocutionary force refers to the speaker's intended meaning by means of the utterance. Perlocutionary force is the intended impact of the utterance on the hearer of the utterance. An utterance such as "Can you close the window, Jim?" literally asks whether the listener named Jim has the ability to close the window. This is the locutionary, propositional meaning of the utterance. At illocutionary meaning, the utterance performs the act of requesting because by saying "Can you close the window, Jim?" the speaker requests the person called Jim to close the window. The perlocutionary force of the utterance is Jim's response to the utterance by standing up and closing the window.

Speech acts are often classified on the basis of their illocutionary force, which is also the focus of pragmatics, the study of meaning in context and language in use. Austin's (1962) speech act classification, extended by Searle's (1969) and modified by Cohen (1996) contains 5 categories, namely representatives, directives, expressives, commissives and declaratives.

- *Representatives* or assertives contain speech acts that express the belief about the world of the speaker as utterance maker. This category includes acts such as reporting or describing. When the TV presenter broadcasting live the wedding of prince Charles and Kate Middleton says "The couple are now entering the stage", s/he believes that this is what is happening.

- *Directives* include acts which express the speaker's desire on the listener. Typical acts of this category are requesting, ordering, commanding, and questioning.

- *Expressives* convey the speaker's feelings, emotion or attitudes. Complimenting, congratulating, apologizing are common acts of this category.

- *Commissives* refer to speech acts that reflect the speaker's intention, often towards the hearer. For instance, promising, compensating, threatening are classified as acts of commissives.

- *Declaratives* are speech acts aimed to change the state of the world. "I announce you husband and wife" by the judge changes the status and relationship between 2 people hearing this while "I find you guilty" by a judge could put a person in prison.

Research in pragmatics has provided evidence that speech acts are culturally-conditioned. Just like for greeting, the English people literally ask about health: “How are you?” while the Vietnamese tend to have inquiries about food: “Have you eaten yet?” or the listener’s direction of movement: “Where are you going?” (Pham, 2007).

Ong et al. (1995) review 2 main categories of utterances commonly used in doctor-patient communication, namely instrumental utterances and affective utterances (p.906). Instrumental utterances include seeking information, giving information, asking questions, giving directions, counseling (Roter, 1991), identifying and explaining treatment plan, addressing side effects of treatment (medicine or tests), discussing test results (Blanchard et al., 1983) while affective utterances mainly include showing approval, showing empathy, encouraging, introducing self to the patient, complimenting patients and so on. In other words, viewing from Speech acts theory, directives and expressives are most commonly used speech acts by doctors in communication with patients.

Viewing from Brown and Levinson’s (1987) Western model of politeness where the degree of politeness is considered to correlate with the speaker’s effort to reduce imposition in communication, there has been an emphasis that since at medical schools, doctor students are trained to use open-ended questions at the beginning of interviews with patients to elicit information from the patient and in medical encounters doctors need to undertake politeness strategies reduce the level of imposition and criticism (Robins & Wolf, 1988). Since very early it has been observed in Western medical practice that doctors use negative politeness strategies (i.e., the choice of speech acts to reduce the level of imposition) by means of indirectness and various tentative formulations to soften requests and questioning (Aronsson & Satterlund-Larsson, 1987). For instance, “You could perhaps undress a little and get on the couch and then we’ll examine your thighs while I try to get hold of a report” (Aronsson & Satterlund-Larsson, 1987, p. 8) is more likely to be used than an utterance with a high degree of directness such as “Undress and get on the couch...”.

Recently, Claramita, Van Dalen, Vleuten’s (2011) research on doctor-patient communication in Indonesia adds more to the growing body of literature, which suggests that doctor-patient communication in Southeast Asia is unidirectional regardless of patients’ educational background, with doctors being perceived to be at a higher hierarchical level, being clearly in charge while patients are to respond and agree. In Southeast Asian settings, doctor-patient communication is affected most strongly by social distance and closeness of relationship (Claramita, Utarini, Soebono, Van Dalen, Vleuten, 2013).

Health communication as institutional talk

The interpretation of utterance meaning and of the degree of politeness is also strongly influenced by the context in which utterances are made. An utterance such as “Where is the burger sitting?” makes perfect sense in a fast food restaurant (i.e., to ask about the location of the customer who has ordered the burger) but it may not make sense outside this context. The recognition that in certain occupational contexts such as courtroom, police station, classroom and hospital the interpretation of meaning of an utterance depends greatly on how much contextual knowledge we have is represented in the concept of institutional talk in pragmatics. Often out of awareness, individuals engaged in communication are constrained by norms of institutional settings. That is in everyday communication the talk and interactions are constrained by the norms practised in or by institutional norms.

Literature (e.g., Yang, 2009) has identified 5 main strategies associated with institutional talk. These are person reference, turn-taking, lexical choice, grammatical forms, and institutionally specific inferences associated with institutional talk. In terms of person reference, a policeman may refer to himself as “we” instead of “I” to exhibit orientation towards his institutional identity. Turn-taking in institutional talk is primarily decided by the intermediate communicative role assigned with each participant. Participants decide their contribution to a conversation according to their perceptions of the institutional norms. Similarly, speakers’ choice of grammatical structures, vocabulary and inferences is also influenced by their awareness of the intermediate institutional norms. In this sense, doctor-patient communication is viewed as institutional talk. As such, doctors’ speech acts which are aimed to seek clinical information about the patient’s health or to provide consultation for patients about their health are also influenced by the culture of the clinical context.

Doctors’ act of initiating information seeking process

Doctors’ act of initiating information seeking process is the speech act made by the doctor very early in his/her communication with the patient to initiate the clinical information exchange process, to ask for the reason why the patient is coming. This act often takes place right after the greeting act is made (for returning patients) or right after the introduction stage is completed (often in first encounters between patients and the doctor) and just before patients start to explain why they come in. In light of Speech Act theory, doctors’ act of initiating information seeking process with patients in first encounters is characterized as a speech act of directives where the doctor initiate the process of information exchange for the sake of patients’ health. This is also referred to as the act of opening medical questions, the initial solicitation of the health problem (Stivers, 2001).

As part of the doctor-patient information exchange process, the doctor’s act of initiating this process is important as it does not only provide patients opportunity to inform the doctor of their health condition but also in very first encounters with outpatients, this act by the general practitioner is crucial in establishing a positive initial impression on the patient, form an opinion on the general practitioner by the patient and a neutral but friendly environment where the patient feels free to describe their medical situation. Health communication skills training for medical students in the Western cultures has emphasized the significance of using questions free of pre-judgments including moral judgment in doctor-

patient communication. Open-ended questions like “How can I help you?” or “What brought you here?” reduce the level of imposition and encourage the patient to talk more. Using neutral, unbiased, imposition-free open-ended questions becomes a norm as they allow patients to explain, describe their health status and how they feel in their own words and help doctors obtain more information than closed questions (Murthy, 2014).

While there is much research on doctor- especially general practitioner-patient communication across Western medical settings, research on general practitioner-patient communication in Asian, particularly South East Asian medical setting is under-represented. This study aims at investigating the Vietnamese general practitioners’ act of initiating clinical information seeking process in first encounters with outpatients as an attempt to provide more understanding of medical communication practice in Asia.

II. RESEARCH

A. Research Questions

This study is to answer 2 questions:

Question 1: How do Vietnamese general practitioners initiate information seeking process in first encounters with outpatients?

Question 2: How can Vietnamese general practitioners’ act of initiating information seeking process in first encounters with patients be understood from a linguistic and cultural perspective?

B. Research Methods and Participants

The context in which data were collected is a general hospital in the central area of Vietnam. Initial encounters between 6 general practitioners and 118 outpatients were taped recorded. Seventy-eight patients are male and 40 are female. The patients come from different educational and socio-economic backgrounds. Among 6 general practitioners, 2 are female and 4 are male. Their age range is from 32 to 49. The participants were informed that the purpose of the study and of the recording was to look at the use of language in medical setting and interaction between general practitioners and patients. One hundred and eighteen initial encounters between patients and general practitioners were recorded.

Recordings are from 5 to 17 minutes in length. The average length is 9 minutes per recording. During the data collection process, recorded data are transcribed from the beginning of the conversation to the patient’s first response to the general practitioners’ act of initiating information seeking process. The rest of each conversation is not transcribed but referred to whenever necessary for a better understanding of the general practitioner-patient communication. Follow-up interviews with general practitioners were also implemented to seek further understanding of the general practitioners’ acts of initiating the information seeking process with patients in special cases where the transcription of from recorded encounters alone cannot allow a thorough understanding of the act. Totally, all 6 general practitioners were interviewed for further explanation of their act of initiating the process of seeking information about patients’ health in 34 out of 118 encounters.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The data show that the most common stage for general practitioners’ act of initiating clinical information seeking process between general practitioners and patients in their first encounters right after the step of greeting and /or clarifying personal information. The most frequently recorded pattern is greeting / clarifying personal information (name, age and address) – initiating clinical information exchange process.

Typical greeting is undertaken by either the general practitioner’s inviting the patient to sit down and/or to double-checking the patient’s name using a rhetorical question:

GP:	Mời invite <i>Please take a seat.</i>	bác you (addr. term)	ngồi. seat
or			
GP:	Anh /chị you (addr. term) <i>So you are Hoa?</i>	là be	Hoa? prop. noun

The general practitioners investigated did not introduce themselves to the patient, except in two encounters. This could be explained by the fact that in South East Asian medical contexts, doctors often face with heavy workload and patients just turn up without prior notice or appointments.

From literal / locutional level, the act of initiating the process of seeing medical information is performed following 5 most frequent patterns.

Pattern 1: The general practitioner directly asks about the patient’s pain / illness.

Example:

GP:	Đau	sao	đây	anh/chị?
	Pain/ sickness	how	here	you (addr. term)
	<i>How is the pain? / What is the illness?</i>			

Pattern 2: The general practitioner asks about the patient's issue.

Example:

GP:	Có	chuyện	gì	bác?
	there	matter	what	you (addr.term)
	<i>What is the matter / problem?</i>			

Pattern 3: The general practitioner asks what brought the patient in or why the patient came in.

Example:

GP:	Sao	anh/chị	đến	?
	why	you (addr.term)	come	?
	<i>Why did you come (for examination)?</i>			

Pattern 4: The general practitioner asks how he/she can help.

Example:

GP:	Tôi	có thể	giúp	thế nào?
	I	can	help	how
	<i>How can I help (you)?</i>			

Among these 4 patterns, pattern 1 is most frequently used with 68 times out of 118 general practitioner-patient encounters, followed by pattern 2 (29 times) and then pattern 3 (16 times) and 4 (5 times).

At a glance, all utterances made by the investigated general practitioners to initiate the process of seeking medical information of the patients are open-ended questions. However, standard, neutral open-ended questions which are norm in the Western medical practice such as "How can I help you?" or "What bring you in/here?" are used at the lowest level of frequency, 17.8 %, with 21 times in 118 encounters.

The most common pattern of the general practitioner's act of initiating the process of eliciting information about the patient's health involves the general practitioner's direct reference to the patient's pain and/or illness. All recorded utterances of this pattern contain the lexical unit of "đau" in the Vietnamese language, which generally means pain. Typical utterances involving "đau" used by the general practitioners are as follows:

1)	Anh/chị Addr.term	đau ốm illness	sao / thế nào? how
	<i>What / How is your illness?</i>		
2)	Anh/chị Addr.term	đau pain	làm sao? how
	<i>What is the pain like?</i>		
3)	Anh/chị Addr.term	đau pain	gì? what
	<i>What is the pain?</i>		
4)	Anh/chị Addr.term	đau pain	ở đâu? where
	<i>Where does it hurt?</i>		

"Đau" can refer to physical pain or mental pain and its meaning can be ambiguous. For instance, when preceding or following "ốm", "đau" ("đau ốm" or "ốm đau") just means illness or sickness, as seen in example 1). When not used with "ốm", "đau" can convey all the senses from pain / painful, ill / illness, sick / sickness, ache / aching to being hurt as illustrated examples from 5) to 8) below.

5)	Anh you (addr.term)	đau hurt	không? question marker ?
	<i>Does it hurt?</i>		
6)	Tôi I (addr.term)	đau pain	
	<i>I'm in pain.</i>		
7)	Đau Pain	quá Too	
	<i>It's so painful.</i>		
8)	Chị ấy She (addr.term)	hay often	đau ill
	<i>She gets ill quite often.</i>		

All of the utterances containing "đau" are open-ended questions which convey the general practitioners' presupposition of the existence of pain or illness of some kind on the patient (i.e. existential presupposition). In other

words, this suggests the Vietnamese general practitioners' pre-assumptions that some type of pain exists within the patient and this is why patients came to see a doctor.

While "the social, economic and psychological costs of pain worldwide are immeasurable" (Wierzbicka, 2013, p. 307), "pain is now deemed to be the most common reason why people seek medical care" and becomes the "fifth vital sign" to be assessed apart from pulse, blood pressure, respiration, and body temperature (Fernandez & Wasan, 2010, p. 450). However, this does not mean that pain is the only and primary reasons why people come to see a doctor. In addition, it is important to identify pain across cultures because what it means may vary in different cultures and language. For instance, in Russian there is no distinction between ache and pain as the noun *bol* and the verb *bolit* cover both aspects of meaning, and so definition about pain needs to be based on empirical evidence in cross-linguistic semantics (Wierzbicka 2013, p. 308).

Interview data with the 6 general practitioners about their frequent use of the word "đau" in their initial encounters with patients show that the general practitioner employed "đau" in their questions to refer to the reasons why the patient comes, the symptoms on the part of the patients, the general health condition of the patient rather than just physical pain. However, as said elsewhere the meaning of "đau" varies from general illness to a specific physical pain and the linguistic constraint of the word (i.e. its ambiguity) does not always help ensure that patients' interpretation of "đau" in the general practitioners' question is the same as it is intended.

On the other hand, interview data also show that all 6 general practitioners believe that physical pain is the most common reason why patients come to see them, and they suffer from a lack of time due to heavy patient load, so in many cases it saves time to directly ask the patients to describe their pain if any. This is understandable from a socio-cultural perspective. Living in a developing country, Vietnamese do not often have the habit of having their health checked on a regular basis. It is not uncommon that they do not come to see doctors even when they notice unusual symptoms. They can get to a pharmacist and get hold of some medicine as verbally "prescribed" by the pharmacist. Others may try traditional herbal medicine. A majority of population will only come to see doctors when the symptoms do not reduce or already lead to consequences. Most of these cases are associated with pain. To add to general practitioners' workload, patients do not and are not asked to make an appointment to see a doctor or a general practitioner. They just turn up when they want to.

The study has shown the cultural and linguistic constraints on the Vietnamese general practitioners' act of initiating clinical information-seeking process. It also shows that the Vietnamese general practitioner's lexical choice in the case of "pain" is closely associated with clinical setting as context of institutional talk.

IV. CONCLUSION

Doctors in a unique position of respect and power (Ha, Anat & Longnecker, 2013). Research has provided empirical evidence that doctor's choice of language have impact on patients' beliefs of their health status (e.g., Tayler & Ogden, 2005; Taylor & Ogden, 2009). In a Southeast Asian Confucian context like Vietnam, doctors are considered even in much higher hierarchical level in comparison with patients who are to listen more than ask question or argue. Patients can come to see a doctor for many reasons, not just due to pain and so doctors' act of initiating information seeing process in initial encounters with patients under the influence of linguistic and cultural constraints as shown in this study may mislead patients by making the patients think that the doctor has already pre-supposed about them having pain, which then may affect the patients' feelings and thought of their health condition, influencing the information they provide the doctor, preventing the doctor from obtaining reliable, unbiased information about patients' medical condition. This could consequentially influence the doctor's conclusions and decisions regarding patients' health. Given that doctors and patients may not perceive the word "đau" in doctors' act of initiating clinical information-seeking process the same, the current study also suggests a need to investigate whether there is a consensus between doctors' and patients' perceptions of ambiguous institutional vocabulary.

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A Study of Women's Labor in Elizabeth Gaskell's *Mary Barton*

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Abstract—The present study aims at studying women's labor in Elizabeth Gaskell's *Mary Barton*. For this purpose, it will start by tracing the writer's historical, social, and critical background, the milieu which shaped her perspectives and henceforth her work. Besides, it will discuss the writer's response to the changes which occurred in her lifetime and at the same time served as a strong agent for change. The following part will shed light on Gaskell's contribution, reputation and writing career. Unlike her contemporaries, she presents the process of finding one's vocation as central to a women's life. Further, the study will examine women's labor in *Mary Barton* where the writer's focuses on working-class society in which young women were drawn from the conventions governing feminine behavior, since they lived outside the boundaries of gentility. One of the problems addressed by the novel is the *separation* between classes and genders; Gaskell's novel tends to bridge the boundaries between her characters and her readers and discourage the middle-class sense of complacent superiority.

Index Terms—labor, *Mary Barton*, working –class, woman, feminine, conventions

I. INTRODUCTION

From the very beginning of her career, when Elizabeth Gaskell explores the industrial novel, she foregrounds the world of labor, brining new concerns into the world of the novel. Moreover, her novels may in fact be seen as radical because they challenge widely held assumptions about the nature of women, their proper sphere, and their participations in labor. Gaskell's treatment of work, in particular, is revealing, for it can serve as testing ground for her attitudes and purposes. Work, after all, is a site where the dominant ideology operates as it encodes separate roles for men and women. Brodestsky Tessa (1986) observes about Gaskell:

Gaskell endeavored faithfully to portray the deplorable conditions of the working class. Empowered by her belief system, Gaskell, a woman, became a potent agent of social change, effectively drawing the attention of England's populace to the poor's situation.(67)

In her fiction, Gaskell focuses on the problems of working conditions in factories and employs the realities of her day to elucidate the plight of the downtrodden. These social issues brought forth many visible atrocities and, as such, presented Gaskell with material highly conducive to the moral theme so prevalent in her fiction.

As Shinwell Julia (1994) opines:

Gaskell lived in a century that was riddled with change; her fiction is in many ways a response to changes that were occurring in her lifetime and at the same time is an agent of change. Capitalizing on her respectable status as the wife of a minister and mother of four, Gaskell entered the Condition of England debate to make new claims for women. (56)

Gaskell offers her readers empowered female protagonists who, strengthened by their faith and personal principles, move out of their private spheres and have an impact on their communities. Highlighting female influence, *Mary Barton*, Molly Gibson and Margaret Hale, illustrate how women can achieve a type of social reformation within the traditional construct of the marriage plot. Francoise Basch(1990) observes that:

Gaskell is the only one among the major writers of the first half of the Victorian period to have dealt fully with the subject. Gaskell is interested in all kinds of occupations, those held by middle-class girls as well as held by working women. Perhaps because she was the mother of four daughters –two of whom never married- Gaskell was particularly sensitive to the plight of unmarried women, whose identities could not be shaped by their roles as wives or mothers and who consequently needed to acquire self- definition through other mean. (43)

Gaskell's industrial works emphasize faith as grounds for action. The dilemma of the industrial poor prompted Gaskell to write *Mary Barton*, and Gaskell's characters reflect this belief that faith and social action go together. In *Mary Barton* Gaskell is interested in presenting her female characters as powerful; by exploring the process by which they choose a direction for their lives, Gaskell links women's work with their empowerment.

The fragmentation in Gaskell criticism arises from an overemphasis on her social problem novels. A reader of many critics might never know that Gaskell was a prolific writer of (what are now called) novellas and short stories as well as a biography; that her most successful novel, *Cranford*, was an idyll; and that her most critically praised work, *Wives and Daughters*, has been compared to the works of both Jane Austen and George Eliot. Many critics are perplexed by *Sylvia's Lovers* because, as an historical novel, it is difficult to fit this work into any obvious grouping. Chapman Alan (1994) writes:

Mrs. Gaskell had neither the intellectual equipment nor the artistic power of George Eliot, but she was a shrewd observer, with a tolerant sympathy and a strong sense of humor. Curiously enough, she never did full justice to her humorous faculty, save in Cranford, which beyond a doubt is her highest achievement if fiction-an entirely fresh and delightful sojourn in a sleepy little country town. There is a pleasant aroma of fresh butter and dried lavender in its pages. The characterization is rich in happy little touches, reminiscent of Jane Austen's art, yet with a more whimsical play of humorous fancy than would have tolerated.(526)

Coming to Gaskell at the end of the twentieth century is both necessary and introductive, for the question of the role that work plays in a woman's life is still problematic. In her life, as well as in her fiction, Gaskell was interested in creating arrangements that would make it possible for women to have marriage and family, as well as some sort of separate vocation. Jenney Uglow (1993) points out:

Gaskell used her fiction to draw attention to the plight of the factory worker in Manchester, and to argue for reconciliation between employers and workers. While Gaskell was not the first woman to tackle industrial strife and expose the suffering of the workers in fiction. Mary Barton painted a grim picture of working life in which mill owners grew rich on the back of their long-suffering workers. The novel turned a drama of conflict between classes into an examination of humanity's essentially divided nature. (197)

To conclude, in her depiction of the working-class households within *Mary Barton*, Gaskell is recommending an alternative to the gendered organization of labor in the home. Moreover, since working-class men and women share in the labor outside the home, they are, Gaskell suggests, more successful at creating equitable arrangements within it (Haldane, 1990, p. 78). Common participation in the workforce- a public act-impinges on the private domain of the home. In contrast, middle-class society is based on the separation of the sexes; men become producers in the waged economy while women remain at home and function economically as consumers.

II. ELIZABETH GASKELL'S CONTRIBUTION, REPUTATION AND WRITING CAREER

A. Gaskell's Life: Family Background:

Elizabeth Cleghorn Gaskell (1810-1865) is one of the most beloved and critically acclaimed novelists of Victorian literature. She was the daughter of a Unitarian minister, William Stevenson who died in 1820. Mrs. Gaskell is often considered as a one-novel writer because of the immense success of *Cranford* (1853), a delicate picture of life in a village. "Cranford" is drawn from Knutsford in Cheshire, where Mrs. Gaskell was brought up by an aunt, Hannah Lamb.

The family background out of which Gaskell helped form her attitudes toward womanly potential. Gaskell's aunt served not only as an excellent mother-substitute but also as an important role model, showing Gaskell that a woman could live an independent and satisfying life. Gaskell grew up in a household of females, a household for all practical purposes headed by a competent single mother. Exposed early to female authority, she saw in her aunt an able, self-sufficient woman, who was capable of managing a wide range of tasks. As Robert Barnard (1988) opines:

The rest of Mrs. Gaskell's output is very varied, but the best of it springs from her memories of childhood and girlhood in the small town of Knutsford, in the English Midlands. Her best-loved novel, Cranford, is series of vignette, charming yet clear-eyed, of a town in which the single woman dominates (120)

Social problems play a part; they do so in her other novels, but *Cranford* will live longest. The life of the village, where the ladies of good family are poor, is described with immense skill.

After her marriage to William Gaskell, a minister of the same theological school in (1832). She and her husband lived for many years at Manchester, and from her experiences of Lancashire life, she found the material at hand for her first novel, *Mary Barton* and *North and South*. M. Brooks Howell (2007) points out:

In 1821, at twenty-one years of age, Elizabeth Cleghorn Gaskell met the Reverend William Gaskell, an assistant minister at Manchester. The couple married in 1832. (8)

Mrs. Gaskell's novels include *Mary Barton* (1848) which portrays the dreadful reality of life in the new industrial Victorian England. Also, *Mary Barton* is sincere and moving story, which might easily have been spoiled by sentimentality. *North and South* gives us a thoughtful study of the problems that arise out of the factory system, while there is excellent workshop in *Wives and Daughters* (1866). Here she captures the nuances of class relationship and social differences in a small town, and uses them to enrich her central subject, the study of two girls, step sisters, growing up within a family circle created by a disastrous second marriage. *Ruth* (1853) is the sad and tragic story of a girl whose parents are dead. *North and South* (1854) is a study of the different lives led by English people, especially the poor in the north and the happier ones in the south. The plot centers round Margaret Hale, a gentle girl from the south, who goes north and meets the problems of angry crowds of poor workpeople.

Gaskell left behind a rich literary legacy, including six novels, several short stories and non-fictional pieces, as well as the first biography of Charlotte Bronte. Her novels are beloved for their vivid characters and arresting portrayals of Victorian life. Gaskell was a vibrant new voice to the genre of industrial fiction. Her work helped reanimate Victorian society into aiding humanitarian causes.

B. Gaskell's Contribution, Reputation & Writing Career

The quality of Gaskell's writing is her personal disclosures, which contribute to accusations of the "awkwardness" of her writing and its 'embarrassing religiosity'. (Carol, 2001, p.90). Upon first consideration, they may seem distracting or

perhaps even quaint. However, via this narrative strategy, Gaskell advocates not only for her fictional characters but also for those who suffer in real life. These personal disclosures are not merely the result of a mismanaged narrative voice. Rather, they are guided by her careful hand. Describing her feelings that are evoked in the plot, Gaskell uses personal disclosures to simultaneously advocate for her characters and instruct her readers. (Howell, 2007, p.34).

Gaskell fits the image of the "superwoman", a term used in the 1970s to denote a woman who could effortlessly merge her public and private roles. The writer managed simultaneously to attend to her responsibility as a minister's wife, to bring up four daughters, and to secure a solid literary reputation for herself. Yet, Gaskell's career was not without its efforts, strains, or costs. Throughout her life she was plagued with severe headaches, especially when she was under the pressure to write, and she died an early death at fifty-five, probably at the height of her powers. To a modern reader, her life appears to be symptomatic of the stresses of a time in which women's notions about vocation were beginning to change.

Gaskell was a talented storyteller, as critics have noted, and those who knew her, spoke of her knack for telling tales about friends and family. (Carol, 2002, p.44). Her storytelling ability was partially due to her outgoing personality and her penchant for detailed observation of human beings. Jenney Uglow (1993) writes:

In Gaskell's tales to family and friends (as in her more formal writing), truth mixed with fiction. Many characters and scenarios in her fiction are derived from real persons and events that Gaskell observed or heard about. Whether Gaskell had adapted a real life scenario or invented it, she used real-life inspirations to represent larger social realities- or truths- to her reading audience. She often defended her writing by saying that she had to tell the truth- to represent life as she knew it- despite the social repercussions. Her truth telling approach to fiction was mandated by her Unitarian faith and led her to craft the kinds of plots that allow for characters to engage in evidence gathering (184).

Gaskell sensed that she was living in a period of transition, and she looked to the future for the resolution of some of the issues and dilemmas confronting women. As she wrote novels that addressed the issue of work for women, she took a hopeful view of the possibilities that would be available to women in later years, while remaining aware of the present difficulties. Much of Gaskell criticism has overlooked the subtle contributions that she made to the Victorian novel, specifically the ways that gave her female characters voice and credibility, a daunting task in the nineteenth century. Pinchbeck Ivy (1990) notes the:

Prevailing patronizing attitude taken to Gaskell by many critics from the time of her death until well into the first part of this the twentieth century. (62)

Margaret Ganz (2001, p.23), on the other hand, sees Gaskell as the victim of warring impulses, including an impulse toward social reform, humor, commemoration, didacticism, melodrama, mystery, idyll, and tragedy. She also believes that Gaskell falls short of being a great artist because she is not able to achieve the universality necessary for great literature. Although Ganz (2001) disagrees on Gaskell's ultimate achievements in fiction, she nevertheless shared a critical view that assumes that the messy texture of social life must be transcended and that the truly great will resist the temptation to inquire too deeply into contemporary problems. (24).

Much of Gaskell's fiction is filled with sentimentality. Ivy (1990) explains:

Gaskell explains melodrama to express concepts of innocence, guilt and justice in ways which realism or- cool economics analysis- could not encompass. She always gave priority to duty towards human beings, 'real person', whom she opposed to the fictional persons that totally absorb the writer during literary creation, however, her insistence on seeing her literary pursuits as a vocation is striking. (76)

Brodesky Tessa (1986) points out:

Gaskell was the first major Victorian writer to explore in detail the subject of female labor. In her works we find nurses, dressmakers, factory worker, among others. (56)

Gaskell wrote a large number of short stories and veering away from her realist tendencies, she wrote ghost stories; like many Victorians, she had a strong interest in the supernatural. While profit may have the motive for her, it would be interesting to see if the plots and themes in her ghost stories give us a better notion of her respect beliefs. As Jeanette Webber (1990) opines:

Gaskell's fiction was an outgrowth of her philanthropy. Through her social work and person experiences, Gaskell became cognizant of the many problems in society, and she determined to resolve those problems. In fact, Gaskell judged her own fiction not on artistic or literary merits, but on the social message it relayed. (12)

As the Victorian feminists knew-and as Gaskell knew- there is power in numbers. Herself a member of a network of writers and activists, Gaskell approves of female solidarity and made a major theme in her novels. Jeanette Webber (1990) points out:

In Cranford, women have leaned to depend on each other, particularly in a crises. On one occasion the ladies deal with the possibility of robbery after several thefts break out in their town. (17)

To conclude, in her own life, Gaskell constantly juxtaposed the public moment with the private one, writing about the composition of her latest novel alongside the purchase of a gown or a daughter, the death of the family cat, the problems of dandelions in the yard. In doing so, she was demonstrating the way that women's lives were lived out as they go about doing the work: painting the picture, writing the music, baking the bread. Both her life and her fiction testify to the truth. To quote Robert Barnard (1988):

Mrs. Gaskell never moralizes, though she is a moralist of the subtlest kind. She deals not with tragedy or undying grief, but with grinding unhappiness and frustration, continued day after day. Her characters make no heroic gestures; they endure, they compromise, they make the best things, Wives and Daughters is one of the landmarks of the new, more realistic novel that was being written in 1850s and 60s (121)

Gaskell died at the height of her popularity; however, by the end of the century, her stories had fallen out of fashion (*Cranford* being the noteworthy exception). The 1950s brought about a revived interest in Gaskell's industrial fiction. Today, the popularity of her work continues to grow. "It is studied and researched at universities across the world and her books are now available in more edition than they have been for years" (Barnard, 1988, p.43). In 1985 The Gaskell Society was founded to bring together like-minded scholars and Gaskell enthusiasts to promote and celebrate her work. BBC Television produced film adaptations of her novels *Wives and Daughters*, *Cranford*, and *North and South*, which further promoted interest in Gaskell's work.

III. WOMEN'S LABOR IN *MARY BARTON*

A. *Mary Barton: At a Glance*

Mary Barton is perhaps the most powerful evocation of the industrial scene (and indictment of the industrial system) before the twentieth century. In spite of some melodrama, contrivance and sentimentality, the picture of working-class life in prosperity and depression convince by its honesty, its meticulously observation of the telling detail, its sympathy which never spills over into special pleading. Mrs. Gaskell is not merely concerned with the virtuous poor, the well-conducted chapel-goer who trips his hat to the right people; she takes in the idler, the rebel, the prostitute, the murderer, and she sees them against a meticulous described background of their hovels, their streets running with sewage, the grinding routine of their work, their holidays and small treats, their soul-destroying idleness and hunger during unemployment. It is all, inevitably, seen from the outside, but nobody else brought to the Victorian industrial scene so knowledgeable an eye or so sharp a brain (Barnard, 1988, p.134).

Gaskell's presentation of Mary, the main character of the novel. The readers' first glimpse of Mary reveals a young woman who is actively engaged, constantly doing. At the same time, Gaskell makes a point of presenting her as attractive and successful when she carries out traditionally feminine duties. Also, In her account of Mary's search for a vocation, Gaskell is acknowledging the significance that work has in women's lives and insisting that they should make their own career decisions.

B. *The Idea of Labor in the Novel*

In *Mary Barton* Gaskell emphasizes affirmative images of women working. While John Barton and his friend, Wilson, are discussing the fate of Esther, Barton's sister-in-law, whose vanity and love of finery have led her, Barton suspects, into ruin. In the novel, the idleness is viewed as evidence of moral defectiveness; working, on the other hand, is a positive value because it produces human sympathy and creates community. The novel's depiction of women at their work indicates that Gaskell views activity-not inertia - as appropriate for young women.

Mary Barton demonstrates the benefits of men and women sharing the workload.. The men in the novel combine traditionally male qualities of strength with traditionally female qualities of caring.; conversely, Mary develops male traits of independence and toughness. The result is an enlargement of identity and an increase in sympathy, on both sides. For Mrs. Gaskell is the first step toward improving society, as sympathy enacts itself on both private and public levels.

Through the various characters in *Mary Barton*, Gaskell addresses and dismisses the opposition, those who have serious reservations about women working. John Barton expresses the fear that work outside the home, especially factory work, can lead a young woman astray, reasoning that the ability to support herself might lead her to become vain and to overvalue finery, like his sister-in law Esther did. He also identifies as another potential hazard the freedom of movement that accompanies working (Carol, 2001, p.90). Yet Gaskell does not share her character's fears. Yet her social ambitions are justified in part by her concern for her father's comfort; her rise in position would enable her to remove the cares that continually oppresses him. Moreover, she does discover on her own the true state of her feelings-her preference for Wilson- and acts accordingly, setting forth to Mr. Carson her decision to sever the association with him. (Webber, 1990, p.67). On his turn Wendy Ann Craik (2003) comments on Mary's strength of character:

Far from helpless in her normal life, she has been a competent housekeeper, who has coped with sorrow, shortage of money, death, illness, overwork, sleepless nights, and her own personal dilemmas, all over a long period, during which she has also had to act independently without help or confidante. (45)

Based on her own experience as a mother who watched a daughter, Meta, break off an engagement, Gaskell knows that a young woman could not be protected from the daily realities and dangers, from making her own mistakes, even by a parent makes clear approval of female autonomy and self-reliance. (Patricia, 1994, p.62).

C. *Gaskell's Concept of Women's Labor.*

In *Mary Matron* (1854), Mrs. Gaskell portrays and depicts that in the strict rules in Victorian society to which aim at defining class boundaries. However in her novel, Mrs. Gaskell did, in some ways, for The North what Charles Kingsley for the South. She is not the industrial reformer that Kingsley was, but she knew out the fullness of her own experiences

the bitterness and misery arising from these early conflicts between capital and labor. The importance of Mrs. Gaskell's *Mary Barton* lies not merely in its spiritual achievement of industrial dramas but in the method of dealing with working women.

In *Cranford* Mrs. Gaskell presents a community of women who are self-sufficient. Those women have chosen to lead single lives and are happy in their choice. Although the inhabitants of Cranford are not wealthy, they do control property. In spite of their limited financial resources, the ladies of Cranford manage to create ritual and ceremonies that allow them to function comfortably, even on wafer bread and butter and sponge-biscuits. Furthermore, when disasters arise, they are able to find solutions and even to embark on new projects in old age. When the bank that serves Miss Matty fails, she faces the prospect of penury. Yet, after a conference with her friends, she decides to support herself by selling tea, a scheme that flourishes due to the backing of her community. It is telling that Mrs. Gaskell claimed this novel as her favorite, the one that gave her most pleasure. It is her most complete representation of a community of women who are content and able to pursue their own enterprises.

Gaskell is not solely preoccupied with her own pain. Her principal purpose is to depict the distance between the classes and the pressures under which working-class people lived. In particular, Gaskell is concerned with working women, the largest group in Victorian England whose labor was not fully recognized or sanctioned. (Basch, 1990, p.67). Drawing on the pain she felt during the loss of her own children, Gaskell attempts to express in *Mary Barton* the difficult situation faced by Victorian women within a culture that neither recognized nor rewarded their labor.

The novel's depiction of women at their work indicates that Gaskell views activity-not inertia- as appropriate for young women. (Webber, 1990, p.90)

Gaskell's picture of a young factory girl, Mary Barton who derives satisfaction as well as maturity from her occupation, is rare among Victorian images of working-class women. *Mary Barton* focuses on the career of a young, vital girl who is able to accomplish what she desires. Mary's father recognizes the importance of a vocation for his daughter and defers to her when she expresses an interest in becoming a seamstress. When Mary's mother dies, Mary, left to her own resources, becomes independent, making purchases on her own and conducting a romance with a young man of her own choosing. Mary's labor outside the home strengthens her to such an extent that she is able to execute a leading role in the public acquittal of her lover. At the end of the novel, Mary gets everything she wants-and she is confidently managing it all.

IV. CONCLUSION

Mary Barton closes with a quiet family scene, in which letters from England are joyously received. They bring the news of the upcoming marriage of Margaret and Will and of the successful operation that restored Margaret's sight. The last image of the novel- a woman recovering her vision- is an interesting note to end on, for it is the image of a woman being empowered. Early in the novel, Margaret sings a moving song about the Oldham Weaver, and even Mary is amazed at the powerful performance of her friend. In spite of the independence and strong will she demonstrates in her actions, Margaret for the most part accepts the feminine ideal of passivity, advising her more impetuous friend. Gaskell also appears to prefer Mary's energy to Margaret's patience, giving Mary a central role in the plot while Margaret is confined to the periphery of the novel.

Mary Barton, a seemingly simple factory girl, represents, despite her disarming looks, a powerful force, for she bears the ideological weight of her class, women who work and who become strong in their labor. In this novel, Mary is a persuasive argument for female vocation.

To conclude, in her depiction of the working-class households within the novel, Gaskell is recommending an alternative to the gendered organization of labor in the home. Through *Mary Barton*, the writer is criticizing a society that withholds from women opportunities for fulfilling work. Throughout her career Gaskell attempted to redefine femininity by associating it with the performance of labor and autonomy.

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Corpus-based Analysis of Semantic Transparency between High Frequent English and Chinese Compounds

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Abstract—From psycholinguistic and lexical semantic aspect, the semantic transparency of 2000 nominal English and Chinese high frequent compounds in the corpus have been analyzed, and related with word frequency. The result showed that in both languages, the number of Transparent-Transparent and Partially-Transparent compounds is larger than that of Opaque-Opaque compounds. Moreover, the relationship between compound frequency and the degree of semantic transparency is different between English and Chinese. Both of these results reflect the common features of mental lexicon process and differences in lexical structures in English and Chinese.

Index Terms—corpus, high frequent English compound, high frequent Chinese compound, semantic transparency, word frequency

I. INTRODUCTION

A considerable amount of research has been carried out on the mental representation and processing of compound words, consisting of more than one morpheme, e. g. storybook. One of the main questions in this field is semantic transparency. It is normally believed that a semantically transparent compound can be understood by those who have never heard the word before, e. g. storybook and 课桌 (desk) can be understood as a combination of the meanings of story and book, or 课 (lesson) and 桌 (desk). Whereas an opaque compound like humbug, 旗下 (subordinate), only knowing the constituent morphemes hum and bug or 旗 (flag) and 下 (under or below) cannot help understand the meaning of the word.

The notions of ‘transparent’ and ‘opaque’ refer to the degree of semantic transparency. It varies along in a single continuum within the same processing system from fully transparent to fully opaque. For example, one transparent type like lunchtime, 车主 (car owner), both of their word meanings can be completely identified from the constituent morphemes meanings. So the meanings of morphemes are apparent to the meanings of the words. But in another opaque type like black sheep, 旗下 (subordinate), their word meanings cannot be speculated or inferred by the constituents morphemes. These two words are extremely different in terms of degrees of semantic transparency. Therefore, semantic transparency is supposed to be a continuum process in which there are more than two clearly cut degrees. For example, shot gun, 抱歉 (be sorry/regret), fire engine, etc. Their degrees of semantic transparency are not the same as the two extremes, because only one instead of two in these words is efficient in meaning computations. In this aspect, semantic transparency reflects the relationship between compound word and its constituent morphemes. For clarity, a morpheme is defined as a minimal form/unit (orthographic and /or phonological) that carries meaning in a multimorphemic string (Li & Thompson, 1981).

There are many studies proved the centrality of semantic transparency in the processing of multimorphemic words. Laudana and Burani (1995) claimed that semantic transparency determines the presentation route of a multimorphemic word-whether in a whole-word recognition or through a morphological decomposition. The research conducted by Marslen-Wilson, Tyler, Waksler, and Older (1994) also supports the importance of semantic transparency. It is found that semantic transparent form has more significant whole-word constituent priming effects than semantic opaque. In the investigation of Schreuder and Bayen (1995), a meta-model of morphological processing has been presented in which semantic transparency determines whether a multimorphemic form has its own representation or in terms of the constituents.

Though above studies are diverse in underlying assumptions and theories, they agree on the point that any discussion of multimorphemic words related to mind processing would have to include an account of how semantic transparency works. In this paper, we analyze and compare semantic processing of multimorphemic words-compounds in English and Chinese from the aspect of semantic transparency itself. It is claimed that semantic transparency is an important aspect to the study of compound processing from both psycholinguistics and semantics.

II. SEMANTIC TRANSPARENCY AND WORD FREQUENCY

Semantic transparency is often considered to reflect the relationship between a multimorphemic word and its constituent morphemes, it is therefore preferably used in semantics studies, especially in Chinese lexical research. The first one to analyze Chinese words from the term of semantic transparency is in Li & Li's research (2008). Because Chinese is fruitful in compounds, mostly the words in the analysis are compounds. These words have been categorized into 4 degrees according to the representation of the constituent morphemes meanings in the whole word meaning, which include fully transparent, partially transparent, partially opaque and fully opaque. It is concluded that 4 degrees of semantic transparency from fully transparent to fully opaque reflects the diachronic process of lexicalization and structuralization.

In compound studies, semantic transparency often works together with word frequency. In psycholinguistics, like the research of Chinese compounds processing and representation, Mok, L (2009) manipulated the semantic transparency and word frequency, found that the higher the word frequency is, the more transparent the word semantics is. Besides, the meanings of the morphemes are easily identified in the compound with comparatively high word frequency and semantic transparency. In Pollatsek, A (2005), word frequency and semantic transparency are regarded as parameters again to analyze the Finland compound processing and representation. The result found that semantic transparency works with word transparency decides correct outputs in processing.

Normally in psycholinguistic research, researchers would manipulate more than one factor like typical compounds and pseudowords together to infer to the working models in compound processing, i.e., in the research of Mok and Pollatsek, both of them chose some typical compounds and design the same number of pseudowords as well. It is true that the result by the method of choosing typical compounds with intention can reflect typical mental representations in different semantic situations. Meanwhile, it is unavoidable to mislead that brain always work in typical instead of common situations.

In Semantics study, the common distributions of semantic transparency for a limited number of common frequent rather than typical compounds is often taken as the objective in the research. For example, in Dong's (2011), 500 Chinese compounds by frequencies with bisyllables from Modern Frequency Chinese Dictionary were selected and analyzed. Dong classified 5 ways of semantic transparency for these 500 compounds, and found that most of the compounds are fully transparent or partially transparent, semantic transparency can significantly influence the learning process, and transparent compounds could decrease the difficulties for non-native learners.

Truly, this research reflected partially the common semantic features of Chinese common compounds, but how semantic transparency reflects the word frequency, and how word frequency influences the distributions of semantic transparency, is there any relationship between these two variables? Little evidence could be found. And it is believed that one single language study with limited data objects is not strongly persuasive to prove any significance in linguistic studies.

Therefore, current study will focus on two language comparisons in the light of psycholinguistics and semantics, semantic transparency of 1000 English and 1000 Chinese common frequent compounds will be analyzed, and the relationship of the variables –semantic transparency and word frequency will be correlated with the help of SPSS 16.0. The following hypothesis will be tested in the research:

- What are the common distributions of semantic transparency in English and Chinese high frequent compounds?
- What are the relationships between semantic transparency and word frequency?

III. DATA COLLECTION

In defining compound, we referred to the approach used in Huang (1998)'s study, that is, compounds constitute two lexical items connected by syntactic rule, and this compound can be analyzed into two or more meaningful elements or morphemes. 2000 high frequent compounds nouns with two meaningful morphemes were chosen to build an English-Chinese compound nouns corpus in the research. Compound nouns take up large percent in both English and Chinese. So compound nouns analysis is meaningful to compound processing and representations.

As for the data collection, 1000 English compounds nouns were selected from 11521 compound words in *Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* (2004) by frequency index from British National Corpus (BNC). It is shown that the frequency index of these 1000 English compounds nouns distribute from 11433 to 140, which can reflect the commonality of the research data in an English Spoken country. Another 1000 Chinese compounds were selected from *A Frequency Dictionary of Mandarin Chinese* (2009), the data in the dictionary are comparatively update, which cover materials of spoken, novels, news, etc. on the basis of 50 million Chinese words. In the corpus, we selected 1000 compound nouns according to the frequency index labeled in the dictionary, in order to guarantee the form and the speech in one-to-one correspondence, Modern Chinese Dictionary (5th edition) has been used to match the frequent meaning with the noun form of the compounds.

Because of the different semantic relationship between the constituent morphemes, and the whole word meaning, semantic transparency has been graded as different degrees. (Libben 2003, Li & Li 2008) The typical (Libben, 2003) includes four degrees, they are TT (Transparent-Transparent), OT (Opaque-Transparent), TO (Transparent-Opaque) and OO (Opaque-Opaque). In the current research, in the principle of the relationship between morpheme meaning and word meaning as Libben, the semantic transparency of the compounds will be graded as 3, like TT (Transparent-Transparent), PT (Partially-Transparent), which include OT and TO in Libben's classification, and OO

(Opaque-Opaque).

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Semantic Transparency Distributions

According to the classification of semantic transparency, the 2000 compound nouns had been labeled with different degrees. It was found that the semantic transparency distribution of English is uneven as that of Chinese in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
SEMANTIC TRANSPARENCY DISTRIBUTIONS IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE

English Compounds (N=1000)				Chinese Compounds (N=1000)		
	TT	PT	OO	TT	PT	OO
M	493.13	457.81	614.52	343.28	420.71	570.09
SD	662.284	875.505	1041.694	428.45	562.059	839.066
Per%	57%	27.7%	15.3%	55.7%	33.3%	11%

TT accounted for the top, and OO for its obscurity, accounted for the fewest in the corpus in both languages. The result on Chinese compound nouns was consistent with Dong's (2011). Meanwhile, the mean of the word frequency in Chinese is not as large as that of in English, and the standard deviations of English in all of the types are remarkable, for their large densities in word frequency distribution in the corpus.

As for the distributions of different degrees of semantic transparency, we analyzed the most prominent one, TT, and found that the constituents of word meaning related to morpheme meanings can be basically identified as two kinds, one is C=A+B. This type can be found both in English and in Chinese. For example,

In English

lunchtime: the time in the middle of the day when people usually eat their lunch.

lunch: a meal eaten in the middle of the day.

time: minutes or hours etc.

In Chinese

车主 (Car owner): owner of a vehicle.

In the corpus, the type of C=A+B is the most popular with English TT compounds, like *story book*, *newspaper*, *social service*, etc. the compound meaning is a combination of the morpheme meaning, the representation process is the process of morphological decomposition of the words, and both morphemes in a compound contribute systematically to the meaning of the compound word as a whole.

The other TT compounds is C=A=B, that means the compound meaning is represented by morphemes, and either of them contributes systematically to the meaning of compound word. But different from the previous type, the word meaning C is not a kind of meaning combination of the morphemes, like A+B, in some aspect, the meaning of C is equivalent to either morpheme meaning A or B. And either A or B is apparent in C. It is found that comparing with English compounds, it is more prominent in Chinese, about 33% in the corpus. For example, 朋友 (friend), the morphemes 朋 and 友 mean friend, they overlap each other in meaning and contribute individually to the whole word. To compute the meaning of 朋友 is like the computation of any morpheme, like 朋 or 友, both can facilitate decisively the processing of the whole word.

From mental lexicon processing and representation, whether the word is the type of C=A+B or C=A=B, when computing the meanings of the compounds, the mind will speculate on the two morphemes meanings automatically, especially for processing novel words. If the two morphemes are completely transparent in semantics, that will reduce the bearing load of the brain in processing and representation. In processing TT word meanings, the mind doesn't project in TIME or SPACE, instead, the morphemes meanings can represent the most meanings of words, and this way will definitely facilitate the communications. From this point, the processing and representation of TT compounds doesn't need to waste too much time or energy, so it is in line with the "economy principle", and this may explain the reason why the number of TT compounds is larger in both languages in the corpus.

Different from TT compounds, for PT compounds, the word meaning cannot be completely decomposed from the morpheme meanings, and it has a semantic relationship with only one constituent morpheme. For example, in English.

shotgun: a long gun fired from the shoulder that shoots many small round balls at one time, used especially for killing birds or animals.

shot: when someone fires a gun, or the sound that this makes.

gun: a weapon from which bullets are fired.

The meaning of gun overlaps the meaning of the word shotgun, while, the meaning of shot is not apparent to the meaning of the word shotgun.

In Chinese, the meaning of 抱歉 (be sorry/ regret) is not the easily decomposed meaning of the constituent morphemes, 抱(hold or carry in the arms) plus 歉 (feel sorry/ apologize), and only 歉 overlaps the meaning of the word 抱歉(be sorry / regret), morpheme 抱 is opaque related to the compound meaning.

In both of these shotgun and 抱歉 (be sorry / regret), part of the morpheme meanings overlap the meaning of words,

like gun in shotgun and 歉 in 抱歉, and other morpheme meanings have to be transformed and projected either in time or in space, to process the word meaning, which will cost more time in computation. And for the relations between word and morpheme, only one morpheme is transparent.

In addition, we identified two types of PT compound in the corpus. One is OT, i.e. Opaque A + Transparent B. Another is TO, i.e. Transparent A + Opaque B. English compounds are typical rightmost-centered, namely the morpheme on the right side is decisive for the word semantics and morphology, etc. And according to the research done by Libben, Gibson, Yoon, and Sandra (2003), it was found that the English compounds with opaque heads took longer to recognize than the compounds with transparent heads. This is because of an effect of the opacity of the morphological head that occurs at the right morpheme of English words. So for English PT compounds, the degree of semantic transparency of OT is higher than that of TO. For example, OT compound, shotgun and TO compound, fire engine. In shotgun, the rightmost morpheme gun determines the semantic and morphological category of the word, and its meaning overlaps the meaning of the word shotgun, so the word semantic is easier and more transparent to infer. While, for TO compound, like fire engine, the rightmost morpheme engine, is opaque in meaning, that is, it showed little hint in the word meaning, so the degree of whole word semantic transparency has been decreased by this decisive morpheme.

Different from English, Huang (1998), after analyzing 24,000 bisyllabic modern Chinese compounds, proposed that Chinese is neither left-centered nor right-centered, it is 'headless language in its compounding morphology'. (Huang, 1998) That is, any one component morpheme cannot fully determine the whole compounds either in semantics or in morphology. Like TO compound 抱歉 (be sorry/regret) and OT compound 当局 (authorities), none of the morphemes can decide the semantic categories of the words, the computation of compound meanings need the support of two morphemes integration, therefore, differ from the English OT compounds, the mental representation of Chinese OT compounds has to rely on the semantic integration of the constituent morphemes. More bearing load may cost more time and energy to compute, which will increase difficulties in communications. This might be the reason for the smaller number of PT compounds in the corpus, comparing with TT compounds.

In OO compounds, the meanings of both morphemes are opaque to the meanings of the words, and morphological decomposition would yield wrong representation of the words. Like the English compound, black sheep, it means someone who is regarded by other members of their family or group as a failure or embarrassment. But one morpheme black means having the darkest color and sheep means a farm animal that is kept for its wool and its meat. Neither black nor sheep has direct relations with the word black sheep. This situation is the same in Chinese, like 旗下 (subordinate), the morpheme 旗 means flag, and 下 means under or below. In both of these two compounds, the morphological decomposition does little contribution to the whole-word recognition, the meanings of morphemes are not apparent in the meanings of words, and the computation process rely on the whole lexical form instead of decomposed morphemes. Therefore, OO compounds are considered as the most 'word-like' (Libben et al., 2003) or the most 'unitised' (Mok, 2009) comparing with TT and PT compounds.

It is likely concluded that the decomposing effect of meaning computation from morphemes decreases with the degree of transparency. The more semantically opaque morphemes meanings are as to compound meaning, the less efficient will be the process of morphological decomposition in facilitating whole-word meaning computation. Libben et al. (2003) showed that opaque compounds had a much stronger repetition effect than TT and PT compounds, which means that this type of compounds were more difficult to process, and more difficult to be comprehended in communication, because of more time and energy consuming. This may the reason why there is smaller number of OO compounds in the corpus, and may even in the daily use.

B. Relations between Semantic Transparency and Word Frequency

As discussed in 3.1, the more transparent the compounds are, the larger number the words is, like TT compounds accounted for the most in both languages in the corpus. And the reason TT is popular may because it is easily to be understood and comprehended in communication. Generally speaking, the easier to be communicated, the more frequent the word will be in daily use, this is like Matthew Effect. In the research, we hypothesize that this effect would be represented by the relationship between semantic transparency and word frequency.

To test that there are some kind of relations between semantic transparency and word frequency in both languages, two variables were labeled with different numbers and degrees. For the word frequency, it was marked from 1 to 5 according to the numbers in mean and standard deviation, and each number represent 200 compounds, the larger the number is, the higher the word frequency is. As for the semantic transparency, the 3 types of compounds, TT, PT and OO have been graded with numbers from 1 to 3, the more opaque the word is, the larger the number is. After all of these have been done, the two variables were tested on Pearson correlation coefficient and the bilateral inspection. The result is in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN SEMANTIC TRANSPARENCY AND WORD FREQUENCY

		Semantic transparency	Word frequency
English compound semantic transparency	Pearson Correlation	.007	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.833	
	N	1000	1000
Chinese compound semantic transparency	Pearson Correlation	.086**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.007	
	N	1000	1000
**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			

In Table 2, for the high frequent English 1000 compounds, $r=0.007<1$, $p=0.833>0.01$, which means that the relation between word frequency and semantic transparency is not significant, the change of semantic transparency cannot remarkably reflect the change of word frequency, three degrees of semantic transparency have spread loosely across the 5 levels of word frequency, from the least frequent to the most frequent in the corpus. Therefore, there is no direct relationship between the two variables in English.

But for Chinese in the corpus, $r=0.086$, $p=0.007<0.01$, inspection level is 0.01, word frequency can significantly reflect semantic transparency. When the number of word frequency grows bigger, the degree of semantic transparency becomes higher, vice versa. For example, TT compound, the word frequency is more concentrated in the level of 5 and 4. In contrast, the lower word frequency of compound tends to be opaque in semantic transparency. Like, OO compound, the word frequency is more likely to be concentrated in the level of 2 and 1. This shows that Chinese compound word frequency can obviously reflect the change of semantic transparency, the two variables have direct correlations.

The differences in the relationship between the two variables may be interpreted from the aspect of the different lexical structure distributions in the two languages. In English, although compounding is the most productive in word formation, compound words are not the main type, 45% English words are single morphemes, and compound only accounts to 25% (Dupuy 1974). This can be also found from the English compound word frequency, the distributions are not so concentrated as that in Chinese. And in Chinese, compound words are the main type, especially bimorphemic compounds, which can be accounted for 73.6% of the total number, so the word frequency can significantly reflect the distributions of semantic transparency.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Based on the corpus of English-Chinese high frequent compounds, semantic transparency was analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively, and the two languages word frequencies were correlated with their semantic transparency as well. The results showed that both in English and Chinese, TT compounds are the most prominent and OO compounds are the least. As for the relationship of the two variables, English compound is not as significant as that of Chinese. For the similarity of the two languages compounds, this reflects language 'economic' principle, and for the differences in the relationship between semantic transparency and word frequency, this may be interpreted as the differences between the two language lexical structure distributions. The research provides an insight to analyze the characteristics of multimorphemic words in both psycholinguistic and semantic aspects.

There is also some future work that could be done to improve the credibility of the current research. First, the lexical sample in the corpus could be enlarged to include more words not only within the limit of frequency and compound nouns. Second, the word semantic transparency division can be more objective by repeating division work from different participants.

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ESP Learners' Perception of ESP Program Problems at Iranian Universities (A Case Study of Islamic Azad University Najafabad Branch)

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Abstract—Admittedly, ESP courses are mainly designed to equip the students with the language skills which will allow them to function in the target situation or work domain. Realizing the need for more investigation, the present research examined problems of the ESP program in Iran focusing on ESP teachers' and learners' perception, with particular reference to Islamic Azad University Najafabad Branch. To fulfill the purposes of the study, 102 Iranian ESP learners (male and female) majoring in computer engineering, electronic engineering, and civil engineering, BSc level from Islamic Azad University of Najafabad participated in the study. The main instruments which were found appropriate for the purposes of the present research was a questionnaire consisting of some items related to ESP learners' needs, attitudes. The results of the study suggest that students' internal motivation to learn English can be the outcome of an ESP program in which learners' needs, nature of students' majors and their professional needs are the focus of attention.

Index Terms—English for Specific Purposes, perception, needs, motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

ESP programs have been implemented since the early 1960s. The courses are taught at universities in order to meet students' specific needs, and prepare them for academic and vocational contexts in future (Chang, 2009; Tsao, 2011). Iranian ESP learners usually enroll in the course not for the sake of language knowledge but in order to be able to function in a specific context using the language as a tool. Moreover, ESP courses address the students who start learning English as a compulsory course in the secondary school. University ESP students receive 2 hours of English instruction a week to pass a two-credit course which has some main components like translation and technical vocabularies. Evaluation tools used in order to assess the students' performance are stated to be written midterm and final exam.

Iranian ESP learners basically receive most of their language input through textbooks and the language practice which takes place in the classroom. Most of the ESP teachers consider textbooks as the foundation for the content of the lessons (Karimi, Sadeghi, Behnam Nia, Esmaeeli Salumahaleh, Mirzaei, & Farokhzadi, 2013). ESP in Iran is a novel area and ruled by traditional ways of teaching, consequently many significant areas including ESP teachers' education have been ignored or even untouched scientifically which might be the effect of local, cultural and educational policies (Ghanbari & Eslami Rasekh, 2012). English instructors teaching ESP do not have any special training or instruction before being required to teach those ESP courses (Sherkatolabbasi & Mahdavi-Zafarghandi, 2012). Therefore, the present study is aimed at improving ESP learning condition in Iran through introducing some problems related to the ESP program.

Hutchinson (1987) explains that special group of learners need a particular type of English according to their requirements so by analyzing the linguistic characteristics of their special area of profession or study, their language can be identified. "Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need" became the guiding principle of ESP (P.8). Liu (2007) defines ESP as a part of "Language for Specific Purposes" (LSP), which is more general and does not only put its attention on teaching English, but also on French as well as German.

In fact, needs analysis is one of the fundamental assumptions in syllabus design because syllabus design originates from them. Luttikhuizen (2000) also asserts that while designing materials for ESP course, some components (grammatical, functional, notional, lexical, discourse and rhetorical ones) are chosen which are relevant to the specific field so he disagrees with the idea of mere teaching of a number of technical terms (Luttikhuizen, 2000).

Due to the fact that ESP learners are supposed to learn English in a really restricted time, it is necessary to teach them the most important and useful parts they need. So the ESP course developers and designers must consider learners' needs and try to design around them (Basturkmen, 2006). In order to provide an appropriate design, any type of syllabus or methodology might be applied, but, due to the time restrictions, a task-based and communicative approach is suggested (Byram, 2004). While designing ESP course, corpora can be really helpful and effective. As a matter of fact,

an important teaching problem is grasping essential points in ESP courses which is an inseparable part of single teaching environments (Gavioli, 2005).

Due to the fact that different methodologies follow particular purposes, today attention to the methodology plays a really significant role in curriculum design or material design (López & Jiménez, 2010). López and Jiménez (2010) also state the considerable importance of materials and its effects on ESP teaching. They believe that materials should be authentic, up-to-date and relevant to the special needs of ESP learners. In fact, ESP materials-driven has been proposed and as a result the necessity to employ instructors who evaluate their course books carefully has been felt. Their criterion for this evaluation is how appropriate the materials are for the ESP students. There is no doubt that specificity is a significant feature of ESP research today. However, ESP field will have to consider English as an international language (Hinkel, 2005).

Students attend in ESP classes with some information about their specialist fields and also different ways of communication. Communication knowledge is considered really significant due to some reasons. Clearly, it means that ESP teachers can rely on their students when designing different activities especially communicative ones. So negotiation seems necessary in this condition. Cooperation between ESP teachers and learners can be seen when learners' specialist knowledge is employed as a learning resource. ESP teachers' role is prominent in helping learners to activate and build on their latent understandings in order to communicate their intentions (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

Numerous studies have been conducted on ESP-related issues. In some of them teaching methods used in ESP classes was the focus of attention (Yang et al., 1994), some considered different types of ESP courses or materials (Chang, 1992; Huang, 1997), some focused on the needs of the learners (Lee, 1998; Yang & Sue, 2003), whereas others discussed the learning strategies of ESP students (Hsu, 2008; Yang, 2005). Still so many other aspects are under research.

Suzani, Yarmohammadi and Yamini (2011) found that teaching materials and textbooks should be less wordy so they will be more interesting for the ESP learners. In addition, the physical shape of the textbooks, in general, and the presentation of materials and arrangement of activities, in particular, have to be considered two important factors which directly affect the students' interest and motivation (p. 197). Moreover, four basic skills of the language need enough attention and the exercises related to their improvement should be as authentic as possible. The style of the book and teaching style should support each other and ESP teachers have to be allowed to use their creativity as well. In order to make students less confused, vocabulary presentation and terminology should be taught in a really neat and compact way. In fact encouraging the learner autonomy also plays a leading part in ESP pedagogy.

Tsao, Wei and Fang (2008) investigated the perceptual similarities and differences between students and teachers with regard to the demand for ESP in vocational universities. Their findings showed that teachers and students agreed on the following: 1) for technological students, ESP seems essential; 2) before students start ESP learning, they require acceptable grounding in basic English skills; 3) training language communication skills as well as integrating terminology and subject content in to the course should be the focus of attention in ESP instruction; 4) ESP instructors should be proficient in English teaching and also the subject content knowledge; 5) some problems affect the effectiveness of both general English curricula and ESP negatively

Petrova (2008) considered objective and subjective needs analysis and concluded that ESP is a really valuable course for the college students. According to the findings of his research, at the beginning of the ESP course, some learner training activities must be included, because there are not any homogeneous groups and learners will have to work independently during the course. Since the course is really short, the best suggestion is teaching students different ways of improvement.

Through studying previous studies on ESP, one notices that, more studies are needed to enrich the literature. As a result, an attempt has been made in this study to fill the gaps in the previous literature.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

It is not evident if the ESP courses offered to the students at Iranian universities have seriously considered their specific needs. It is also questionable whether or not the technical English course presently offered at the Iranian universities is up-to-date and truly catered to students' needs. In fact, the method of teaching ESP may be outdated, which could bore or even insult the learners. Indeed, the traditional way of ESP instruction in limited hours is not pertinent to the current situation of ESP students. The ESP instruction has mostly focused on presenting special words, reading and translating numerous texts so, English is not used in communicative way during most of the lessons.

Actually, Iranian universities have not used special techniques to satisfy the needs of ESP learners. Students and teachers in Iran face some significant problems in using ESP such as: boredom, inactivity and low language proficiency, overcrowded classes, uninterested and demotivated students, communication problems, lack of opportunity to use that language in their daily lives and excessive use of translation activities in classes (Barjesteh & Shakeri, 2013).

Today, it is generally accepted that demands for wider access to education have made ESP classes more crowded than ever before and there are students with different proficiency levels which make language teaching really difficult. Although, the ESP courses are rather demanding, there does not seem to be any attempt to incorporate the use of communicative activities and most Iranian universities prefer to produce their own materials.

The medium of instruction at schools and even universities in Iran is the national language, Farsi. However, it seems necessary for university students to be able to read English language books, articles, journals, and Internet sources related to their fields of study (Barjesteh & Shakeri, 2013)

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The present research aimed at investigating the problems of Iranian ESP students at Iranian universities. It also makes researchers, teachers, textbook developers and policy makers cognizant of the fact that ESP program needs a lot of attention. Furthermore, it sheds light on identifying the language needs of ESP students at Iranian universities to find out to what extent these needs have a proper place in the syllabus design and material preparation

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

An attempt has been made in this study to seek appropriate answers to the following questions:

RQ1: In students' opinions, to what extent should English be used in ESP classes?

RQ2: What are the perceptions of ESP students regarding their needs in ESP courses?

RQ3: How do students evaluate their ESP instructors?

V. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Although there has been a lot of research focused on this topic, it is still one of the most challenging and controversial issues in our country. Therefore, the current study has investigated ESP learners' and teachers' perception of ESP program problems at Iranian universities. In fact, this issue is so urgent that it calls for effective investigation. Actually, careful examination of the expectations and perceptions of the ESP learners and instructors is seen to be important in determining the success of ESP courses. There can be a variety of solutions, with the ones suggested in this research among the most frequently implemented by ESP practice in the world. The findings of this study may be helpful for researchers, material designers, teachers and specially the ESP students.

VI. METHODOLOGY

This section presents the information about the participants, materials, data collection, and the method of analyzing the data.

A. Participants

Participants who were involved in this study consisted of 102 Iranian students (male and female) majoring in computer engineering, electronic engineering, and civil engineering, BSc level and the rationale was that these students had been exposed to the ESP program as a university requirement, thus, they were able to give feedback on the ESP course. They were between 19 and 25 years old. All of them were Persian L1 speakers.

B. Instruments

The main instrument, which was found appropriate for the purposes of the present research, was the questionnaire. To construct and develop the questionnaires, the following procedures were followed. First, a number of research studies related to ESP course was reviewed and then examples of some questionnaires were studied in order to have a guideline. Based on the information gathered and considering the purpose of the study and the research questions, the questionnaires were constructed. Content validity was established by asking four experts to give their opinions on the first draft of the questionnaire. They were experts in research methodology, text and discourse analysis, testing and phonology. They were asked to comment on the relevance of questions to the purpose of the questionnaire, possible wording and interpretation problems in questions and instructions, and on the type and order of questions. Based on the experts' opinions, the proportion of questions was reduced. Experts also expressed their concerns as regards the overall format of the questionnaire, which was addressed as well. Then, they were piloted on 30 ESP students to ascertain their reliability and applicability so they were analyzed for reliability value by using Cronbach alpha in SPSS program. The Cronbach alpha was frequently used to estimate reliability of questionnaires with rating scales. The result revealed that alpha reliability coefficient of the questionnaires was .85.

The ESP students were administered an anonymous questionnaire in Persian divided into four parts (see appendix A). The first section contains questions on biographical data including age, gender and major of the participants and their general opinions. The second section contained 15 questions reflecting ESP learners' needs and a 5- point Likert Scale ranged from *very strong need* to *very little need*. This section includes some items related to different skills such as vocabulary, grammar, reading comprehension and listening. Other items in this section are concerned with the qualities of ESP teachers' methodology, materials and also evaluation. The third section contained 15 questions reflecting ESP learners' attitudes and a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from *very good* to *poor*. It includes 4 items aiming at measuring the respondents' skills of vocabulary, grammar, reading comprehension and listening comprehension. Respondents evaluate ESP teachers in other 15 questions concerning instruction method, using visual materials, appropriate exercises, and assessment.

C. Procedure

To accomplish the purposes of this study, the following procedures were followed. The questionnaires were distributed among participants including ESP teachers and students while they were supported with any technical or non-technical information they demanded. It is worth mentioning that, since the average English proficiency of the students did not suffice to understand and respond to the questionnaires in its original language (English), they were translated into Persian so that students could thoroughly perceive the items and reflect on them. To guarantee a positive participation, the subjects were informed that their answers would be confidential and they would not be required to write or give their names at any stage of the study. Participants filled out the questionnaires. Questionnaires were administered by the researcher and learners and teachers were given instructions indicating that the survey was anonymous and for the purposes of finding out the problems of ESP learners. Moreover, the students were told that their answers and opinions would not affect their grades. Respondents were encouraged to ask questions at any time during the process.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS

Analyses of responses involved qualitative methods and descriptive statistics. The mean scores and standard deviations of the ratings given by the students and teachers, frequency and percentage were analyzed statistically through SPSS. The options for the five-point Likert scale were from 1 to 5 in the electronic format of the questionnaire, as the platform did not provide other possibilities. Therefore, scores had to be given different weight in order to make them as close to nominal data as possible for frequency and percentage.

VIII. RESULTS

Item 1 of the students' questionnaire sought to find out to what extent English should be used for class participation by students. Thirty-five students (34.7%) favored a moderate use of English, 33 of them (32.7%) said that the use of English in their ESP classes should be high, 14 (13.9%) respondents checked small, 11 students (10.9%) considered very high, and finally 8 students (7.9%) wanted the use of English for class participation to be very small. The information is displayed in the following table:

TABLE 1
THE STUDENTS' OPINION ON EXTENT TO WHICH ENGLISH SHOULD BE USED IN ESP CLASSES

	Frequency	Percentage
Very small extent	8	7.9
Small extent	14	13.9
Moderate	35	34.7
Great extent	33	32.7
Very great extent	11	10.9
Total	101	100

A. Addressing the Second Research Question

The next fifteen items in the questionnaire concerned the needs of the students in ESP classes. The following table summarizes the data obtained from this part of the questionnaire.

TABLE 2
THE FREQUENCY, PERCENTAGE, MEAN, AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE STUDENTS NEEDS IN ESP CLASSES
(VERY LOW = 1, LOW = 2, MODERATE = 3, HIGH = 4, AND VERY HIGH = 5)

No.	Needs description	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD
2.	Need to learn grammar	3 3%	11 10.9%	45 44.6%	31 30.7%	11 10.9%	3.55	.92
3.	Need to learn technical terms	- 0%	2 2%	15 14.9%	32 31.7%	52 51.5%	4.32	.80
4.	Need to have enough information about reading and comprehending specialized English texts	1 1%	9 8.9%	35 34.7%	37 36.6%	19 18.8%	3.63	.92
5.	Need to understand specialized conferences presented in English	- 0%	5 5%	39 38.6%	38 37.6%	19 18.8%	3.70	.83
6.	Need to have instructors who teach English in an understandable way	3 3%	3 3%	12 11.9%	31 30.7%	52 51.5%	4.24	.98
7.	Need to have access to reliable resources and books for teaching ESP	1 1%	5 5%	26 25.7%	40 39.6%	29 28.7%	3.90	.91
8.	Need to use appropriate audiovisual aids for teaching ESP	3 3%	14 13.9%	21 20.8%	31 30.7%	32 31.7%	3.74	1.13
9.	Need to have effective exercises conducive to learning	1 1%	3 3%	30 29.7%	40 39.6%	27 26.7%	3.88	.87
10.	Need to have instructors who pronounce words accurately	- 0%	3 3%	14 13.9%	48 37.6%	36 45.5%	4.25	.80
11.	Need to have instructors who teach grammar well	1 1%	8 7.9%	37 36.6%	30 29.7%	25 24.8%	3.69	.96
12.	Need to have instructors who teach vocabulary well	2 2%	7 6.9%	19 18.8%	41 40.6%	32 31.7%	3.93	.98
13.	Need to have instructors who adequately guide students in their ESP courses	- 0%	7 6.9%	24 23.8%	43 42.6%	27 26.7%	3.89	.88
14.	Need to have instructors who review the lessons regularly	2 2%	9 8.9%	39 38.6%	35 34.7%	16 15.8%	3.53	.93
15.	Need to have formative assessment	1 1%	12 11.9%	42 41.6%	32 31.7%	14 13.9%	3.45	.91
16.	Need to have instructors who, besides knowing English, know enough about the students' field of study	1 1%	5 5%	22 21.8%	32 31.7%	41 40.6%	4.05	.95

If it could be assumed that the mean score of the choices for each item is 3 (since $1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 / 5 = 3$), then it could be argued that all the questionnaire items from 2 to 16 have mean scores above 3, implying that the students have felt that all the propositions stated in these questionnaire items are needed in ESP classes. However, the students' needs have a degree. If the mean scores for the questionnaire items are arranged in a descending order, then the most urgent need would stand on the top of the list and the least important needs would follow.

B. Addressing the Third Research Question

The next eleven items in the questionnaire reflect the students' evaluations of their professors. The synopsis of the results for this part is displayed in the following table.

TABLE 3
THE FREQUENCY, PERCENTAGE, MEAN, AND STANDARD DEVIATION OF THE STUDENTS ATTITUDES ABOUT THEIR PROFESSORS
(VERY POOR = 1, POOR = 2, MODERATE = 3, GOOD = 4, AND VERY GOOD = 5)

No.	Students' attitudes and evaluations	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD
17.	Instructors teach in an understandable way.	4 4%	19 18.8%	38 37.6%	32 31.7%	8 7.9%	3.20	.97
18.	They use reliable books and sources.	6 5.9%	23 22.8%	44 43.6%	24 23.8%	4 4%	2.97	.93
19.	They utilize audiovisual aids.	42 41.6%	34 33.7%	15 14.9%	8 7.9%	2 2%	1.95	1.03
20.	They assign effective exercises which are conducive to learning.	21 20.8%	37 36.6%	31 30.7%	12 11.9%	- 0%	2.33	.94
21.	They pronounce words accurately.	2 2%	15 14.9%	36 35.6%	34 33.7%	14 13.9%	3.42	.97
22.	They give good explanations about the technical terms.	3 3%	9 8.9%	43 42.6%	40 39.6%	6 5.9%	3.36	.84
23.	They provide good grammatical explanations.	5 5%	15 14.9%	43 42.6%	32 31.7%	6 5.9%	3.18	.93
24.	They adequately guide the students in their ESP courses.	7 6.9%	24 23.8%	43 42.6%	19 18.8%	8 7.9%	2.97	1.01
25.	They regularly review the lessons.	11 10.9%	30 29.7%	32 31.7%	24 23.8%	4 4%	2.80	1.04
26.	They have formative assessment of the students.	15 14.9%	28 27.7%	38 37.6%	16 15.8%	4 4%	2.66	1.04
27.	They know about the students' field of study.	9 8.9%	19 18.8%	34 33.7%	29 28.7%	10 9.9%	3.11	1.10

The top quality of the ESP professors, as judged by their students, is that they pronounce words accurately ($M = 3.42$), followed by the fact that they provide good explanations about the technical terms ($M = 3.36$), they teach in an understandable way ($M = 3.20$), they provide good grammatical explanations ($M = 3.18$), and they know about the students' field of study ($M = 3.11$). The mean score of the other questionnaire items about the evaluation of professors fall below 3. This means that the students do not hold very high opinions about these issues: instructors guide their students in the ESP courses ($M = 2.97$); they use reliable books and sources ($M = 2.97$); they regularly review the lessons ($M = 2.80$); they have formative assessment of their students ($M = 2.66$); they assign effective exercises which are conducive to learning ($M = 2.33$); and they use audiovisual aids ($M = 1.95$).

IX. DISCUSSION

Item 1 of the students' questionnaire sought to find out to what extent English should be used for class participation by students. Most of the ESP learners favored moderate or high use of English in their ESP classes. In the same vein, Mazdayasna and Fazilatfar (2010) investigated Iranian ESP learners' and instructors' beliefs and attitudes concerning the use of native language and it was the result they stated : most of the students majoring in humanities, engineering and sciences as well as their teachers agreed with the use of L1 in particular situations as a kind of pedagogic device in order to teach different language functions : explaining the meaning of technical and semi-technical words, grammatical structures and difficult ideas or concepts, explaining the methodology and content of the text, giving instructions for tasks and exercises, teaching reading strategies, helping students feel more confident, correcting errors, checking students' comprehension of grammatical structures, checking the meaning of new words and content of the lesson and highlighting similarities and differences between L1 and L2 language forms.

In fact needs analysis is a kind of device which is helpful in establishing the *how* and *what* of a course. Needs is like an umbrella term including many aspects such as incorporating learners' goals and backgrounds, their language proficiencies, their reasons for taking the course, their teaching and learning preferences, and the situations they will need to communicate in . Different participants have different needs, so it is not easy to determine them (Hyland, 2006). That is why the next fifteen items in the questionnaire concerned the needs of the students in ESP classes. It could be argued that all the questionnaire items from 7 to 21 have mean scores above 3, implying that the students have felt that all the propositions stated in these questionnaire items are needed in ESP classes. This means that the student felt their needs could be arranged, from the most to the least important needs, in the following order: need to learn technical terms, have instructors with accurate pronunciations, have teachers who teach in an understandable way, have instructors who know enough about the students' field of study, have instructors who teach vocabulary well, have access to reliable sources and books, have teachers who adequately guide students in their ESP courses, have effective exercises conducive to learning, use audiovisual aids, understand the specialized conferences in English, have instructors who teach grammar well, have enough information for reading and comprehending ESP texts, have teachers who regularly review the lessons, have formative assessment, and finally need to learn grammar. Zhang (2013) states that one of the important characteristics of ESP teachers is having enough information in these two fields: advanced level of English and professional knowledge and experience. ESP teachers are demanded who are proficient in professional training, the employment organizations and guidance. Teachers with these features can prepare students for the skills in related fields. They can guide ESP learners to practice related activities as well.

The next eleven items in the questionnaire reflect the students' evaluations of their professors. The mean score of some of the questionnaire items about the evaluation of professors fall below 3. This means that the students do not hold very high opinions about these issues: instructors guide their students in the ESP courses ($M = 2.97$); they use reliable books and sources ($M = 2.97$); they regularly review the lessons ($M = 2.80$); they have formative assessment of their students ($M = 2.66$); they assign effective exercises which are conducive to learning ($M = 2.33$); and they use audiovisual aids ($M = 1.95$).

Alibakhshi, Ghand Ali and Padiz (2011) put their effort into reviewing teaching and testing in ESP program planning. The results of their study showed that a successful ESP teacher must possess general qualifications of a good teacher as well as enough information related to principles of adult learning. A successful ESP teacher should make an attempt to develop all various components of ESP program, should try hard to get information about the discourse and content of the subject matter which s/he is supposed to teach in order to have meaningful communication. Involving a total innovation in academic test while considering both functions and forms is really necessary. Portfolio assessment can be a good approach to testing in ESP program instead of traditional ones.

X. CONCLUSION

Currently, English is considered an indispensable part to the higher education in Iran. The historical overview suggests that the role and status of English in Iran have reached unprecedented heights, although fundamental problems remain. The present study has investigated some of these problems in universities. Concerning the goals of study and the research questions, the following results were obtained.

1. It seems necessary for university students to be able to read English language books, articles, journals, and Internet sources related to their fields of study so it seems necessary to consider English as the significant medium of instruction at schools and even universities.
2. ESP instructors have a vital role in conducting ESP classes.
3. In ESP classes using reliable books and sources have not received enough attention and ESP learners favored effective exercises which are conducive to learning.
4. ESP learners and teachers favored using audiovisual aids in their classes.
5. Reviewing the lessons, formative assessments of the students seem really helpful in ESP classes.
6. Increasing the time of ESP classes leads to better syllabus design.

XI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study offers a number of implications for classroom teaching, ESP teachers, researchers and material designers. First, most of the students favored a moderate or even high use of English in their ESP classes. Clearly, it means that ESP teachers can rely on their students when designing different activities especially communicative ones. In order to provide an appropriate design, any type of syllabus or methodology might be applied, but, due to the time restrictions, a task-based and communicative approach is suggested (Byram, 2004). Owing to the fact that most of the ESP learners are considered as pre-intermediate or intermediate, a task-based and communicative approach is applicable.

Needs analysis is the foundation of ESP resulting in a very focused ESP course (Liu, 2007). ESP learners also appeared to significantly grasp the overall characteristics of their teachers. They need instructors who teach in an understandable way, know enough about the students' field of study, teach vocabulary well, have access to reliable sources and books, adequately guide students in their ESP courses, organize effective exercises conducive to learning, teach grammar well and regularly review the lessons.

The results of this study revealed that visual aids are not used adequately in ESP classes. In the past, pictures and images were used but nowadays they do not seem to be suitable in order to make ESP learners motivated. In order to make students interested and active, using computers and advertising can be highly effective (Fernández, 2001).

APPENDIX A. STUDENTS' QUESTIONNAIRE

دانشجوی ارجمند سلام

ازاینکه پاسخگویی و تکمیل این پرسشنامه را پذیرفته اید، صمیمانه سپاسگزارم. این پرسشنامه جهت انجام پژوهشی برای پایان نامه تحصیلی در مقطع کارشناسی ارشد تهیه شده است. هدف پژوهش رسیدن به نتایج روشنی در ارتباط با مشکلات آموزشی دانشجویان رشته های مختلف، در درس زبان تخصصی است. همکاری شما کمک موثری برای پیشبرد این پژوهش خواهد بود. بدیهی است، پاسخ شما کاملاً محرمانه خواهد ماند نظر خود را در ارتباط با موارد زیر با علامت ✓ مشخص کنید.

با احترام
لطفاً این قسمت را کامل کنید.

رشته ی تحصیلی:

سن:

جنسیت:

1. در طول کلاس زبان تخصصی، برای مشارکت در فعالیت های کلاسی، تا چه حدی باید از زبان انگلیسی استفاده شود؟

خیلی زیاد ☐ زیاد ☐ متوسط ☐ کم ☐
خیلی کم ☐

نیازهای دانشجویان در درس زبان تخصصی :

لطفاً نظر خود را در ارتباط با موارد زیر با علامت ✓ مشخص کنید.

2. نیاز به یادگیری گرامر (Grammar) زبان انگلیسی
نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم ☐
3. نیاز به یادگیری لغات تخصصی (Vocabulary) در رشته ی تحصیلی خود به زبان انگلیسی
نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم ☐
4. نیاز به اطلاعات کافی در زمینه ی درک مطلب (Comprehension) متون تخصصی زبان انگلیسی
نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم ☐
5. درک مطالب سینه‌اره‌ای تخصصی مرتبط با رشته ی شما که به زبان انگلیسی ارائه می شوند.
نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم ☐
6. نیاز به اساتیدی که درس زبان تخصصی را به روش قابل فهم تدریس کنند.
نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم ☐
7. نیاز به کتابها و مراجع معتبر جهت تدریس زبان تخصصی.
نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم ☐
8. نیاز به استفاده از وسایل سمعی و بصری مناسب برای تدریس زبان تخصصی.
نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم ☐
9. نیاز به انجام تمریناتی در زمینه ی زبان تخصصی که دانشجویان را به روش موثری، به هدف یادگیری، برساند.
نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم ☐
10. نیاز به اساتیدی که زبان انگلیسی را با تلفظ صحیح صحبت کنند.
نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم ☐

11. نیاز به اساتیدی که گرامر درس زبان انگلیسی را به خوبی توضیح دهند.
☐ نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم
12. نیاز به اساتیدی که لغات درس زبان انگلیسی را به خوبی توضیح دهند.
☐ نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم
13. نیاز به اساتیدی که به اندازه ی کافی دانشجویان را در درس زبان تخصصی راهنمایی کنند.
☐ نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم
14. نیاز به اساتیدی که به طور متناوب به مرور مطالب در درس زبان تخصصی می پردازند.
☐ نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم
15. نیاز به ارزیابی های متناوب در طول دوره از دانشجویان
☐ نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم
16. نیاز به اساتیدی که علاوه بر زبان انگلیسی، در زمینه ی رشته ی تحصیلی شما نیز اطلاعات کافی داشته باشند.
☐ نیاز بسیار زیاد ☐ نیاز زیاد ☐ نیاز در حد متوسط ☐ نیاز کم
- اگر در زمینه ی نیازهای دانشجویان در درس زبان تخصصی موردی وجود دارد که در سوالات گنجانده نشده، در این قسمت یاد داشت فرمایید.

دانشجوی عزیز شما اساتید خود را در موارد زیر چگونه ارزیابی میکنید؟

17. اساتید، درس زبان تخصصی را به روش قابل فهم تدریس میکنند.
☐ بسیار خوب ☐ خوب ☐ متوسط ☐ ضعیف
18. اساتید درس زبان تخصصی از کتابها و مراجع معتبر و مناسب برای تدریس استفاده میکنند.
☐ بسیار خوب ☐ خوب ☐ متوسط ☐ ضعیف
19. اساتید درس زبان تخصصی از وسایل سمعی و بصری مناسب برای تدریس استفاده میکنند.
☐ بسیار خوب ☐ خوب ☐ متوسط ☐ ضعیف
20. تمرینات مناسبی در زمینه ی زبان تخصصی که دانشجویان را به روش موثر، به هدف یادگیری، می رساند، انجام میشود.
☐ بسیار خوب ☐ خوب ☐ متوسط ☐ ضعیف
21. اساتید، درس زبان تخصصی را با تلفظ صحیح صحبت میکنند.
☐ بسیار خوب ☐ خوب ☐ متوسط ☐ ضعیف
22. اساتید لغات درس زبان تخصصی را به خوبی توضیح می دهند.
☐ بسیار خوب ☐ خوب ☐ متوسط ☐ ضعیف
23. اساتید گرامر درس زبان تخصصی را به خوبی توضیح می دهند.
☐ بسیار خوب ☐ خوب ☐ متوسط ☐ ضعیف
24. اساتید به اندازه ی کافی دانشجویان را در درس زبان تخصصی راهنمایی کنند.
☐ بسیار خوب ☐ خوب ☐ متوسط ☐ ضعیف
25. اساتید به طور متناوب به مرور مطالب در درس زبان تخصصی می پردازند.
☐ بسیار خوب ☐ خوب ☐ متوسط ☐ ضعیف

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A Parallel Corpus-based Study of Interpersonal Metaphors in *Hong Lou Meng* and Their Translations^{*}

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Abstract—*Hong Lou Meng* portrays unforgettable characters by various usages of grammatical metaphors in characters' utterances. As the founder of systemic-functional linguistics, Halliday claims that the grammatical metaphors exert great impact on the conveyance of meaning in text. This study sets out to compare and contrast the interpersonal metaphors and their English translations in Chinese-English parallel corpus of *Hong Lou Meng* from the perspectives of mood metaphor and modality metaphor based on the theory of interpersonal metaphor in systemic functional linguistics. Through qualitative analysis of these metaphors, the difference between Chinese and English interpersonal metaphors in depicting characters and the translation style in each version of *Hong Lou Meng* are revealed. Then readers can have a better understanding of the characters' attitude, opinions and their interpersonal relationship in Chinese and English *Hong Lou Meng*.

Index Terms—interpersonal metaphors, *Hong Lou Meng*, grammatical metaphor, mood metaphor, modality metaphor

I. INTRODUCTION

Hong Lou Meng or *A Dream of Red Mansions* is not only a great Chinese novel but also a gem of world literature. *Hong Lou Meng* portrays unforgettable characters by various usages of grammatical metaphors in characters' utterances (Li, 2012). Systemic functional linguists claims that the grammatical metaphors exert great impact on the conveyance of meaning in text.

As the founder of systemic-functional linguistics, Halliday claims that grammatical metaphor refers to a metaphorical expression of a meaning through a lexico-grammatical form and it describes the incongruity of meaning and form at the grammatical level (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2008). Interpersonal grammatical metaphor and ideational grammatical metaphor are two main categories in grammatical metaphor. Interpersonal metaphor is the incongruent expression of the realization of interpersonal functions. Therefore, the interpersonal metaphors in original Chinese *Hong Lou Meng* have great impact on the conveyance of interpersonal meaning in source text. The key of translating these interpersonal metaphors is to functionally and adequately render the interpersonal functions connoted in original Chinese interpersonal metaphors.

Based on the theory of interpersonal metaphor in systemic functional linguistics, this study sets out to compare and contrast the interpersonal metaphors and their English translations in Chinese-English parallel corpus of *Hong Lou Meng* from the perspectives of mood metaphor and modality metaphor. Then the study intends to summarize the translation style in each English version of *Hong Lou Meng*. The corpus consists of the 120-chapter Chinese texts and its three representative English versions. The three best-known English versions chosen are *The Story of the Stone* (1973-86) by David Hawkes and John Minford (hereinafter referred to as Hawkes), *Hong Lou Meng* (1892-93) by Bencraft Joly (hereinafter referred to as Joly) and *A Dream of Red Mansions* (2003) by Yang Xianyi and Gladys Yang (hereinafter referred to as the Yangs).

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In Systemic Functional Linguistics, Halliday (1978) claims that language not only represents reality referentially through its words and structures but also represents reality metaphorically through its own internal and external form.

Grammatical metaphors are classified into interpersonal grammatical metaphor and ideational grammatical metaphor, related to interpersonal function and ideational function in language respectively.

Interpersonal grammatical metaphor is embodied on system of modality and system of mood. Therefore, it can be further classified into two kinds according to the semantic function: modality metaphor and mood metaphor. Modality refers to "a mood system in which a language user can intrude on his/her message, expressing attitudes and judgment of various kinds" (Suzanne, 1994, p. 179). As regards metaphor of modality, Halliday claims that "the explicitly subjective and explicitly objective forms of modality are all strictly speaking metaphorical, since all of them represent the

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modality as being substantive proposition" (Halliday, 1994, p. 362). Metaphors of modality can also be realized through expression of nominalization. Thompson claims that nominalization is "not one but two steps away from the most congruent wording" (Thompson, 2008, p. 234). Mood is "the system for symbolic exchange of commodities between speaker and listeners" (Fan, 2001, p. 110). Mood expresses the speech functions. Metaphors of mood embody compound of speech function. In the metaphorical realization of mood, "the meaning comes from the combination of both form and function" (Thompson, 2008, p. 231). The metaphorical realization of speech functions makes it possible to expand the realization of speech functions.

III. DISCUSSION OF INTERPERSONAL METAPHORS IN *HONG LOU MENG* AND THEIR ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS

A. Discussion of Mood Metaphors in *Hong Lou Meng* and Their English Translations

In Halliday's view, mood can be classified into indicative and imperative mood, the indicative mood can further be divided into declarative and interrogative. Mood performs the basic speech functions: statement, command, offer and question. Metaphor of mood refers to the remapping between moods and speech functions which are associated with the exchange system of language. Some functions are metaphorically realized by different mood. The complicated interpersonal relationship in *Hong Lou Meng* is constructed through mood system in language. There are various ways to translate the original interpersonal meaning through the mood system. The difference between Chinese and English mood metaphors in depicting characters and the translation style in each version of *Hong Lou Meng* is illustrated in the following two examples.

(1) **HLM:** [宝玉]说道: "你又做什么跑来! 虽说太阳落下去, 那地上的余热未散, 走两趟又要受了暑。我虽然捱了打, 并不觉疼痛。我这个样儿, 只装出来哄他们, 好在外头布散与老爷听, 其实是假的。你不可认真。"此时林黛玉虽不是嚎啕大哭, 然越是这等无声之泣, 气噎喉堵, 更觉得利害。听了宝玉这番话, 心中虽然有万句言语, 只是不能说得, 半日, 方抽抽噎噎的说道: "你从此可都改了罢!" 宝玉听说, 便长叹一声, 道: "你放心, 别说这样的话。就便为这些人死了, 也是情愿的!" (Cao & Gao, 2000, p. 450-451)

Hawkes: [Baoyu] said. "Now what have you come for?" he said. "The sun's not long set and the ground must still be very hot underfoot. You could still get a heat-stroke at this time of day, and that would be a fine how do you do. Actually, in spite of the beating, I do n't feel very much pain. This fuss I make is put on to fool the others. I'm hoping they'll spread the word around outside how badly I've been hurt, so that Father gets to hear of it. It's all shamming, really. You must n't be taken in by it." Dai-yu's sobbing had by this time ceased to be audible; but somehow her strangled, silent weeping was infinitely more pathetic than the most clamorous grief. At that moment volumes would have been inadequate to contain the things she wanted to say to him; yet all she could get out, after struggling for some time with her choking sobs, was: "I suppose you'll change now." Bao-yu gave a long sigh. "Do n't worry, I shall not change. People like that are worth dying for. I would n't change if he killed me." (Hawkes, 1973, p. 159)

Joly: [Baoyu] asked. "What do you once more come here for?" "The sun, it is true, has set; but the heat remaining on the ground has n't yet gone, so you may, by coming over, get another sunstroke. Of course, I've had a thrashing but I do n't feel any pains or aches. If I behave in this fashion, it's all put on to work upon their credulity, so that they may go and spread the reports outside in such a way as to reach my father's ear. Really it's all sham; so you must n't treat it as a fact!" If I behave in this fashion, it's all put on to work upon their credulity, so that they may go and spread the reports outside in such a way as to reach my father's ear. Really it's all sham; so you must n't treat it as a fact!" Though Lin Tai-yu was not giving way at the time to any wails or loud sobs, yet the more she indulged in those suppressed plaints of hers, the worse she felt her breath get choked and her throat obstructed; so that when Pao-yu's assurances fell on her ear, she could not express a single sentiment, though she treasured thousands in her mind. It was only after a long pause that she at last could observe, with agitated voice: Though Lin Tai-yu was not giving way at the time to any wails or loud sobs, yet the more she indulged in those suppressed plaints of hers, the worse she felt her breath get choked and her throat obstructed; so that when Pao-yu's assurances fell on her ear, she could not express a single sentiment, though she treasured thousands in her mind. It was only after a long pause that she at last could observe, with agitated voice: "You must after this turn over a new leaf." At these words, Pao-yu heaved a deep sigh. He urged. "Compose your mind, "Do n't speak to me like this; for I am quite prepared to even lay down my life for all those persons!" (Joly, 1892, p. 551)

The Yangs: [Baoyu] said. "You should n't have come," "Though the sun's set, the ground is still hot. Walking here and back may make you unwell again. I'm not in any pain after my beating, just putting on an act to fool them so that word of it will get out to my father. I'm shamming actually. Do n't you worry about me. Daiyu was not crying aloud. She swallowed her tears in silence till she felt as if she would choke. She had a thousand replies to make to Baoyu, but not one word could she utter. At long last she sobbed: "Never do such things again." replied Baoyu with a long sigh. "Do n't you worry," "Please do n't talk this way. I would die happily for people like them, and I'm still alive." (The Yangs, 2003, p. 669)

The example (1) is extracted from the scenario in which Baoyu takes a beating from his father Jia Zheng. In this scenario there are four interlocutors: Baoyu, Xiren, Baochai and Daiyu. The three people respectively visit Baoyu who takes a beating from Jia Zheng. Through the analysis of the mood metaphor in the scenario, the relationship between Baoyu and Daiyu is vividly revealed. The main reason of beating Baoyu is his unwillingness to follow the official

career set by Jia Zheng. Jia Zheng is a disciplinarian and Confucian scholar; therefore he imposes strict rules on his son. The unwillingness is contrary to Jia Zheng's expectations of restructuring family business. The confrontation reflects the sharp ideological conflicts between father and son. Jia Zheng almost put his son to death, such behavior conveys the conservative orthodoxy's extreme hatred of rebellious consciousness (Xu, 2010). But Baoyu does not give up his pursuit of ideals and freedom. Therefore Baoyu said: “就便为这些人死了，也是情愿的。(I am quite prepared to even lay down my life for all those persons!)”.

Seeing Daiyu's two eyes so swollen, as to look as big as peaches, and her face glistening all over with tears, Baoyu firstly heaves a sigh with a shout of “Ai-yo”, and then reproaches Daiyu with the interrogative clause “你又做什么来了！”. The surface meaning of the clause expresses Baoyu's reproach to Daiyu's coming, but the term of address “你” reveals the intimate relationship between Baoyu and Daiyu.

Mood metaphor is the inconsistency between speech roles and mood choices. In the Chinese text, the congruent expression of command “你不应该来这里” is expressed with an interrogative metaphorical clause “你又做什么来了！”. In the Yangs' version, the congruent form of imperative clause “You should n't have come” is used to translate the command, the mood metaphor is not employed. Then the intimate relationship between Baoyu and Daiyu is ignored by the imperative clause. The Yangs' version ignores the mood metaphor in the original Chinese clause. While in both Hawkes and Joly's versions, metaphorical forms of interrogative clause are used to reveal the intimate relationship. The surface meaning of interrogative clause is to reproach Daiyu's coming, but the intended meaning of the clause is to display Baoyu's love and care. The sun is not long set, but the heat remaining on the ground has not yet gone. Walking here and back may make Daiyu unwell again. Through these utterances, Baoyu is concerned with Daiyu's physical condition. Moreover, Baoyu's pretence of feeling any pains is to fool his father. From the perspective of psychological emotion, Baoyu is concerned with Daiyu's spiritual condition. Baoyu moves his Cousin Daiyu by affection and Daiyu loves Baoyu with extreme affection (Chang, 1993).

In Chinese *Hong Lou Meng*, the most frequently used modal particles are “呢”, “么”, “罢”, etc. and their functions are to express the different mood of the clause. In Chinese language, the realization of mood metaphor is realized through modal particles (Yang, 2009, p. 26). In the Chinese example, the realization of mood metaphor “你从此可都改了罢！” is dependent on the modal particle “罢” at the end of the imperative clause. The modal particle “罢” transforms the mood of imperative into the mood of consultation. The meaning of modal particle “的” equals to “it is a fact that...”, expressing the modal meaning of high value probability. The modal particle “的” in the structure “是...的” conveys Baoyu's attitude of high value probability which is achieved through the modal particle “的” at the end of the clause.

In the Yangs and Joly's versions, no mood metaphor is employed to achieve the equivalence between the target clause and the source one which contains the metaphorical form. Imperative clauses are used to display Daiyu's reaction to Baoyu's beating. In Joly's version, high value modal verb “must” carries high obligation. Such usages contain the compelling tone. Consequently the intimate relationship between Baoyu and Daiyu is ignored. While in Hawkes' version, the usage of “I suppose” euphemistically implies Daiyu's request, displaying their intimate relationship. The address “你” in Daiyu's unique utterance echoes with Baoyu's usage of the address term. Among the three English versions, both Hawkes' and Joly's version use the address term “you”. The median value modal verb “可” means “可以”, “应当”, connoting the tone of consultation. In Hawkes' version, the median value modal verb “will” achieves the equivalence between the source clause and the target one, indicating Daiyu's understanding and consideration for Baoyu's feelings. While in Joly's version the high value modal verb “must” connotes the compelling meaning.

(2) **HLM**: 凤姐凑趣笑道: “一个老祖宗给孩子们作生日, 不拘怎样, 谁还敢争, 又办什么酒戏。既高兴要热闹, 就说不得自己花上几两。巴巴的找出这霉烂的二十两银子来作东道, 这意思还叫我赔上。果然拿不出来也罢了, 金的, 银的, 圆的, 扁的, 压塌了箱子底, 只是勒掯我们。举眼看看, 谁不是儿女? 难道将来只有宝兄弟顶了你老人家上五台山不成? 那些梯己只留与他, 我们如今虽不配使, 也别苦了我们。这个够酒的? 够戏的?”说的满屋里都笑起来。(Cao & Gao, 2000, p. 292)

Hawkes: Xi-feng made this the occasion for a little raillery. She said, “If **the old lady** says she wants her grandchild's birthday celebrated, then celebrated it must be, and we must all jump to it without arguing! But if she's going to start asking for plays as well, all I can say to that is that if she's in the mood for a bit of fun, I'm afraid she's going to have to pay for it. She's going to have to cough up something out of those private savings of hers she's been hoarding all these years-not wait until the last minute and then fish out a measly little twenty taels to pay for the party: that's just another way of telling us we've got to pay for it ourselves. I mean, if you were really hard up, it would be another matter: but you've got boxes and boxes of boodle-the bottoms are dropping out of them, they're so fall! It's pure meanness, that's what it is! **You've got other grandchildren too, do n't forget!** You forget, Grannie, **when you go to heaven young Bao-yu wo n't be the only one who'll walk ahead of the hearse.** You do n't have to leave everything to him. The rest of us may not be much use, but you must n't be too hard on us. Twenty taels! Do you really think that's enough to pay for a party and plays? Twenty taels! **Do you really think that's enough to pay for a party and plays?** At this point the entire company burst into laughter, which Grandmother Jia joined in herself.” she said. (Hawkes, 1973, p. 432)

Joly: Lady Feng thereupon smiled and ventured, with a view to enhancing her good cheer, “**A venerable senior** like yourself, is at liberty to celebrate the birthday of a child in any way agreeable to you, without any one presuming to raise any objection; but what’s the use again of giving a banquet? But since it be your good pleasure and your purpose to have it celebrated with élat, you could, needless to say, your own self have spent several taels from the private funds in that old treasury of yours! But you now produce those twenty taels, spoiled by damp and mould, to play the hostess with, with the view indeed of compelling us to supply what’s wanted! But had n’t you really been able to contribute any more, no one would have a word to say; but the gold and silver, round as well as flat, have with their heavy weight pressed down the bottom of the box! and your sole object is to harass us and to extort from us. **But raise your eyes and look about you; who is n’t your venerable ladyship’s son and daughter? and is it likely, pray, that in the future there will only be cousin Pao-yu to carry you, our old lady, on his head, up the Wu T’ai Shan?** You may keep all these things for him alone! but though we may n’t at present, deserve that anything should be spent upon us, you should n’t go so far as to place us in any perplexities (by compelling us to subscribe). **And is this now enough for wines, and enough for the theatricals?”** (Joly, 1892, p. 348)

The Yangs: Xifeng teased, “When **an Old Ancestress** wants to celebrate some grandchild’s birthday, no matter how grandly, who are we to protest? So there’s to be a feast and opera too, is there? Well, if you want it to be lively you’ll have to pay for it yourself instead of trying to play host with a moldy twenty taels. I suppose you expect me to make up the rest? If you really could n’t afford it, all right. But your cases are bursting with gold and silver ingots of every shape and size the bottoms of the chests are dropping out, they’re so full. Yet you’re still squeezing us. **Look, are n’t all of us your children? Is Baoyu the only one who’ll carry you as an immortal on his head to Mount Wutai, that you keep everything for him?** Even if the rest of us are n’t good enough, do n’t be so hard on us. **Is this enough for a feast or theatricals?”** The whole company burst out laughing. (The Yangs, 2003, p. 423-424)

Talking about the other grandchild, Wang Xifeng’s utterance actually concerns about Lady Dowager in the example (2). Wang Xifeng is one of the most outstanding characters and one of the members of “the Twelve Beauties of Jin Ling” in *Hong Lou Meng*. She is the most powerful woman of the Jia Clan, after Grandmother Jia and Lady Wang. On the one hand, the author of HLM portrays Wang Xifeng as a clever and capable hostess with the ability of dealing with people and things well; on the other hand, she is portrayed as a greedy and arrogant master with super power in the Rong mansion (Li & Li, 2011). “Hating and cursing Xifeng, you may miss Xifeng when she is absent” (Wang, 2004, p. 152). Lady Dowager has the highest status in the Rong mansion. Lady Dowager is superordinate to Wang Xifeng.

Mood metaphor is used in the clause “难道将来只有宝兄弟顶了你老人家上五台山不成?” (Cao & Gao, 2000, p. 292). Through the usage of mood metaphor, Wang Xifeng pretends to complain Lady Dowager but to compliment her. In Joly’s and the Yangs’ versions, metaphorical clauses are used to reveal Wang Xifeng’s talent and smartness on communicative skills with the aim of flattering Lady Dowager. While in Hawkes’ version, the tone of compelling is imposed by the high value modal verb “won’t” in imperative clause. The flatter in an insincere way can make Lady Dowager happier than a normal compliment. She exaggerates Lady Dowager’s stinginess in order to delight Lady Dowager.

In different situational context, the interpersonal interaction leads to the deviation of mood choices. Therefore, mood metaphor plays a significant role in interpersonal interaction. In the Chinese text, the congruent declarative clause “举眼看看，我们都是儿女” is expressed with an interrogative metaphorical clause “举眼看看，谁不是儿女?”. Wang Xifeng and Lady Dowager share family relationship. Wang Xifeng is worldly and tactful, she is able to flatter Lady Dowager and the other powerful ladies within the family. The surface meaning of the mood metaphor clause is to reproach and query Lady Dowager about her attitude towards grandchild. But she knows that Lady Dowager enjoys having a jolly and relaxed time. A not-so-well educated upper-class woman, Wang Xifeng is also known as “Peppercorn Feng” or “Hot Pepper”. Her nickname “Fiery Phoenix” reveals her spicy disposition. Therefore, her spicy disposition is embodied by her spicy temper. She is the most cynical and pungent master in the whole mansion (Chen & Zhang, 2006). It is the language used by Wang Xifeng that makes Lady Dowager’s life more fun. She is expert in flattering Lady Dowager. So Wang Xifeng blames Lady Dowager with real intension to increase the affection with Lady Dowager. In Hawkes’ version, the declarative clause “You’ve got other grandchildren too, do n’t forget!” is employed to translate the congruent form of the original clause, then the metaphorical meaning is lost and the speech function is not faithful to the original clause. While in Joly’s and the Yangs’ versions, interrogative clauses are used to translate the mood metaphor of the original clause, connoting the intended intension to retain and increase their intimate relationship. Then the speech function is faithful to the original text. Equivalence of translation is achieved in these two versions. Translators approximately convey the interpersonal function of the original text. Wang Xifeng’s arrogance and snobbishness are vividly displayed.

“凑趣” in original text presents Wang Xifeng’s speaking tone with the aim of delighting Lady Dowager. In Hawkes’ and the Yangs’ version, “teased” and “raillery” are used to present Wang Xifeng’s tone in the translation. While in Joly’s version, the word “ventured” lengths the relationship between Wang Xifeng and Lady Dowager, and violates Xifeng’s original attitude.

The term of address performs the interpersonal function. The usage of the term of address reflects the status, identity of speakers and listeners. The term of address is essential mean of conveying interpersonal function of language (Hong, 2001). The term of address “老祖宗” reflects Lady Dowager’s super power in the whole mansion. Wang Xifeng

addresses Lady Dowager as “老祖宗” to show her respect towards Lady Dowager. In Joly’s version, this address is translated as “senior” which lengthens the relationship between Wang Xifeng and Lady Dowager. While “an old ancestress” in the Yangs’ version is faithful to the original both in form and interpersonal function. The term of address “宝兄弟” indicate such intimate relationship. Among the English versions, the word “cousin” in Joly’s version equivalently expresses the intimate relationship. While in the other two versions, Wang Xifeng’s relation to Baoyu by blood and by marriage is not displayed functionally and equivalently.

B. Discussion of Modality Metaphors in *Hong Lou Meng* and Their English Translations

Systemic functional linguistics claims that modality is one of the means of expressing interpersonal function of language. Modality in language displays the speakers’ social status, attitudes, responsibility, commitment, etc. The complicated interpersonal relationship in *Hong Lou Meng* is also constructed through modality system in language. There are various ways to translate the original interpersonal meaning through the modality system. The difference between Chinese and English modality metaphors in depicting characters and the translation style in each version of *Hong Lou Meng* is illustrated in the following example.

(3) **HLM:** 黛玉叹道：“你（宝钗）素日待人，固然是极好的，然我最是个多心的人，只当你心里藏奸。从前日你说看杂书不好，又劝我那些好话，竟大感激你。往日竟是我错了，实在误到如今。细细算来，我母亲去世的早，又无姊妹兄弟，我长了今年十五岁，竟没一个人像你前日的话教导我。怨不得云丫头说你好了，我往日见他赞你，我还不受用，昨儿我亲自经过，才知道了。比如若是你说了那个，我再不轻放过你的，你竟不介意，反劝我那些话，可知我竟自误了。”(Cao & Gao, 2000, p. 606)

Hawkes: Dai-yu sighed again. She said, “You’re such a kind person, but I’ve got such a suspicious nature that in the past I always suspected that your kindness was a cloak for something and rejected it. It was n’t until the other day, when you told me off for reading forbidden books and offered me all that good advice, that I ever felt really grateful to you. I realized then that I had all along been wrong about you—right from the very start. I suddenly realized: I’m fifteen this year and have no brothers or sisters: ever since my mother died there has been no one—literally no one—who has ever spoken to me in that sort of way. I’m not surprised Cousin Yun speaks so highly of you. I used to hate it when I heard her praise your kindness, but since experiencing it myself, I know what she means. If it had been you who’d said those things in the drinking game, I should have been quite merciless. I should never have kept quiet about it at the time and gently remonstrated about it later, when we were alone together, as you did **I knew from that that I had been wrong about you**, and that you must really care for me.” (Hawkes, 1973, p. 397)

Joly: “You’ve certainly always treated people with extreme consideration,” sighed Tai-yu, “but such a supremely suspicious person am I that I imagined that you inwardly concealed some evil design! Yet ever since the day on which you represented to me how unwholesome it was to read obscene books, and you gave me all that good advice, I’ve felt most grateful to you! I’ve hitherto, in fact, been mistaken in my opinion; and the truth of the matter is that I remained under this misconception up to the very present. But you must carefully consider that when my mother died, I had n’t even any sisters or brothers; and that up to this my fifteenth year there has never been a single person to admonish me as you did the other day. Little wonder is it if that girl Yun speaks well of you! Whenever, in former days, I heard her heap praise upon you, I felt uneasy in my mind, but, after my experiences of yesterday, I see how right she was. When you, for instance, began to tell me all those things, I did n’t forgive you at the time, but, without worrying yourself in the least about it you went on, contrariwise, to tender me the advice you did. **This makes it evident that I have labored under a mistaken idea!**” (Joly, 1892, p. 754)

The Yangs: “How good you always are to others!” Daiyu exclaimed with a sigh. “I’m so touchy that I used to suspect your motives. I really began to appreciate you that day when you warned me against indiscriminate reading and gave me such good advice. I can see now I’d misjudged you all along. My mother died early and I’ve no sisters or brothers so, come to think of it, in all my fifteen years no one ever advised me as you did the other day. No wonder Xiangyun speaks so highly of you. I used to be skeptical when she sang your praises, but not after my own recent experience. For instance, when you said anything I always answered back, but instead of taking offence you offered me good advice. **That showed that I’d been wrong.**” (The Yangs, 2003, p. 912)

The example (3) is extracted from the scenario in which Xue Baochai comes to visit sick Lin Daiyu who expresses her appreciation to Xue Baochai. In the Chinese text, the clause “可知我竟自误了。” is a modality metaphor which achieves the metaphorical probability realization. “In order to state explicitly that probability is subjective, or alternatively, at the other hand, to claim explicitly that the probability is objective, the speaker construes the proposition as a projection and encodes the subjectivity (I think), or the objectivity (it is likely), in a projecting clause” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2008, p. 615). The way of expressing modality in the Chinese clause is explicit objectivity which emphasizes the objectivity of Lin Daiyu’s judgment. Lin Daiyu is portrayed as an aloof, well-educated and beautiful character in *Hong Lou Meng*. She defends her characters and integrity forever (Zhang, 2009). Despite her dependency on Lady Dowager for her living, Lin Daiyu refuses to yield to the Confucian ethics. Lin Daiyu’s personality is such a match with that of Jia Baoyu who is having little interest in learning the Confucian classics and enjoying reading or writing poetry with numerous female characters. Increasingly Lin Daiyu and Jia Baoyu become fond of each other. But Xue Baochai is deeply involved in Lin Daiyu and Jia Baoyu’s love. Therefore Lin Daiyu and Xue Baochai are probably conceived as foils to each other. The surface meaning of the Chinese modality metaphor is to express her appreciation

to Xue Baochai, in fact, the intended meaning is to express Lin Daiyu's jealousy because Xue Baochai is liked by all the mistresses and servants of the whole mansion. Though modality metaphors are used to translate the original metaphorical clause in the three English versions, the metaphor "I knew from that" in Hawkes' version is explicit subjectivity which denotes a psychological process. The process connotes the subjectivity which violates with the objective Chinese clause. The Yangs' and Joly's versions are faithful to the original Chinese clause both in form and interpersonal function. "That showed" and "This makes it evident" in the clauses make Lin Daiyu's judgment objective, and the explicit objectivity reveals her jealousy.

IV. CONCLUSION

Based on the theory of interpersonal metaphor in systemic functional linguistics, this study sets out to compare and contrast the interpersonal metaphors and their English translations in Chinese-English parallel corpus of *Hong Lou Meng* from the perspectives of mood metaphor and modality metaphor.

The number of interpersonal metaphors in Chinese *Hong Lou Meng* is greater than that in English versions of *Hong Lou Meng*. There are various ways of realizing the interpersonal function by mood system in Chinese *Hong Lou Meng*. Modal particles, terms of address, stereotyped structures, all these devices help the realization of interpersonal function by mood metaphor. In Hawkes' and Joly's versions, the interpersonal functions connoted in original Chinese are functionally and adequately rendered because of the frequently used mood metaphors. While the seldom used mood metaphor in the Yangs' version causes the loss of the interpersonal function of the original clause in *Hong Lou Meng*. Though the modality metaphors are used to translate the original Chinese metaphorical clause in the three English versions, the Yangs' and Joly's versions are faithful to the original Chinese clause both in form and interpersonal function. The Hawkes' version is faithful to the original clause only in form, losing the interpersonal function of the original clause in *Hong Lou Meng*.

Through the discussion of the main means of realizing the interpersonal function by the mood and modality metaphor, the readers could not only have a comprehensive appreciation of Chinese and English interpersonal metaphors in *Hong Lou Meng*, but also have a better understanding of the characters' attitude, opinions and their interpersonal relationship in Chinese and English *Hong Lou Meng*.

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Metaphorical Signification in Henry James's *The Wings of the Dove*: A Deconstructive Reading

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Abstract—The later style of Henry James is an antidote to the provincialism of the Victorian English fiction. To supply his antidote, James attempted to provide his readers with a form of fiction which is integrally metaphorical. In *The Wings of the Dove* such a metaphorical signification is achieved, among other things, through water symbolism, a character who is different from what she is, structural biaxiality, ubiquitous appearances, and a policy of concealment. Such strategies render this story a field of deconstructive analysis. A main outcome of reading it deconstructively is a perpetual deferment of signification through the cancellation of its discourse which grounds the production of a number of counter-discourses.

Index Terms—deconstructive analysis, *The Wings of the Dove*, water symbolism, structural biaxiality, ubiquitous appearances, concealment policy

I. INTRODUCTION: VITALIZATION OF STRUCTURE

What the German philosopher Ludwig Klages called "logocentrism" was used to refer to a tradition from the formation of the Western science and philosophy that assumed the possibility of knowledge only in a system or structure of which the word or logos is epistemologically the superior element because it would give us direct access to the meaning or reality. Ferdinand de Saussure, the Swiss philosopher and semiologist, provided the ground for the 19th-century philology to be evolved into the 20th-century linguistics. He theorized that a word is not a symbol which can be equal to the concrete thing which it represents, but is a sign of which the signifier (the spoken sound or the written mark) only entails the signified, while the latter is not the thing itself but is the concept of the thing, and is therefore available only in the mind. He also asserted that the connection between the sign and the signified is not given (natural) but is arbitrary and conventional, and is the result of the relations and differences of the signifiers.

However, as it came out, it became clear that Saussure was still following the Klagian logo-centric line of thought, because he had limited the application of the play of relations to the signifiers, and had denied it of the signifieds. But taking a step forward to the findings of the Swiss linguist, Derrida brings the signified into the cycle of the free play also. Charles E. Bressler says

Derrida agrees with Saussure that we can know the meaning of signifiers through and because of their relationships and their differences among themselves. Unlike Saussure, Derrida also applies this reasoning to the signified. Like the signifier, the signified (or concept) can also be known only through its relationships and its differences from other signifieds" (p. 75).

What Derrida calls "metaphysics of presence" is a tendency from the time of Plato in the West to accept immediate access to meaning in the word, in the logos. In a paper which he delivered in 1966 he said "the concept of structure and even the word 'structure' ... has been neutralized or reduced, and this by a process of giving it a center." Derrida argued that the function of this center in the Western thought has been "to make sure that the organizing principle of the structure would limit what we might call the free play of the structure" (2001, p. 1).

But in the same paper he successfully sought to refute this doctrine in order to demolish the 'center' which he believed had repealed the "structurality of structure" in the Western intellectual tradition. By doing this, he intended to vitalize the possibility of the free play of relations in the structures of meaning like language, literature, religion, fashion, sport, etc. In this way, he asserted that the word or the logos contains the seed of no spontaneous experience but it is the relations and differences of the sign in such structures which ground the production of meaning. Therefore, Derrida rejected the meaning as fixedly stored in the word. Instead, he proposed it as an *in-between* entity which is the product of the free play of the sign and which is therefore not only relative but relational also.

Later thinkers admit that the researches of Derrida have paved the way for the "event" which he had predicted to take place in humanities. Christopher Norris approves of deconstruction as a turning upside down of the Western "metaphysics of presence." Denying that logo-centrism includes the seed of any fresh and genuine thought, meaning, or experience, Norris claims that deconstruction is a necessary "knock-down argument against" (2002, p. 140) logo-centric discourses. Also, the argument of Peter J. Leithart in "Derrida and Metaphor" confirms the assertion of Norris:

"deconstruction carries on the critique of established (...) modes of perception or conceptualization which has characterized philosophy in the tradition from Aristotle to Descartes, Kant, and Husserl."¹

In Derridean deconstruction, experience is an in-between spontaneous entity which emerges and evolves in a process of interpretive interaction. If this is right, the later style of Henry James can be read deconstructively fruitfully, because attempting to escape the Victorian literary vulgarism (provincialism) of his time, he established a new mode of fiction which highlights the functioning of language and in which therefore the free play of the signifier often cancels the narrative energy to change it into a counter-narrative. This later James believes in experience as an intermediary and relational entity which is the result of the critical thinking of the reader in the space of language.

James's fiction is a space for practicing free and spontaneous thinking for the production of new meanings through a destruction of logo-centric frames of intelligibility. In his later style we can witness the refutation of logo-centric norms of thought and the emergence of phenomenological realities which are the outcome of the functioning of language in the consciousness. In this way, the later James and Derrida admit the formation of meaning through the practice of writing and reading, through analytical criticism of literature where man's free conscience can navigate through the stormy waves of life to achieve recognition.

On the basis of these hypotheses, the present paper will argue that recognition in *The Wings of the Dove* is mainly metaphorical. The spontaneity of thought, the metamorphosis of Milly Theale, the omnipresence of appearances, structural biaxiality, and the policy of concealment are among the techniques James uses for achieving a certain novelistic form that wants to provide a space of metaphoric recognition. In the light of deconstructive theory, it will be argued that these priorities render the novel a fertile field for the production of such metaphorical meanings. To achieve this goal, the writer will closely read the novel to show how its discourse punctures the established norms of narrativity for the emergence of new experiences via the cancellation of the logic of the binary oppositions for example.

II. DISCUSSION

A. Water as Symbol

Water as symbol is a certain dimension of a deconstructive analysis of *The Wings of the Dove*, because it makes a productive ground of recognition in it. For an example, in Book 8 chapter 3, James compares the people in the Lancaster Gate to the fish in a pool.

There was a deeper depth of it, doubtless, for some than for others; what he (Milly's doctor), at any rate, in particular knew of it was that he seemed to stand in it up to his neck. He moved about in it, and it made no splash; he floated, he noiselessly swam in it; and they were all together, for that matter, like fishes in a crystal pool (2004, pp. 527-528).

For James, a narrative is, metaphorically speaking, a flowing river where every character swims to reconstruct and update himself by getting new experiences through standing in meaningful relations with other characters. Unlike the logos, which is the meaning consolidated in the pool of the single word, experience, which is flowing and spontaneous, is performed through dynamism, through interaction in the vast realm of the sea. Therefore, like when one washes himself in the water, a character can approve the becoming of his consciousness only by swimming in the river of experiences. Or like a whale in the ocean, which dies out of water, out of the waters of spontaneity experience gets stale; for it is only in the flow of life that it can be developed. Therefore, it is on the waves of narrative as a verbal construction that reciprocal connections are restored among the members of a society and the collective experience is promoted.

However, for F. O. Matthiessen,

What James seems to want most to suggest through such an image is the denseness of experience, the way in which the Jamesian individual feels that he is held into close contact with his special group, the slowly circulating motion of their existence all open to an observing eye, and, particularly as Densher develops this image, with an oppressive sense of the complexities in which he is immersed, of being plunged into an element "rather more strangely than agreeably warm" (p. 63).

For Matthiessen this symbol belongs to a variety of images in James that implies the people of a same social group whose collective experience in the flux of life is the meaning of their being and humanity. It signifies perhaps not only the extra delicacy of our consciousness, but also the real fluidity of experience. It shows experience as fully complex and dynamic, which is the subject to perpetual examination and refutation.

B. Milly Theale as Metaphor

In the third chapter of Book 7, where Milly Theale resides in Palazzo Leporelli in Italy till she dies, she is presented with a "renewed flare of fancy" (James, 2004, p. 452). The discourse lets the reader sway between reality and phantom while Milly's identity remains fully enigmatic. But why does Milly, when she is in the event of her pending death, take refuge in the solitude of such a relic of the past? When she knows that she will die soon, she goes to the stillness of the palace perhaps to listen to the up-to-now unheard voices scattered on the long plateau of the past history of mankind. By doing this, she wants to depart to the frozen plains of death, to the unlimited eternity. She wants to withdraw into a past

¹ . Leithart, Peter J. /LEITHART.COM/ "Derrida and Metaphor." posted on Friday, December 23, 2005, at 5:30 PM. <http://www.leithart.com/2005/12/23/derrida-and-metaphor/>.

culture that is no longer alive, and thereby she wants to enter the soul of creation and become a part of it. By making her dye in this certain way, it seems that the author wants to change her into a metaphor, that is, to metamorphose her reality into an illusion.

For example, when Lord Mark visits her in the palace, she is in her "excluded disinherited state" which is different from that of the 'naturalistic' Kate. Under the charm of this position, she undergoes a radical change, and is translated into something like an image, like an aspiration, to whom a truth is revealing. Later on, she even goes through more advanced stages of metaphoricality, because she sees a 'face' that speaks for her about "a possible but forbidden life" (ibid., p. 465).

Now, if we accept that a great novel like *The Wings* should avoid confusing the reader, why should James make his story into a real enigma by changing Milly into a metaphor? An immediate solution is that Milly as metaphor is, in the Jamesian "house of fiction," a real cornerstone, a determining narrative policy, because it takes elemental functions in more than one section of the story. Like in the Bronzino painting, which is "emblematic of Milly's ultimate beauty's emerging after her death" (Ward, 1967, pp. 189-190), James even uses 'face' and 'light' to complete the process of her metamorphosis, because her metamorphosis into a metaphor is not only a device of recognition, but also a space for enlightenment.

It is in the space of *The Wings* as metaphorical that one can believe in the talks of Nicola Bradbury when she compares *The Wings* with *The Ambassadors*. In her comparison, she points to the duality of *The Ambassadors* and the multiplicity of *The Wings*, she points to the un-reconciling contraries of the latter which challenge and supersede each other; and she points to the different approaches which should be tried and abandoned in reading *The Wings*. She also admits that hypothesis and extravagance characterize this work, and that resolution in it is not the product of reconciliation, but is the outcome of the rejection of excess. At the end, Bradbury affirms that "The process and effect of the novel are much less poised than in *The Ambassadors*" (1979, p. 73). In this way, one can argue that the formation of these features in this novel is considerably due to the metamorphosis of Milly, because it is the axis of a determining multi-dimensionality in this novel which makes it fruitfully ambiguous also. Milly as metaphor renders *The Wings* a story for which no straightforward reading is adequate. This is due to some of its additional features: in its consciousness centers it is quite varied, in the logic of its speech it is rather irregular, and in its overall structure it is unbalanced. For example, when Mark negotiates with Milly about marriage, the story can be rarely labeled as a talk in the form of an interior monolog or a real conversation conducted by some people.

In the representation of Milly as metaphor, a stylistic feature of *The Wings* is the annulment of all her paraphernalia which pertain to the material life. When Mark asks her if she is really not well, she realizes that her value for her would-be lover may be "precisely in the ravage of her disease" (James, 2004, p. 467). And after she draws inferences about Mark's incapability of pure love, she decides she will not marry him; because she thinks his love is mingled with pity and self-interest. In addition, when she admits she is ill and Mark offers to take care of her, she replies he is not good for her present situation. Also, when Mark claims that it is his suppressed life which has made him tormented, and that he will surely make his lovers happy, Milly decides she cannot marry him, because his remarks reveal that he thinks of marriage not as love but as bargain, while she does not think of marriage as bargain.

Another stylistic feature of this story is the application of techniques which mystify the reader. For example, when James compares his intended audience to the "fish rising to more delicate bait," it indicates that his mystification policies considerably work in the story. Thus, one can believe in D. W. Jefferson when he says "Nothing in Jamesian criticism is more remarkable than the widespread failure to appreciate Milly" (p. 202), because in the ground of its highlighted structural ambiguity, its discourse is often apt to mystify even the trained reader. A technique here is (intentional) stylistic deviations from the norms of the English literary language of the Victorian era. R. W. Short discusses the application of a number of such techniques in James's later style: the parenthetical phrase, the abnormal sentence order, the emphasis on relating expressions, the grammatically ambiguous sentence, and the stylization². Whatever else the impact of these techniques may be, they also render this story a field of deconstructive analysis, which is also the meaning of a perpetual postponement or even cancellation of signification. Yet, canceling signification is, in its turn, not only a strategy for developing a professional readership, but also a possibility of multilateral discursivities.

C. *The Empire of the Appearance*

What makes James's fiction mainly a 'symptomatic' case of interpretation is perhaps its masterfully metaphorical representation which guarantees the formation of numerous shows, appearances. Milly is a meek American girl whom the narrative requires that she be deceived by another woman. Therefore, whatever she is, a dimension of her existence is that we should consider her not for her reality but mainly for her unreality, for what she is not, what the story shows of her. She is, as Jefferson says again, "among those on whom little or nothing is lost" (p. 205). In the first chapter of Book 8, the story suggests that Densher wants to connect logos to experience, that is, to come further out from the realm of thought to the realm of life. But when he understands that Kate has close control over him, he doubts "whether he had really no will left" (James, 2004, p. 493). He realizes that he is being controlled by the strategy of the false, the strategy of the appearance; and that there is no far distance between life and lie.

². "The Sentence Structure of Henry James," *American Literature*, Vol. 18, March 1946 – January 1947, pp. 71-88.

In the fiction of James, representation turns on the hinge not of the abstract but of the concrete. This is to mean that James does not set forth the typical idea of his tale through abstract theorization, but he treats it through figures, images, and appearances which are part and parcel of the structure of it. J. A. Ward argues that such assimilations do not emerge for nothing, but are the result of the omnipresent relations which stop nowhere, and a certain authorial logic the application of which guarantees the composition of an "achieved novel."³ Therefore, however it is often assumed that Kate is of no appearances, Densher has no control over her. For him, this situation is like a test the outcome of which is anger and shame. His abstract, passive, and impersonal language signifies that he is the victim of an empire of appearances, of the suppressed shows and feelings.

The strategy of the false works in the third chapter of Book 8 also, which mystifies both Densher and the reader. The story simultaneously reveals and hides the question of the health of the American innocent. Now, under the influence of a two-way approach to mystification, the plot loses a big share of its merit, and the reader and character are left to determine the right path through the context via the implementation of a more "useful function" of consideration. If Kate is, for Milly, a queen of the appearance, Densher is also, for the former, a king of the false, because although he shows that he is "acting for Kate, and not, by the deviation of an inch, for her friend" (James, 2004, p. 519), in the course of time he changes his mind, he takes his love back from the English beauty and gives it to (the memory of) the American heiress.

As the time passes, the relations between the English boy and girl grow shakier; and a part of the two remaining books of the novel shows how each of them doubts if the other one really loves him/her, and how this prevents their trust and understanding; so that their marriage is no resolution. To achieve her ideals, the narrative represents the English girl in a way that the logic of her head is superior to that of her heart. This makes her a more enigmatic case for her lover, for it makes her able to accomplish a "heroic ring." Although the narrative seems ironical here, Kate's lover feels more incapacitated, because in relation with her, he always feels under-recognition, feels something is in her that he needs to decipher, while he will struggle more severely for independent knowledge and voice. But Kate is also afraid he may lose his confidence in her.

Thus, for her to retain his confidence, the story delivers her discourse in a more self-sufficient style. Although his doubt makes him curious for independent knowledge, it also makes him submissive to her discourse. The virtuality of this situation, however may at first suggest that it is rather improbable, but nevertheless also implies its possibility. Densher's thoughtful questions, Kate's decisive retorts that "touched the truth" (James, 2004, p. 544), and Milly's prolonged silence which suggests her solitary considerations, make the narrative discourse here into a subject of deep reflections.

The remaining part of this paper will take to discuss how *The Wings* deconstructs itself by vetoing its own discourse. A method for this is representing the victory of Milly in a way that it necessitates the salvation of Kate as ironical, because the success of the latter entails her failure also, and it can hardly be suggested that she is saved. The dying American girl is now in love with Densher, while she is innocent that he is already engaged to the English beauty. But to have the upper hand in the fight, the beauty fuses an intricate scheme: her lover should marry the American girl so that they (Kate and Densher) can lawfully possess her fortune after her death. Now they are in Venice where Milly is in her deathbed in Palazzo Leporelli. But however the English girl will soon go back to London, for the fulfillment of her design, she wants Densher to stay with the American heiress so that, as he asks Kate, it be "possible she may offer marriage?" (ibid., p. 544) But as he is full of desire, he will stay with Milly in Venice only if Kate comes to his room to sleep with him.

Kate: "And if I do understand?"

Densher: "I'll do everything."

...

Kate: "Well, I understand."

Densher: "On your behalf?"

Kate: "On my behalf."

Densher: "You'll come?"

Kate: "I'll come" (ibid., p. 546).

In the end however, Kate's ring turns out to be far from heroic, because she has neither Densher for husband, nor the fortune of Milly through Densher; and she feels terribly exhausted, alienated.

Book 9 immerses Densher into a more detached process where musical and theatrical images help him to feel the real fluidity of a "supreme recognition." As he realizes that he should depart for the palace, the experience of his possible marriage to a dying girl to snatch her money is traumatic, and he finds himself steadily swaying to and from Kate: "When he closed the door behind him for an absence he always shut her in" (James, 2004, p. 550). On the one hand, the narrative has it that his salvation should be in his absence from Kate. But his sense of inadequacy in her absence is so overwhelming that he cannot sweep her presence from the realm of his being. Now that Kate is "*all* in her poor rooms" (ibid), although he feels "the mercy of the beneficent chance," he also admits on reflection that he feels the

³. "James's Idea of Structure," *PMLA*, vol. 80, No. 4, 1965, p. 420.

improvement of a fallacy, for he imagines Kate's scheme is efficient enough to leave "no way" for Milly "but to require it of him" (ibid., p. 553).

Now her deception puts him also on the fringe of lying. And the energies of the narrative go counter so squarely that neither the reader nor the English lover can guess he will be exempted from the inevitable lie. But the story moves forward in a way that it demolishes Kate's dissimulations also. Densher perceives that Kate has restricted his freedom by making him not only to pretend he loves the American girl but also to endeavor to clutch her fortune. Also, these clever policies of Kate inflict some unbearable damages on Milly which he charges to the account of the English girl. Among them is that they have denied the humanity of the American heiress due to which she feels deeply humiliated. And to complete the narrative procedure, these appearances of Kate, that is, her swindles, pretensions, and metaphoric manners cause Densher in due course to take his love back from Kate. Thus, before long she also will feel humiliated, because her lover will desert her.

Milly informs Densher that "If I want to live, I can" (ibid., p. 558). But her life can be comprehended only in the sphere of the metaphorical, in the realm of the appearance. It is definable perhaps only in terms of the spiritual, in terms of "light and sound," for it is through her virtual death that she will reach into the core of freedom. On the verge of death, she is "the freest person" who has "got everything," for it is her "way" to "peace and plenty" (ibid: 560). But how can Milly deal with the Densher whom Kate has adapted for her purposes?

Densher's internal conflict is also a crisis; and he feels snubbed and frightened, because in Kate's project, which he is carrying out, lying is strategic. His remaining 'with' Milly is really 'against' her, but Kate has made him pretend that it is 'for' her. Also, his distance and negligence render the strategy more inapplicable. When Densher sits in Florian's café to refresh himself, we see him in an impossible situation, because his shares are but frailty, fear, indecision, and terror. The images here illustrate his great trauma: the image of someone who must untie a most confused coil, the image of someone who is "shut up to a room" and must witness as long as possible the remaining on the wall of a painting that is hanging most precariously. And the atmosphere of the tale is of non-communication. Also, there are many linguistic and literary signals at work here which suggest a deep stasis: that the air is "a virtual non-conductor" (James, 2004, p. 567), that Pasquale is dormant, that "vacancy is but a nest of darkness" (ibid: 568), or that the force of veto is laid there in the house. To quote Bradbury once again, "what the reader experiences are the leaps of recognition Densher makes, not explanation" (1979, p. 114).

Thus, the discourse of *The Wings* should be discussed preferably from within rather than from without, which involves, among other elements, a number of syntactic and semantic factors for providing fluidity and relationality. For example, the use in the story of numerous indefinite pronouns like "something", negation expressions like "nothing", possibility words like "might" and "might have", and modal adverbs like "as if" suggests that the free play of the sign in this tale provides a large centrifugal energy which guarantees the fluidity, indeterminacy, and deference of signification.⁴

Such indeterminacies also support the suspicion of a conspiracy in *The Wings* which seeks to repeal its own discourse. When Densher sees Mark in the Venice café he remembers several weeks ago when he had seen him in Milly's palace. Now, why he should be in Venice again keeps his mind "restless." Meantime, he continues his self-deceiving considerations more insistently. For example, he thinks Mark's visit to her is a "descent, an invasion, an aggression," and decides that "the only delicate and honorable way of treating" her is to "treat her as he, Merton Densher, did" (James, 2004, p. 577). The contrast of these two strategies of the false is highlighted: One opponent wants to pierce a hole in the game of his rival to repeal its function, while the other one intends to play his game round and round in order that he finds a short cut to his goal. In his renewed entanglement, and as he remains in his place or roams about the square, Densher searches apologies perhaps for the expiation of his shame: slow walking in the rain, "peeping into the shops," and considering what he can get out of a possible meeting with the people around there. Although his stay with the American innocent to grab her fortune (for Kate) goes counter to "the agreeable," Densher says it "would be his one way," and he will remain "to mark his virtue beyond any mistake" (James, 2004, p. 579).

The talk between Densher and Mrs. Stringham in Venice, which is mainly about if the American girl "should like to see" him, is another façade of the kingdom of deception in *The Wings*. He will stay with her in fact to excite her to propose marriage, but he pretends he will see her only if she wants "it first herself," and if he can help her. Then they negotiate as to if Sir Luke Strett will come to visit the dying girl. As she is on her deathbed, they might suggest she needs their real help; but they talk only about the luxuries, rather than the fundamentals, of their experiences: what they know about the doctor, for example, or if they like him. Such a piece of talk is functionally metaphorical, because in its irrelevancy to the critical occasion, it befits the situation for baffling the reader.

D. Structural Biaxiality

When Stringham tells Densher she has come to let him know that Mark has returned to Venice to tell Milly "you've been all the while engaged to Miss Croy" (ibid., p. 596), what he needs to understand is perhaps more than this simple fact. His dialogue with the lady is also a remarkable maneuver of metaphorical signification. However, to speak with Kohan again, a function of his measure is that it "apparently brings about a deadly difference for the spectral figure on

⁴ In this story, "Something" (256 times), "Nothing" (329 times), "Might" (530 times), "Might have" (145 times), and "As if" (292 times) have been used.

the 'elegant plane of representation'" (p. 146). From now on, and in the divulgement of the secret of their engagement, Milly will come down from the precipice of the divine to the plain of a dying girl who is a victim of deception and an object of the pity of mortal creatures.

Kohan argues that by this act of metaphoric realization James provides the narrative with a more "general economy" which adds to its plausibility. To achieve enough plausibility, the narrative embeds dimensions of unreality in the real, and represents the former in a way that we presume it as real and believe in it. For example, after Mark's maneuver, Milly is metamorphosed to an "incarnate being." She comes from the remote world of the imagination to the fleshy realm of the real where man can intrigue against man for his own advantage.

Therefore, Jamesian narrative techniques of different kinds make *The Wings* into a "wonderful system," into a labyrinth to disclose the secret of which often needs lots of know-how and intellectual energy. And his narrative hints are often inclined to escape from the reader. However, the reader of this novel realizes that Densher's present situation (his avoidance, stasis, and fear for example) are the outcomes of such hints. In this way, one realizes that this story simultaneously works in two opposite directions: it works for narrativity, and it also works for ending the movement of the narrative machine.

But the story has not yet consumed all of its productive energy, and is still working. The oblique condition which James creates around the issue of Kate intrigues the reader in a further way. On the one hand, she still believes in the function of "the beautiful system," because although she intends to lawfully possess Milly's fortune after her death, she also wants to help her to be loved by a man before her death. On the other hand, she seems rather unaware of her dishonesty, and prefers not to realize the irony of her system. In such a situation, the free play of the sign in the binary opposition of "innocence/experience" makes the story into a new space of deconstructive analysis. At the end, the novel shows her a poor girl and a monster, because the victimization of the English lover and the American innocent is the outcome of her dishonesty also.

Book 10 begins the presentation of Densher at Lancaster Gate again where he is "gathering everything up, everything he should tell" (James, 2004, p. 622) Kate about his Venice days. She asks him if the American girl is still alive. When he is describing his situation there, the English girl is "divided between the wish and the reluctance to hear it" (ibid: 626). Is her reluctance due to the fact that she guesses Densher may really have fallen in love with Milly? If it is, then we can deconstructively read a narrative only in the nooks and corners of it where its normal movement terminates and the malicious forces its discourse open a new way of narrativity. When Densher reports that the American girl "has turned her face to the wall" because Mark has informed her they have been all the while secretly engaged, she asks him "wouldn't it have been possible then to deny the truth of the information?" (ibid., pp. 630-631). Kate's wonderful suggestion of such a denial of truth stupefies him so much that he wonders if she still believes in their (Milly's and Densher's) engagement. In this way, Kate also begins to be more heavily influenced by an unreality, a vacancy, a strategy of the false.

The remaining part of the story illustrates how the energies of this possible denial change it to a clear necessity. When Densher understands that for Kate the end justifies the means, and therefore he loses his confidence in her and takes his love back from her, the story comes full circle. He says "I'm just where I was" (James, 2004, p. 656), and thinks that Kate also has no better situation. Her wonderful manner (in negotiation with Densher) to achieve her goal is "the manner of at once having it all before her and yet keeping it all at its distance" (ibid., p. 632). Her manner is a biaxial narrative mechanism which enables her to consume and preserve her resources at the same time. Admitting the complexity of James's narrative technique here, James E. Mulqueen argues that Kate's imagination reaches fulfillment to entangle herself: "what really happens is that Kate, having successfully created the impression that she does not love Densher, is trapped by that appearance, for she convinces Densher himself" (p. 137). Kate's manner also characterizes the Jamesian way of telling the tale: like Kate, he avoids from delivering the tale wholesale, but each time he gives only a portion of it to the reader. This narrative segmentation is another policy in the hand of James for deferring signification. However, Densher's stupefaction in his attempt to act out the scheme of Kate should also be charged on the account of bewildering the reader as a further method for blocking signification. In this way, Milly is perhaps the incarnation of the secret of narrative in James's novel, the incarnation, to rephrase Tzvetan Todorov, of a perpetual search for something which is always absent.⁵ She embodies the value of a continuous enquiry, a search for nothing other than the search itself, a kind of search as the meaning of life. When, back in London again, Kate asks Densher if he has denied Mark's information as to their engagement, he replies that even if he had enough time for the purpose, he would not have denied it, for had he done so, he says, he would have stuck to his denial and would break with Kate to make a truth of his denial. And when Kate infers that he is in love with (the memory of) the American girl, he does not deny it.

In Densher's last visit to Milly, when she insists that he should not stay more than twenty minutes, she wants him to be absent when she dies, and this she does in order for him not to endure the grief of her death. This affects her moral

⁵ For example, in *The Poetics of Prose*, he describes the works of James in this way: This author grants no importance to the raw event but concentrates all his attention on the relation between the character and the event. Further, the core of a story will often be an absence (the hidden, the dead, the work of art) and its quest will be the only possible presence. Absence is an ideal and intangible goal; the prosaic presence is all we have to work with (p. 184).

measures more than enough. But it is a measure of veiling also, an authorial technique which keeps Milly in the focus of our attention. In addition, it is for preserving her memory, her love, in the hearts of Densher and the reader.

E. A Policy of Concealment

Milly is severely ill. But as long as she is visible she is reluctant to let the people know she is ill. She shows herself sick only when her death is impending. On the other hand, when she is dying she finds out that Densher has seen his salvation in something other than leaving. Days later, when she understands that he is still there waiting, he says "This ... affected her." Therefore, the outcome of Densher's experiences in Venice is different from what Kate has been dreaming; and she guesses that they are in real love now.

However, these occasions of excessive wonder and reflection have left Densher bereft of all his potentials; for, as Bell Millicent says, the opposing forces of "the naturalistically definable and the transcendently undefinable young woman are going counter in his inside" (p. 308), and have robbed him of all his abilities for action. He can find no middle action, and whatever he may do is far from truthful. His incapacity is so salient that beyond pondering on "the difference between acting and not acting" (James, 2004, p. 396), he scarcely can do anything.

At the end of this book, the narrative situation becomes even more enigmatic. There is a power game that prevents any ultimate solution to the problem of Kate and Densher. The English lover receives two letters the second of which is from an American law firm. But when he gives it, unopened, to Kate to test her, she fails to pass the test, because he understands from her conduct that money is more important for her than love. Can love and money come together to make them happy? In order to get out of his marriage contract with Kate, Densher gives her the money that Milly has left for him. But Kate also will leave the money on the table. Love and money are intertwined, but Kate and Densher will not marry.

Then, when again he visits her, this time in Mrs. Condrip's, to give her the letter he has received from Milly, and also to find out how Mark knew about their engagement, he thinks Kate (or her Aunt Maud) may have uncovered the secret to Mark (so that he might reveal it to Milly). Kate doesn't "pretend to know" the connection between Mark and her aunt, but she says Mark is "clever enough, apparently" to understand what a riddle hides.

Therefore, Milly's letter, which Densher gives to Kate with an unbroken seal on it, is perhaps an allegory of reading *The Wings*, for no one can assert to know the real content of it, because shortly after breaking the seal, Kate had "turned to the fire, ..., and, with a quick gesture, had jerked the thing into the flame" (James, 2004, p. 694). She thinks that Densher now owns at least part of Milly's fortune. Therefore, she puts the letter into fire perhaps to make him forget the memory of Milly's love, and thereby to re-possess his heart. The burning letter, at which Densher only stares, is the representation of something for which we search but which we always miss. And can it be suggested that the passive gazer represents the modern reader whose "editorial mind" makes him incapacitated in reading the text of Kate?

Renunciation is still a further way for deferring signification in this novel. Densher's ultimate renunciation of both Kate's love and Milly's money is a due response to his desire to "escape from everything." This can be compared to Lambert Strether's fantastic act of abandonment at the end of *The Ambassadors*. Maria Gostrey, who has been quite sympathetic to Strether, now offers herself to him and suggests he can stay in Europe and live with her. But he rejects all the advantages of life in Europe with her. Soon he will say good-bye to her, and will depart Paris for America. Strether's and Densher's heroic acts of renunciation are Jamesian solutions to achieve spiritual excellence through the rejection of the material gain. They are also among the incarnations of Jamesian strategies to avoid any crisis in reading and interpretation; for through renunciation, the intellectual Densher provides the ground, not for the cancellation of this ugly reality, but for the application of his social consciousness to provide virtual spaces where our private and social experiences can be re-structured.

Densher's renunciation also gives the reader of *The Wings* the opportunity to apply the free play of his mind to reread it in the context of his new social awareness. This means the freedom of the sign from conventional signification, and the interaction of all discursive forces of the narrative to value dialogic understanding. It is also perhaps James's formula for the imaginative possibility of the impossible. Kate can possess the money only through Densher, and Densher can renounce it through Kate. Such a narrative biaxiality takes function through the free play of the imagination which often looks to the horizons of the impossible.

Thus, another dimension of a deconstructive reading of this novel is the strategy of concealment. James the modernist story-writer is considered having as much insight about (the secret of) his narrative as Milly's doctor has about her problem. Concealment strategy enables James to remain always on the surface of narrativity, and to be inside and outside of it at the same time. As *The Wings* conceals the nature of sickness of the American girl, it also reveals no resolution for its own internal conflict, and the construction of it entails the destruction of it also.

III. CONCLUSION

The later phase of the fiction of Henry James provides a sharply different mode of intelligibility from the traditional ones in the English fiction of the Victorian Times. In this paper we tried to explore a major novel in his later phase to show how he provides such a modernist style of signification. To achieve this purpose, James escapes the Victorian literary vulgarity mainly through taking story in the service of language. In this way, a most outstanding feature of his fiction in this phase is an innovative approach to language, an approach which makes it possible for him to provide the

possibility of metaphorical signification. Therefore, metaphor in the hand of the later James is the guarantee of the production in language spaces of both false characters and virtual situations as a possibility of new modes of signification which are based on a close interaction of the text and the reader. *The Wings of the Dove* grounds metaphorical signification in a number of ways. The application of these ways of metaphorical signification makes this novel into a productive domain of deconstructive analysis, because they render it a de-centered verbal structure where experience is not already stored in the word but is the product of the free play of the sign.

Water as symbol in this novel perhaps mainly signifies the fluidity of experience, the fact that as substances of experience, different impressions immediately and spontaneously intrude the consciousness of its characters while they have no control upon them. It also means that experience cannot be the result of detachment of the character from the realities of life, but it is the outcome of life illustrated in a narrative, that is, it is in the context of life represented in narrative that experience is created. Therefore, experience is not only relative but relational also.

Another way in which James provides the ground for metaphorical signification in this novel is creating Milly Theale as different from what she really is or from what we expect her to be. Such an appositive narrativity makes the reader really shocked, because on the one hand he always searches for her, while on the other hand his search is always in vain. However, the vacant position of her in the narrative is a possibility of new experiences through critical interpretation.

A next tool in the hand of James for metaphorical signification in *The Wings* is the production of ubiquitous shows and appearances. An appearance is something in disguise, something that presents itself not as it really is but as something which it is not. Therefore, the reader of this novel has mainly to deal with illusions, unrealities. The application of illusions for realities in this novel makes experience quite blurred and illusory. Therefore, in the later narrative style of James, experience is not logo-centric but is always marginal and centrifugal also.

In addition, the biaxial construction of this novel makes it something like a self-contradictory mechanism. The free play of the sign simultaneously both structures it and cancels its structuration. Kate Croy plots to possess the fortune of the American heiress after her death. And it is right that she dies when Densher has not yet married her. But her death not only brings the narrative to a termination, but also makes it impossible for her English rival to have both her money and Densher as husband.

The last technique which James uses for metaphorical signification is a policy of concealment. In the later style of James, concealment is the economy of a perpetual searching for something which is always absent. The reader of *The Wings* perpetually searches for the reality of Milly, but when it changes her to a metaphor, the meaning of his searching is only a searching, because the story nullifies all of his searches. In the metaphoricality of Milly, wherever the reader goes, there is only language out of which the reader cannot go.

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The Intensity and Direction of CET Washback on Chinese College Students' Test-taking Strategy Use

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Abstract—Test-taking strategies are the test-taking processes which the students have consciously selected, and can be regarded as the strategies used in test context. The College English Test (CET) is a large-scale high-stakes education test for college non-English majors in China, which conducts impact on College English teaching and learning, namely “washback”. Although researches concerning the washback on test-taking strategy use has been conducted in different cultural backgrounds, few studies are focused on Chinese college students. This paper analyzes questionnaire data from 284 Chinese non-English majors, in order to explore the characteristics of their test-taking strategy use, as well as the intensity and direction of CET washback on it. The findings show that the students' test-taking strategy use is test-oriented rather than focusing on language learning and use. CET washback on test-taking strategy use is not intense, moderately promoting cognitive strategy use and weakly promoting test management and test-wiseness strategy use, and the direction CET washback on test-taking strategy use tends to be positive.

Index Terms—test-taking strategies, CET, washback, intensity, direction

I. INTRODUCTION

Test-taking strategies are the test-taking processes which the students have consciously selected (Cohen, 2006), and can be regarded as the strategies used in a test context. According to Cohen (2006), test-taking strategies can be classified into three largely distinct sets: language learner strategies, which are the abilities to use one's language knowledge and competence test, mainly comprised of cognitive and metacognitive strategies; management strategies, which are the abilities to benefit from the characteristics of the test to perform better; and test-wiseness strategies, which are the abilities to exclusively rely on test facets or the environment to answer test items, having scarcely anything to do with language competence (Millman et al., 1965; Xu & Wu, 2011).

The College English Test (CET) is a large-scale high-stakes education test for college non-English majors in China. It conducts impact on College English teaching and learning, namely “washback”. Faced with such a high-stakes test, it is of necessity to investigate its washback on every aspect and every procedure in both of teaching and learning. In China, a line of studies have been carried out on CET washback (e.g. Gu, 2007; Wang, 2010; Xie & Andrews, 2013), which have covered several main aspects of washback on learning and teaching, but failed to involve CET washback on test-taking strategy use. In the language testing field worldwide, although there are several studies on washback concerning test-taking strategy use (e.g. Watanabe, 1992; Andrews, Fullilove & Wong, 2002; Qi, 2005, 2007; Lewkowicz & Zawadowska-Kittel, 2008), those focusing particularly on students' test-taking strategy use have not yet aroused much attention. An investigation into CET washback on test-taking strategy use not only can enrich the theories of test-taking strategies and washback but also provide feedback for CET test reform and College English teaching and learning, and therefore necessitates immediate research.

The present study investigated CET washback on students' test-taking strategy use, and the following three research questions were explored:

- Research Question 1: What are the characteristics of students' test-taking strategy use?
- Research Question 2: How intense is CET washback on students' test-taking strategy use?
- Research Question 3: What is the direction of CET washback on students' test-taking strategy use?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Washback Models

Since Alderson and Wall posed the question “whether washback exists” in 1993, researchers have long attempted to develop models for washback study. According to their relevance to the present study, the following five models will be briefly discussed in this section.

Alderson and Wall's (1993) “Washback Hypotheses”. These hypotheses lay out the main aspects of teaching and learning that may be affected by a test, including learning content, learning strategies, learning rate and sequence,

attitudes toward learning and so on, and provide a crucial guidance for empirical washback studies, following which the present study attempts to shed some light on these learner-related aspects by means of an empirical investigation into students' English test-taking strategy use. These hypotheses also serve as a blueprint for later washback models. However, what these hypotheses present fails to provide us with a systematic model which expresses the potential interactions among the various factors involved in the complex contexts of school teaching and learning.

Hughes' (1993, cited in Bailey, 1996, p. 257-279) Trichotomous Model. In this model, the participants, processes and products of teaching and learning are distinguished, recognizing that all the three elements may be affected by the nature of a test. Here Hughes emphasizes the participants' perceptions and attitudes and how these factors affect what they do. According to the model, tests will affect students' perceptions and attitudes towards their study, which in turn affects the processes and products of learning.

Bailey's (1996) model. This model emphasizes the significance of students as a group of stakeholders, whose learning may be influenced by the other participants' processes indirectly. It is also suggested that using a series of behaviors would bring about either positive or negative washback, depending on whether the actual language proficiency of test takers has developed as a result of these processes. Bailey's claim is very essential to the present study. No matter what kinds of strategies the students use or how frequently the students use a strategy due to the influence of washback, it is whether strategy use can improve the language proficiency or not that is the criterion to determine whether or not it is a positive washback to use such test-taking strategies. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate the relationship between test-taking strategy use and the students' English proficiency, in order to examine the direction of washback.

Shih's (2007) model of students' learning. In this model, students' learning and their psychology may be affected by three sets of factors, i.e. extrinsic factors, intrinsic factors and test factors. The extrinsic factors contain the socioeconomic factors, school and educational factors, family, friends and college factors and personal factors. The intrinsic factors contain individual differences, personal characteristics and personal perceptions of the test. The test factors concern the properties of the test itself, such as its stakes, content, structure and purpose. The three sets of factors exert mutual influences on each other and they all pose influences on students' learning and their psychology, such as learning content and time, strategy, motivation and test anxiety. Besides, the model indicates that washback may change as time goes on. In other words, there may be some differences between washback on students who have sat a test and those who have not.

Green's (2007) three models on washback direction, intensity, variability and test stakes. According to these models, an overlap between test characteristics and the focal construct can yield positive washback; students' value of success on the test above developing skills for the target language use domain will exert more intense washback; individual differences will result in variability in washback; and test stakes influence both test characteristics and test takers' characteristics and views of value.

These models reveal that washback is far more complicated than was supposed to be. It can vary at several dimensions, of which intensity and direction are two important ones. Intensity means how strong the washback effect is while direction means whether this effect is positive or negative. The present study is then devoted into studying the intensity and direction of CET washback on students' test-taking strategy use. It is hypothesized that CET (the test) exerts influences on students (participants), affecting their perceptions and attitudes towards CET, which in turn influence students' test-taking strategy use (processes). This phase determines the intensity of CET washback. Test-taking strategy use may be beneficial or detrimental to CET score (products), which provides evidence to the direction of CET washback. If CET exerts a more frequent use of test-taking strategies, whose frequent use in turn increases CET score, it can be determined that CET washback on test-taking strategy use is positive, and vice versa.

B. Empirical Studies

A line of studies have concerned the washback on test-taking strategy use. In Japan, Watanabe (1992) investigated the washback effects of the Japanese university entrance exams on students' language learning strategies, finding that those students who entered the college through the exam reported to have used a much wider range of learning strategies than the recommended students, who were supposedly free from the effects of the exam and thereby used more strategies. Thus, the results led to the plausible conclusion that the entrance exams have induced a positive washback on students' learning strategies, which was contrary to many negative judgments that the entrance exams prevented students from using learning strategies. However, this study did not consider test-wiseness strategies. If test-wiseness strategies had been involved, more results should have been found out in addition to the results of learning strategies used in general.

In Poland, Lewkowicz and Zawadowska-Kittel (2008) investigated the washback effects of a newly introduced English test "Nowa Matura", on teachers' attitudes, teaching content and methods. The results showed that this test exerted very intensive washback on English teaching and learning, which was focused on test format, test-taking strategies and test preparation practices.

In China, Andrews, Fullilove and Wong (2002) conducted a study on the washback of the "Use of English" oral examination on students' spoken English performance. The results show that the oral examination may cause may lure the students to use test-taking strategies, which may be very superficial and exam-specific. Qi (2004, 2007) conducted a series of washback studies on the National Matriculation of English Test (NMET), and found that although the

intentions of test constructors were to deemphasize linguistic knowledge and to emphasize communicative language use, the actual teaching and learning still focused on linguistic knowledge and test-oriented skills and content, due to the high stakes of the test. Wang (2010) investigated the washback effects of a new CET listening module on students' learning, through a questionnaire survey to 293 second and third year non-English majors. The results found that although students reported to have used the learning methods suggested by the *Teaching Syllabus* and the *Test Syllabus*, most of them also reported to have used test-wiseness strategies, attended test preparation class and practiced model tests.

These studies covered a widespread of tests, showing that a test may cause students' more frequent use of test-taking strategies. However, few aim at studying CET washback on students' test-taking strategy use in particular. In order to provide enriched evidence to test validity and shed light on College English teaching and learning, it is necessary to probe into CET washback on test-taking strategy use.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Instrument

This study used a questionnaire scale to collect data. The scale was designed according to the cognitive and metacognitive strategy scale of Purpura (1999), the test management strategy framework of Cohen & Upton (2007) and the test-wiseness strategy theory of Millman et al. (1965), including 51 items. The scale mainly followed Cohen's (2006) classification, but language learner strategies were divided into cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies, in that the former is under the monitor and management of the latter, thus distinctive from each other (Kong & Li, 2008). Therefore, the 51 items of the scale were grouped into four sub-scales, i.e. cognitive strategy (Q1-Q18), metacognitive strategy (Q19-Q27), test management strategy (Q28-Q35) and test-wiseness strategy (Q36-Q51). The items measured on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1="never", 2="rarely", 3="sometimes", 4="often" and 5="always". Before the formal investigation, 35 students participated the pilot study, and some details in wording were revised according to their feedback.

B. Data Collection and Analysis

350 students from two universities in Southeast China participated the formal investigation. In order to guarantee the validity of the data, the researchers explicitly demonstrated the goal of the study before the investigation. The researchers were also ready to answer any questions during the investigation. After the investigation, the researchers invited the students to leave their e-mail addresses, and later asked for their CET4 total score and sub-scores via e-mail. Excluding the invalid questionnaires, 284 valid ones were left. They included 159 students from a key university and 125 from an ordinary university. 173 of them were male (39.1%) and 111 female (60.9%). Their ages ranged from 18 to 25 years (mean age=20.4 years). 69 students (24.3%) were in the first grade and 215 (75.7%) in the second grade. 53 of them (18.7%) studied liberal arts and 230 (81.3%) studied science and engineering.

SPSS 18.0 was used to analyze the data. First, the exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted to determine the construct of the four sub-scales respectively, and 5 unqualified items were dropped, thus 46 were retained. Reliability analysis showed that the reliability coefficient of cognitive sub-scale was 0.823, metacognitive 0.758, test management 0.763, test-wiseness 0.788, and 0.921 for the total scale, indicating a high reliability. The mean scores of items under the same sub-scale were computed as frequencies of use of the four types of test-taking strategies. Second, an independent-samples t-test was used to make a comparison of the frequencies of strategy use between the students who had sat the CET and those who had not, and Cohen's *d* was employed to indicate the effect size of strategy use between groups. In considering how "large" an effect size is, Cohen (1992) came up with some effect size conventions based on the effects found in psychology research in general: an effect size about 0.20 should be considered small, 0.50 medium, and 0.80 large. Third, a decision tree model (DTM) was used to explore which strategy lead to a high test score. DTM is able to deal with complicated data by extracting obvious characteristics of the data and the critical value of characteristics which have significant effects (Ni, 2010). In other words, DTM is able to make classification of the individuals in a group according to one or several variables, and examine the differences between different groups. In the present study, the classification indicates which strategy use tends to win more points in CET4, i.e. the prediction of strategy use to test score.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Characteristics of Test-taking Strategy Use

The descriptive statistics show that cognitive and metacognitive strategies are least frequently used, with the means respectively 2.96 and 3.10. Test management and test-wiseness strategies are more frequently used, with means respectively 3.77 and 3.38 (see Table 1). It indicates that during sitting CET4, although there are activities of learning and comprehension of language materials, comprehending language materials, during which language competence is used, the test management strategies and test-wiseness strategies -- related to the test method characteristics -- are obviously used more frequently than cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies.

TABLE I.
TEST-TAKING STRATEGY USE AT THE STRATEGY-SET LEVEL(N=284)

	Min	Max	M	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Cognitive strategies	1.29	4.87	2.96	.548	.124	.551
Metacognitive strategies	1.00	4.67	3.10	.638	-.210	-.046
Test management strategies	1.58	5.00	3.77	.617	-.340	.054
Test-wiseness strategies	1.66	4.88	3.38	.568	-.043	.288

Cognitive and metacognitive strategies can activate the language knowledge and skills of listening, speaking, reading, writing, vocabulary and grammar. If a test could guide the students to use more such strategies, it would help with the development of the students' strategy competence and language ability. The use of such strategies should be encouraged, and a test should be designed to guide the students to use such strategies, just as they do in an authentic context. Even if the students made preparations for such a test, they would be guided to use these strategies during test preparation or test taking, thus developing their strategy competence and language ability. That is what a test should be like and what a test is for. However, it is found that the students use more test management strategies and test-wiseness strategies, which are more or less useless in with language development. The students may not care whether their language abilities are reflected in the test. To the contrary, they care about whether they can achieve high scores.

B. Intensity of CET Washback on Test-taking Strategy Use

The intensity of washback varies from person to person. The students who have sat the CET may suffer more intensive washback effect than those who have not. To verify this, the samples from the key university were used, and were divided into two groups, the "sat" group (n=90) and the "not sat" group (n=69). The differences of test-taking strategy use were compared in order to explore the intensity of CET washback (see Table 2).

TABLE II.
COMPARISONS AT STRATEGY-SET LEVEL BETWEEN "SAT" GROUP AND "NOT SAT" GROUP

Test-taking strategy	Sat (n=90)		Not sat (n=69)		t-value	p-value	Effect size
	M	SD	M	SD			
Cognitive	3.16	.551	2.93	.532	2.723**	.007	.424
Metacognitive	3.24	.612	3.21	.666	.341	.734	.047
Test management	3.90	.636	3.72	.620	1.804	.073	.286
Test-wiseness	3.58	.586	3.41	.517	1.836	.068	.287

** p<.01

As is shown in Table 4.2, students of both groups use test management and test-wiseness strategies more frequently, and metacognitive and cognitive strategies less frequently. The means of metacognitive, test management and test-wiseness strategies of students who have not sat the CET are above 3, but that of cognitive strategies is less than 3. The means of all four sets of strategies of students who have sat the CET are all above 3, and higher than those of students who have not sat the CET. The difference in cognitive strategy use reaches the 0.05 level of significance, and the differences in test management and test-wiseness strategies are near this level of significance. The effect sizes show that the difference in metacognitive strategy use of the two groups approaches zero, those of test management and test-wiseness strategy use approach a weak 0.2, and that of cognitive strategy use approach a medium 0.5. Therefore, it can be seen that the CET moderately promotes cognitive strategy use while weakly promoting test management and test-wiseness strategy use, echoing the findings of Watanabe (1992) that an exam may promote strategy use.

Since students who have sat the CET are all in their second year and have studied College English one year longer than students who have not sat the CET and in their first year, it is possible that they are already at a higher level in English proficiency. Considering that language proficiency exerts influence on strategy use (Oxford, 1990), it is possible that cognitive strategy use is related with English proficiency. A further exploration of the interactional effect between English proficiency and whether or not sat the CET is therefore needed.

Metacognitive strategies concern with the management of language learning processes, and tend to be mature after high school graduation (Wen, 2001). Therefore, The CET may have little influence on metacognitive strategy use. However, further longitudinal research would be needed to confirm this conclusion.

As to test management and test-wiseness strategies, students have been trained in these strategies often in high school, during which time there is an obvious test-oriented tendency (Gu & Xiao, 2012). In the long processes of training and test preparation, students have gradually developed their test management and test-wiseness strategies to a relatively high level, which tends to be stabilized from then on. The CET may only be a trigger but not a decisive factor in attracting the students to use these strategies, which explains the findings that the effect sizes on test management and test-wiseness strategy use is rather weak and fail to reach the 0.05 level of significance.

All in all, The CET does affect test-taking strategy use, but not that intensively. It only moderately promotes cognitive strategy use and weakly promotes test management and test-wiseness strategy use.

C. Direction of CET Washback on Test-taking Strategy Use

The judgment of washback direction is rather a judgment of value (Qi, 2011), for people with different standpoints, benefits, interests and value beliefs may come to various conclusions on the same phenomenon. In the present study, it

is presumed that positive washback is beneficial to teaching and learning, while negative washback is detrimental. It is also believed that test performance is a reflection of language ability. Since the previous section has found that CET promotes the use of cognitive, test management and test-wiseness strategies, it can be inferred that if cognitive strategy use, which involves the use of language ability, win more points in the CET, the washback of CET on test-taking strategy use is positive. If test-wiseness strategy use, which involves using abilities to exclusively rely on test facets or the environment to answer test items, the washback is negative. If test management strategy use, which involves both the language ability and the exploitation of test characteristics, the washback may be both positive and negative.

To test the hypothesis, the Decision Tree Model was used to explore the prediction of test-taking strategy use to The CET4 score. The modular “Tree” in SPSS 18.0 was employed and the default “CHAID” method was adopted. The CET4 score was treated as the dependent variable, and the means of cognitive, metacognitive, test management and test-wiseness strategies were treated as independent variables. The samples used were the 215 students from both sampled universities who have reported their CET4 scores (the model is shown in Fig. 1).

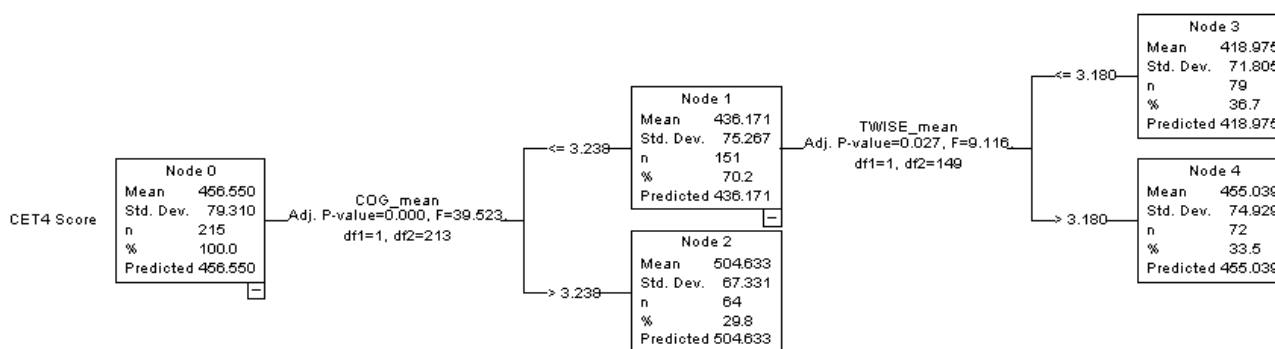


Figure 1. The Decision Tree of CET4 Score

The model shows that, although initially four sets of strategies were entered into the model, only two of them, i.e. cognitive strategies and test-wiseness strategies, were retained after running the model, and the model has two layers in the end. CET4 score, the dependent variable, is affected in sequence by two decisive variables, cognitive strategy use and test-wiseness strategy use. The other two independent variables, metacognitive strategy use and test management strategy use, are eliminated. The F values of the two layers by the two decisive variables are respectively 39.523 and 9.116, with p-values both below 0.05, indicating a significant difference between the two layers and that this classification is valid.

It can be seen from the model tree that the first significant difference lies in cognitive strategy use, with the critical value of 3.238, more or less in the middle of a 5-point Likert scale. Students whose means of cognitive strategy use are above 3.238 (29.8% of all students) have an average CET4 total score of 504.633, significantly higher than that of the students whose cognitive strategy use are below 3.238 (70.2%), which is 436.171 on average. It indicates that cognitive strategy use has a significant effect on CET4 score.

Within the students whose cognitive strategy use are below 3.238, test-wiseness strategy serves as the second significant difference, where the critical value is 3.180, again in the middle of a 5-point Likert scale. Students with a mean of test-wiseness strategy use above 3.180 (33.5% of all students) have an average CET4 total score of 455.039, significantly higher than that of the students whose cognitive strategy use are below 3.180 (36.7%), which is 418.975 on average. It shows that test-wiseness strategy use may have an effect on test performance but only in the condition where students' cognitive strategy use is infrequent (Mean ≤ 3.238) and with low English proficiency (CET4 mean score = 436.171).

Therefore, it can be concluded that the characteristics of strategy use leading to the worst CET4 total score are low frequent use of cognitive strategies (Mean ≤ 3.238) and low frequent use of test-wiseness strategies (Mean ≤ 3.180), where cognitive strategy use has a stronger effect than test-wiseness strategy use.

These models indicate that cognitive strategy use plays an important role. High frequent use of cognitive strategies tends to win more points, which has been found out in line of studies across different tests in different regions (Purpura, 1999; Song & Cheng, 2006). High frequent test-wiseness strategy use also helps, but only in condition of a low frequent use of cognitive strategies and low English proficiency. Several studies have proved the limit of test-wiseness strategy use (Green, 2007; Xie & Andrews, 2013). As to metacognitive and test management strategy use, no significant effects have been found. Previous research also has found out the unrelatedness of metacognitive strategy use to test performance (Kong & Li, 2008), but has not found out the effects of test management strategy use empirically.

Since previous findings have shown that the CET can promote cognitive strategy use moderately and DTM shows that cognitive strategy use helps in improving test performance, it can be inferred that the CET yields moderate yet

positive washback on students' test taking strategy use. However, since the CET can promote weak test-wisness strategy use and the latter has a certain effect on the improvement of the CET4 score, it can also be inferred that the CET has a weak negative washback. Due to the fact that the CET has a stronger effect (see the effect sizes) on cognitive strategy use than test-wisness strategy use, and that cognitive strategy use has a stronger prediction (see the Decision Tree Model) than test-wisness strategy use, it can be concluded in the end that the direction of the CET washback on test-taking strategy use on the whole tends to be positive.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The present study explored the characteristics of Chinese college students' test-taking strategy use, the intensity and direction of CET washback on test-taking strategy use, and find out that students' test-taking strategy use is more test-oriented rather than focused on language learning and use. Test management strategies and test-wisness strategies are used more frequently while cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies are used less frequently. CET washback on test-taking strategy use is not intense, moderately promoting cognitive strategy use and weakly promoting test management and test-wisness strategy use, and the direction of CET washback on test-taking strategy use tends to be positive.

Despite this, it should be noted that the washback effect is rather complicated. A series of factors, such as society, school education, individual differences and the test itself, may exert an influence on students' learning. Interactional effects may also exist. Therefore, the findings here still need to be further explored and re-examined, which shows the direction for future studies.

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Critical Discourse Analysis of Barack Obama's 2012 Speeches: Views from Systemic Functional Linguistics and Rhetoric

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Abstract—In the light of Halliday's Ideational Grammatical Metaphor, Rhetoric and Critical Discourse Analysis, the major objectives of this study are to investigate and analyze Barack Obama's 2012 five speeches, which amount to 19383 words, from the point of frequency and functions of Nominalization, Rhetorical strategies, Passivization and Modality, in which we can grasp the effective and dominant principles and tropes utilized in political discourse. Fairclough's Critical Discourse Analysis frameworks based on a Hallidayan perspective are used to depict the orator's deft and clever use of these strategies in the speeches which are bound up with his overall political purposes. The results represent that nominalization, parallelism, unification strategies and modality have dominated in his speeches. There are some antithesis, expletive devices as well as passive voices in these texts. Accordingly, in terms of nominalization, some implications are drawn for political writing and reading, for translators and instructors entailed in reading and writing pedagogy.

Index Terms— critical discourse analysis, ideational grammatical metaphor, rhetorical devices, Passivization, modality

I. INTRODUCTION

Language has a fundamental role in the conveyance of political orators' staged-managed and pre-planned goals to the audience in order to provoke, prevail, and persuade the audience toward the intended goals and meanings (Woods, 2006). Language is not independently powerful; it obtains power through the use of powerful orators and politicians etc. This elaborates why the language utilization of those influential people can be studied critically and with close scrutiny. Power is signified, for instance, by grammatical forms within a text or a text's genre (Renkema, 2009). The focal point of Discourse Analysis (DA) is any form of written or spoken language, such as political speeches; it concerns the sorts of devices and strategies people utilize when engaged in various discourses, such as emphatic tropes, the use of metaphor, nominalization, Passivization and choice of particular words to indicate power relations, and so on. Renkema (2009, p. 1) defines discourse studies as "the discipline devoted to the investigation of the relationship between form and function in verbal communication".

Halliday and Matthiessen (1999, 2004) draw a distinction between two major types of Grammatical Metaphor (GM), i.e. Ideational Grammatical Metaphor (IGM), focus of this study, which incorporates *nominalization* and *process types* and Interpersonal GM that includes modal metaphor and mood metaphor. In terms of metaphor of nominalization, Halliday (1994, p. 352) argue that nominalization "is the single most powerful resource for creating grammatical metaphor". Through this device, processes (verbs) and properties (adjectives) are construed metaphorically as nouns, enabling an informational dense discourse. Kazemian, Behnam and Ghafoori (2013) demonstrate that GM of nominalization is a resource language used to compact information by conveying concepts in metaphorical form which is very valued as a way of expressing objectification, abstraction, ambiguity, information density, formality as well as a mark of prestige and power.

In traditional grammar, rhetoric was the study of style through grammatical and logical analysis. But new rhetoric, common in North American, is the study of how effective writing achieves its objectives. The term rhetoric in this new sense, focus of this study, offers an analytical lens to investigate and concentrate on how to convey oneself accurately and effectually in connection with the subject of writing or speech, and the audience, and to employs methods to identify the relations between texts and contexts. (Jost & Olmsted, 2004). Rhetorical devices employed in this study are *Parallelism*, *Antithesis*, *Unification* and *Cohesivation* and *Expletive*, each of which will be thoroughly enlightened in the followings.

While Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) concentrates on language in its socio-cultural context and the ideological assumptions established through interaction and texts, rhetorical analysis limits its focal point to political interaction and explores to find patterns of goals, interests and joint assumptions underlying persuasive actions (Jorgensen & Phillips, 2002). The aim of this study is to reveal implicit meanings in Obama's speeches in terms of nominalization,

Passivization, modality and rhetorical devices and to disclose what he really wanted the audience to know and believe and what he really wanted to achieve. By utilizing these strategies, despite the fact that this study intends to investigate Obama's speeches to pinpoint the frequency and purposes of employing the devices in the texts, its objective is also to scrutinize the associations among language, ideology and power and to grasp how political rhetoric is employed to convince the people to acknowledge, sustain and advocate its policies. The employment of these apparatus in the speeches is just to inquire into political rhetoric from different dimensions.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

Analytical methodology concerning this article is IGM within SFL proposed by Halliday (1994), Fairclough's CDA as well as rhetorical strategies. SFL is usually regarded the major substructure of CDA and other theories in pragmatics. To Young & Harrison (2004) and Renkema (2009), three popular disciplines to the analysis of authentic text are CDA, SFL, and DA; and strong interdisciplinary bonds exist between SFL and CDA. In order to have critical views from various aspects in this study, an effort was made to integrate perspectives from three independent but inter-related realms viz SFL, CDA and rhetoric.

A. Systemic Functional Linguistics

SFL mainly concerns itself in how people utilize language together to achieve everyday social life and how social worlds are, in exchange, established in and through language. This interest leads to investigations of how language is structured to achieve socio-cultural meanings. SFL therefore focuses on the analysis of texts, considering relationship to the social context in which they occur. SFL initiated by Halliday is one of the most remarkable and worthwhile theories, and language is regarded as a system organizing into three levels or strata related by realization as such semantics, or the system of meaning, is realized by lexico-grammar, or the system of wording; and lexico-grammar is realized by phonology or the system of sounding. The term grammar stands for lexico-grammar. The lexicon area or lexis is not a separate component, but simply the most delicate end of the unified lexico-grammar (Taverniers, 2002). As Halliday and Webster (2009) elaborate, semantic system is organized into three main functional components, or *metafunctions*. The three components are: ideational; interpersonal; and textual. Equivalent to each constituent is a small number of distinctive systemic groups of systems with strong interrelationships within each cluster. The three metafunctions function in parallel with the other two. A clause is the complex realization of options from these three functional-semantic components.

GMs can be recognized in terms of the metafunctions. Halliday and Martin (1993, p.79) define GM as "a substitution of one grammatical class, or one grammatical structure, by another"; for example, *your struggles* instead of *he struggled*. As formerly stated, IGM is twofold: *nominalization* and *process types*. Nominalization has been of particular importance in the evolution of academic language. In political discourse, particularly, nominalization has ideological functions such as removing agency, creating cohesion and applying power. Halliday (1994) has described that congruent is the less variant form of metaphorical expression and it implies that the metaphorical expression can have various congruent forms and vice versa. IGM primarily employs nominal groups to render the process or attribute which should be expressed by verbs and adjectives in nouns. In brief, the major indication of IGM is nominalization. Thus, the process of nominalization expresses actions and events as things or concepts; noun is the most common IGM in the word level. These changes entail removal of human agency or doer inside the clauses (Simon-Vandenberg, Taverniers, & Ravelli, 2003).

Simon-Vandenberg et al. (2003) and Kazemian et al. (2013) have attempted to show that in nominalization, a meaning that was originally understood by one kind of wording comes instead to be construed by another. Thus, for instance, processes are congruently construed as verbs; in *illegal immigration*, however, a process (*to immigrate illegally*) is realized in the form of a noun (*immigration*). But nouns congruently construe entities, not processes; so something that started off as a *doing*, namely *immigrate*, is being reconstructed as if it was a thing as the following instance:

(1) a. *to meet the challenges we can only solve together: **reducing** our deficit; **reforming** our tax code; **fixing** our immigration system; **freeing** ourselves from foreign oil (IGM).*

b. *to meet the issues we are challenging with and the way to ...: to reduce our deficit; to reform the code and the way people are to tax; to fix the system where people immigrate; to free ourselves ... (Congruent).*

In order to identify the metaphorical essence and process types of a non-congruent expression, it is necessary to compare it with its counterpart congruent realization. The grammatical variation between congruent and non-congruent domains is applied to transitivity compositions, and it can be analyzed in terms of the functional construction of these compositions (Thompson, 2004). Process is the core constituent of the transitivity system. In SFL, the processes of human activities and natural world are divided into six process types: material (2a), mental (2b), relational (2c), behavioral (2d), verbal (2e) and existential (2f) as the following examples:

(2) a) *An accident **destroyed** her ballet career.*

b) *There are many reasons to **suppose** that he was familiar with those tactics.*

c) *This area **is** infamous for drugs.*

d) *Nora **laughed** so much that she nearly **cried**.*

- e) If you would like to **discuss** the matter further, please call me.
 f) Suddenly **there was** a loud explosion.

TABLE 1
PROCESS TYPES IN ENGLISH

Process types	Category meanings	Example
Material : Action	'doing' 'happening'	<i>The army shelled the innocent civilians.</i>
Behavioral :	'behaving'	<i>She wept for the loss of her mother.</i>
Mental: Perception Affection, Cognition	feeling, sensing emotive	<i>I heard a noise outside.</i> <i>The girl loved her mother.</i>
Verbal:	'saying'	<i>He described the procedure.</i>
Relational	'being'	<i>Those apples are rotten.</i>
Existential:	'existing'	<i>Maybe there's some other darker pattern.</i>

The above table, adopted from Martin, Matthiessen and Painter, 1997, p. 228), depicts the process types and their category meanings with some instances in English. There is a family of linguistic procedures- of which SFL and CDA are related- that is socially oriented, essentially affected by defining the link of language, text, and social life. Functional descriptions endeavor to elucidate the nature and structure of language according to what it has to do.

Many CDA studies (Fairclough, 2003; Woods, 2006) uncover that political liability and the power hierarchy in social relations are features that specify linguistic choices such as nominalization and passive voicing. Fairclough's studies reveal such ideological influences in discursive structures. Fairclough (2003) demonstrates that the exclusion and inclusion of social actors can be syntactically manipulated. He comments: "There are many motivations for exclusion, such as redundancy or irrelevance, but exclusion many be politically or socially significant" (p. 149). The discourse analysis carried out by Fairclough explores the use of syntactic transformations such as nominalization which is a development of Halliday's grammar.

B. Critical Discourse Analysis and Rhetoric

A great deal of attention has been given to how language is used in political discourse; because it is assumed that they are intimately intertwined. According to Woods (2006), politics is a struggle for power in order to put certain political, ideological and social ideas into practice. In this process, language plays a fundamental role, and every political action is prepared, accompanied, affected and played by language. Political rhetoric is highly stage-managed for and by the media; it leans heavily on devices such as slogans and snappy expressions, parallelism, rhetorical strategies, passive voice and modality as well as nominalization. Meaning, in particular, can be a highly political issue, and most of the time orators are frequently concerned to manipulate meaning, i.e., to color our perception of political trends, policies, actions, who exploit an expertise in semantic engineering in order to persuade us of, indeed to construct, political realities. In addition, they are carefully designed to signal the right moment for the audience to break into spontaneous applause, to ponder over the delivered messages etc. Persuasive linguistic techniques are commonplace in the language of politics, whether it be the exploitation of persuasive rhetorical tropes or even rhyme as a form of sound play. The linguistic devices that the political genre employs can end up having far-reaching effects which lie at the heart of CDA and rhetoric.

CDA is an interdisciplinary analytical viewpoint which looks into the relationship between power and discourse, and particularly it investigates the way in which authority, dominance and social inequality are constructed, sustained, reproduced and resisted in the discourse of written texts and spoken words. CDA aims to unpack the common-sense social and cultural ideologies which are embedded in all the forms of language that we use (Fairclough, 2006).

Critical approaches to discourse have been employed to study variety of discourses and they are particularly significant in relation to the study of politics. The construction of political systems, where individuals need to be persuaded to act collaboratively for the welfare of all, seems to rely on the use of a symbolic communication system, and it is quite probable that these two human properties have evolved concurrently. Certainly the power of rhetoric, the oratorical art of manipulating language for persuasive ends, was well grasped in classical times. Rhetorical language is clearly not always honest; it may equally well be used to obscure or twist the truth. Therefore, political rhetoric is designed to lead its audience in the direction of specific thoughts, opinions and ultimately, actions. The goal for politicians is not primarily to present facts, but to be persuasive (Woods, 2006; Jost & Olmsted, 2004).

Fairclough's (2003) approach to CDA is also unique in that he deals with the Foucauldian notion of discourse with a strong focus on linguistic analysis of textual materials and he has developed linguistic means of analyzing textual forms and structures. This type of study is valuable as it bridges the gap between the structural form of language and the external social world it tries to represent. This way, a deeper understanding of discourse can be obtained. For verification of the linguistic associations to such subjectivity, Fairclough embraces the framework initiated by Halliday's SFL (1994) to analyze discourse at the clausal level. The correlation between discourse and social commitments can be detected through a grammatical analysis of clausal structures. According to Fairclough (1989), society and discourse operate in tandem to constitute each other. Discourse shapes the way people think and the linguistic features are vehicles which carry ideologies and perceptions of the social world.

This paper attempts to unveil ideologies which are covert in these texts. The main analytical tools of this paper draw largely from IGMs in SFL, rhetorical strategies and the framework of CDA in which Fairclough has initiated to seek the relationship between discourse and society, and has stressed the importance of observing the grammatical aspects of discourse.

III. AN INTRODUCTION TO SPEECHES

Mr. Obama has delivered 24 speeches plus three presidential candidate debates with Mr. Romney in 2012. Five speeches are chosen haphazardly based on their political delivery importance to pinpoint rhetorical strategies, nominalization, passivization and modality incorporated in them. All the speeches are available at www.americanrhetoric.com, and are delivered Jan. 5th on military strategy; Jan. 24th on Third Presidential State of the Union; Sep. 6th on Presidential Nomination Acceptance; on Sep. 25th in the United Nations General Assembly and finally Nov. 7th on Second Presidential Election Victory Speech respectively. It is assumed that ascertaining the context can assist readers comprehend coherent associations across utterances. Schiffrin (1994, p. 363), states that “the interaction between text and context implies a procedure of combining linguistic meaning with context to derive inferences about messages”. These speeches, approximately 19380 words, are used as the corpus to identify and analyze the frequency and functions of nominalizations and their relevant process types, and rhetorical strategies as well as Passivization and modality. After thorough reading, in order to detect IGMs in these texts and to render them in congruent realm to find their process types, the ideas of Halliday (1994), Halliday and Matthiessen (1999, 2004) and Martin et al. (1997) are used as the most comprehensive models to analyze IGMs, because Halliday (1994) argues that for identifying process types, each metaphorical domain must have its equivalent congruent wording. In addition, other strategies are pinpointed as well to determine their functions and frequency in the texts.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The major objective of the current study is to inquire into IGM, rhetorical tropes, passivization, modality and their respective frequencies and functions in the corpus comprising five political addresses. The choice of the speeches is on the basis of their skillful political rhetoric and oratory in which criteria for selecting these strategies are as follows: Primarily, agentless passives leave an actor unclear and are mainly used to represent ambiguity and concealment- and this is true of nominalization as well. Then, an insight into the essence and the functions of nominalization, persuasive rhetorical strategies in political discourse can aid the researchers to make exhaustive and intelligible presentations of these strategies and assist readers to recognize their key importance for the comprehension of political speeches. Eventually, an effort is made to set out an outlook of interrelationship of language and society, with the emphasis on power and ideology.

A. Nominalizations in Political Speeches

Nominalization is the main lexico-grammatical characteristic of the most languages. Simon-Vandenberg et al. (2003) state that processes can be symbolized as *things* rather than actual *happenings*. A specific technique, namely nominalization, has to be employed to fulfil this task. Through nominalization, a basic proposition comprising a subject, verb and an object can be turned into a much simpler entity or a noun phrase as follows:

(3) ...our troops have the **equipment** and **capabilities** (IGM)

In the above example, the process (*to equip*) and the quality (*capable*) are rendered in entities. The use of IGM helps to contract long sentences to a noun or noun phrases and compact more information in a clause. Another consequence of IGM is that fundamental aspects of the process and some information are left unspecified: in particular, we don't know about *who* or *what*; as such there is no manifestation of the timing of the process or an agent.

Halliday and Webster (2009) draw our attention to the fact that IGMs typically take place in *syndromes*, where every element has undergone a metaphoric shift. Moreover, in several circumstances, nominalizations are essential since congruent clauses would impede the smooth flow of information in the discourse as follows:

(4) a. ... in the **capabilities** that we ..., including **intelligence**, **surveillance** and **reconnaissance**, **counterterrorism**, **countering** weapons of mass **destruction** and the **ability** to operate...where **adversaries**....

b. these **achievements** are a **testament** to the **courage**, **selflessness** and **teamwork** of America's Armed Forces.

Comparatively, the more probable congruent version of (b) is: *what we have achieved can be testified to show that American's arm forces are courageous, are selfless and they work as a team*. This clustering of interdependent properties is what produces the characteristic style of a contemporary political texts. The orator couldn't possibly convey his intended meaning through the congruent domain and capture the attention of the audience. The above instances are compound IGMs where lexical density, objectification, impersonality and ambiguity are manifest. Fairclough (2003) claims that the reasons for utilizing such technique could be stylistically or ideologically stimulated, i.e. nominalization is spatially effectual. Sometimes, several lengthy sentences can also be conveyed by a nominal. Due to this productivity and facility of being able to contract large amounts of information into a single word, nominalization is a widely exploited linguistic technique in political and many other discourses.

Woods (2006) explicates that nominalization helps to avoid expressing definite people in the event described and it can also establish an impersonalizing and remoteness effect through the removal of participants. Nominalization is a syntactic conversion which transforms whole clauses into a noun or nominal phrases; this enables it to obtain agency by capturing the doer position and also presents an abstract feature to an action/event:

(5) *And on every issue, the **choice** you face ... It will be a **choice** between two different paths...; a **choice** between....*

By using three IGMs (*choice*) in a row, the audience attention is distracted from the process that is actually occurring and managed instead to the product of the process. The force of these expressions distract the audience consideration from such questions as: What is being chosen? Who is choosing? etc. Discourse analyst would say that "the process is backgrounded and the effects foregrounded" (Woods, 2006, p. 73).

All the above mentioned characteristics such as objectivity, abstractness, encapsulation, impersonality and remoteness, lexical density and ambiguity, as Halliday and Martin (1993) and Kazemian et al. (2013) argue, are by-products of IGM. The following IGMs samples are selected randomly from these texts:

TABLE 2
SAMPLES OF IGMs IN FIVE SPEECHES

No.	Metaphorical wording	possible Congruent wording	Process type
1	into <i>harm's way</i>	into a way which is harmful	relational
2	No <i>challenge</i> is more urgent. No <i>debate</i> is more important	there is no need to challenge because.... there is no need to debate, because....	material verbal
3	you should get help <i>financing</i> a new plant, <i>equipment</i> , or <i>training</i> for new workers	you should get help and your new plant must be financed, must be equipped and get help to train ...	material material material
4	<i>difficulty</i> and <i>uncertainty</i>	to be difficult and uncertain	relational relational
5	of <i>growth</i> and <i>prosperity</i>	to grow and to be prosperous	material relational

In the above Table (2), there are ten processes rendered in nouns, i.e., abstract entities such as *difficulty* and *uncertainty* (4), *growth* (5), etc. These are now no longer expressing actions, but are focused on concepts. As it was noticed, IGM instances in the texts are employed to perform multiple important functions as the following example:

(6) *You elected me to tell you the **truth**. And the **truth** is, it will take....*

In the clause ... *the truth. And the truth is...*, nominalization is utilized to make IGM. The congruent domain might be ... *to be true with you. And It is true that....* In the non-metaphorical expression, *true* is in the role of quality, but in metaphorical expression, *true* is rendered in *truth* which is in the role of carrier. By this kind of nominalizing, Mr. Obama would like to comment on a fact –a truth– which still exists. In addition, only by one word with the function of subject, the audience could comprehend that the delivered message must incorporate significant information about a fact which nobody knows.

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF PROCESS TYPES IN THE SPEECHES

Process types	Frequency	Percentage
material	881	4.56
relational	542	2.81
mental	134	0.69
verbal	105	0.54
behavioral	16	0.08
existential	4	0.02
Total	1682	8.7
word count	19282	-

In these five speeches, out of 1682 nominalizations, 881 go for material, 542 for relational, 134 for mental, 105 for verbal, 16 for behavioral and 4 for existential processes.

B. Rhetorical Strategies

It is obvious that rhetorical study is concerned with the modes of persuasion and persuasion is clearly a sort of demonstration. Rhetorical Analysis examines persuasive, emphatic, effective, contrasting strategies etc. in the realm of political rhetoric and other discourses. Besides, rhetorical devices are utilized to improve the effectiveness, clarity, emphasis, association, and focus. Sometimes a certain strategy belongs primarily to a single category, as for instance an *Expletive*, used mainly for emphasis; but *parallelism*, assists to order, illuminate, highlight and adds beauty to the thought and clauses (Van Haaften, Jansen, De Jong & Koetsenruijter, 2011).

1 Parallelism

Parallelism is re-occurrence syntactical and lexical similarities and is employed across or inside sentences or even inside clauses and phrases (Cuddon, 2012). Upon inquiring into these speeches, one can find both syntactic and lexical parallels in which they are the influence of reiteration of the same words or clauses or even certain connections between

words, mostly associated to the same parts of speech, such as verbs or nouns. It is also worth noting that there is a large number of parallel structures in these texts in which not only they call the audience attention and underscore the topic but also they add balance and rhythm as well as they clarify and beautify the sentences. Meanwhile, categorizing items, together in parallel constructions, results in unification, either they express the impression and efficiency that are in some way related, or, to intentionally invite comparative investigation of them. Parallel subjects or parallel verbs and adverbs or verbs and direct objects, etc. are utilized to indicate Parallelism as the following instances:

- (7) a. *we've built the **best-trained, best-led, best-equipped** military in history.*
- b. ***No bailouts, no handouts, and no copouts.***
- c. *It would threaten **the elimination of Israel, the security of Gulf nations, and the stability of the global...***

All the above instances are extracted from the speeches which are deliberately employed by the orator to signify and add clarity, equality, emphasis, importance, balance, persuasion, focus and beauty to them. Out of 412 Parallel structures in these speeches, 20 is utilized in text one, 73 in text two, 203 in text three, 68 in text four and 47 in text five. There are two separate parallel tropes in the following excerpt to indicate effective and emotive connections among sentences and to make the audience mesmerized by the paramount importance of the topic.

- (8) ***There is no speech that justifies There are no words that excuse the There's no video that justifies an There's no slander that provides an... to burn a ..., or destroy a school ..., or cause death and***

In text four, six parallel structures are applied by the word (*because*) to emphasize and link them together by representing cause and effect relationships and also by utilizing parallelism and antithesis in some sentences the orator attempts to take the paramount importance of the issues into the audience account. Employing series of parallel nouns, verbs or phrases in sentences, despite all the above properties, are highly persuasive where they symbolize a sense of emotional, intellectual or sensory pressure in the audience.

2 Antithesis and Expletive

Antithesis is defined by Cuddon (2012) as the contrasting ideas sharpened by the use of opposite or noticeably different meanings and it creates a transparent, contrasting association between two ideas by connecting or juxtaposing them together, often in parallel structure. An Expletive device is also a single word or a short phrase, usually suspending normal flow of speech, employed to lend emphasis to the words instantly proximate to the expletive. In order to highlight disparities in various topics, Mr. Obama applies the effects of antithesis in contradictory and parallel structures as in:

- (9) a. *the **growth** in the defense budget will **slow**, but It will still **grow**....*
- b. ***tyranny** is no match for **liberty**.*
- c. *we're not **going back**. We are **moving forward**.*
- d. *... climate change **is not a hoax**. More droughts and ... **are not a joke**. **They are a threat** to....*
- e. *we do not ban **blasphemy** against our most **sacred beliefs**.*

These antithesis structures are juxtaposed in the texts to show and stress contradictory comments and to call the audience attention to differentiate between facts and fictions as well as opinions. 117 antithesis expressions are applied in the five speeches to establish a certain and systematic link between opinions. The following example extracted from text four, contain both antithesis and parallel structure as well as an expletive:

- (10) ***But understand**, the attacks... **are not simply an assault on** **They are also an assault on the very ideals**....*

The phrase (*but understand*) is an expletive device to underline the following sentences about the assault on American embassy. The extract incorporates parallelism and antithesis as well. Antithesis, which is closely corresponded to parallelism, is a strategy used by Mr. Obama to strengthen the rhetorical influence and emotional force of his oratory. Some useful expletives employed in the texts include the following: *Indeed, in short, in fact, as strongly as, absolutely, but understand, certainly*, etc. Finally, it is found that there are 158 expletives applied in the texts in total.

3 Unification and Cohesive Strategy

If the speeches are read and listened critically, and meticulously, it will be grasped that in every clause or a sentence, there are some hidden meanings await to be disclosed and signal to be noticed by the audience and readers. In political discourses, the strategic employment of *we-groups* (*we, our* and *us*) serve to establish a unified relationship between politicians and the public.

Fairclough (1989) maintains that pronouns in English do have correlative values of various sorts, i.e., the choice between *we* and *you* is bound with associations of power and solidarity. To Fairclough, there are generally two types of *we* pronouns, namely, inclusive *we*, which includes the audience as well as the speaker, and exclusive *we*, which refers to the speaker or writer plus one or more others, but does not incorporate the addressee(s).

Mr. Obama has used a large number of *we-groups* in the texts; the use of these devices not only unify the orators with the audience but also they identify themselves as one belonging to the society, narrowing or bridging the invisible gap between the stage and the crowd. This subdivision of constructive strategy is largely employed to signify a sense of solidarity and cohesiveness to the crowd as follows:

- (11) a. *In short, **we've** succeeded in defending **our** nation, ... to **our** enemies, ..., and **we've** restored.... That makes **us** safer and it makes **us** stronger.*
- b. ***We** should start with **our** tax code.*

As it is obvious in most instances, there is an ambiguity in that strategy as well, because sometimes it is not clearly distinctive and transparent that by *we*, who he refers to: is it inclusive or exclusive? By *we* does he incorporate the audience or just embrace his Administration? In above example (11a), *we-groups*, might refer to his government; and in example (11b), for instance, the first one (*we*) probably refers to his Administration, but by the second one (*our*), he definitely unifies himself with the crowd. There are plenty of inclusive and exclusive *we*, probably the most used words of the speeches, utilized skillfully by the orator in the speeches to denote solidarity or implicitly to distance his office with the audience. By applying inclusive *we*, Mr. Obama, in this case, regards himself as a member of the society to which he speaks. Whether he talks about the preceding accomplishments or the future plans, the orator asserts them to represent unity and commonality, which means that he splits responsibility for everything being mentioned to the audience. Consequently, the audience seems to turn into a co-author of the speech, provided that they consent to it, and they do so by bursting into frequent and rapturous applause. Simply put, the president speaks on behalf of the American people.

C. Modality and Passivization

1 Modal verbs

Modality is the semantic category primarily related to the expression of alternative thoughts and attitudes and is the means by which a speaker's attitude towards what they are saying is conveyed (Renkema, 2009). To Fairclough (1989), Modality is to do with speaker or writer authority as well, and there are two aspects to modality, based on what direction authority is oriented to. Primarily, the status of the authority of one person pertinent to others, *relational modality* is engaged (the focus of this study). Secondly, a matter of the speaker or writer's authority in regard to the truth or possibility of a depiction of reality is presented, *expressive modality* (Fairclough, 1989; Downing & Locke, 2006). Relational modality is demonstrated by modal auxiliary verbs like *may*, *must*, *should*, *can*, *ought*, etc., as follows adopted from Halliday (1994, p. 362):

TABLE 4
MODAL VERBS

	Low politeness	Median politeness	High politeness
Positive	Can, may, could, might	Will, would, should, shall	Must, ought to, need, has/had to
Negative	Needn't, need to, have to	Won't, wouldn't, shouldn't	Mustn't, oughtn't to, can't, couldn't, mayn't, mightn't, hasn't/hadn't to

Modal auxiliaries are implicit means of modality of possibility and necessity with high, median and low standards. Based on Halliday's (1994) categorization, *have to*, *must*, *need* and *ought to* are modal verbs of high standard, *would*, *will*, *shall*, and *should* are modal verbs of median standard, and *can*, *may*, *might*, and *could* of low standard. Fairclough (2003) proposes that in terms of grammatical choices, a key dimension of the analysis involves investigating modality which represents outlooks into commitments to truth, obligation and necessity. For instance:

(12) ...but teachers **must** inspire; principals **must** lead; parents **must** instill a thirst for learning; and students, you've **got to** do the work. ... I promise we **can**

the modal (*must*) is employed three times and *have got to* and *can* are applied once in the above example which are expressing strong conviction based on deduction or inference from evidence; they display obligation, i.e., authority's attitude oblige them to do so. Obligation can be thought of an inevitable duty or requirement, realized by *must*, *have (got) to* and *must* can have the force of a direct command. This force grows out of the fact that in definite cultural contexts, the speaker has authority over the audience, and the speaker takes the responsibility for the action being conducted.

TABLE 5
MODALITY ANALYSIS OF THE SPEECHES

Texts	Total No.	Low value			Median value			High value		
		Positive	Negative	Total	Positive	Negative	Total	Positive	Negative	Total
1	1548	3	5	8	16	2	18	4	4	8
2	7073	37	12	49	78	15	93	11	22	33
3	4548	42	10	52	48	6	54	18	8	20
4	4042	18	2	20	30	3	33	21	11	32
5	2071	15	3	18	15	5	20	2	-	2
Total	19282	115	32	147	187	31	218	56	45	95
		0.59%	0.16%	0.76%	0.96%	0.16%	1.13%	0.29%	0.23%	0.49%

The above table (5) depicts the frequency and percentage of modal auxiliaries exploited by Mr. Obama in the speeches. According to the statistics, it is manifest that modal verbs are used to refer broadly to a speaker's outlook and judgment towards the truth of a statement expressed by a sentence with an average of 2.38 % in the whole speeches. The high percentage of the application of modal verbs is proper to the speaking since the addresses are delivered in spoken form. In comparison to other verbs, modal auxiliaries are more readily pinpointed and then admitted, due to the fact that, at the time of listening to the speeches, the audience has no time to ponder. Consider the following examples:

(13) a. *Finally, ... defense budget that **will** flow from this strategy. The details **will** be announced Some **will** no...; others **will** say that It **will** be easy to But I'd encourage....*

b. *Some **may** be Democrats. Some **may** be Republicans. But that doesn't matter.*

c. *We **can** give... or we **can** start.... We **can** help big factories.... We **can** create a million*

The above instances represent different modalities by which the speaker commit themselves to his statements to varying degrees. The speaker puts himself in a position whereby he can give the audience permission or obligate them to do something. It is worthy of mention that in order to withhold permission from, or impose obligations upon the audience, the orator based on the authority and power relations employs various modalities in various topics. It is accurately implicit authority claims and implicit power relations of the sort elaborated here that make relational modality a matter of ideological interest.

2 Passive Voice

Many CDA studies conclude that political commitments and the power hierarchy in social relations are elements that specify linguistic choices such as nominalization and passivization. Fairclough's studies (1989, 2003) have indicated the ideological effects in discursive constructions. Generally, obscuring the act of agency is typically attained by the use of the passive voice and nominalization. Passivization represents the speaker or writer the option to remove the agent altogether, known as an agentless passive construction (Simpson, 1993). In passive clauses, the agent in fact becomes a circumstance, and circumstances can be left out without making the sentence ungrammatical, e.g.-- *Chris was killed in the city that he helped to save--* This sentence is, grammatically, a perfectly acceptable clause, even though it has no Agent (Renkema, 2009). It is obvious that, in this instance, the passive voice foreground the themes and background the agents. In these texts, passive voices are mostly accompanied by nominalization each of which tends to provide the anonymity of the agents. There are 124 passive sentences used in the speeches in which the agents are intentionally left implicit and silenced. Consider the following example:

(14) *On the same day our civilians **were killed** in Benghazi, a Turkish police officer **was murdered** in Istanbul ...; more than 10 Yemenis **were killed** in ...; several Afghan children **were mourned** by...they **were killed** by a suicide bomber in Kabul.*

The use of all above passive voices might be due to the fact that the impact of the action is much more important than the actor. As van Dijk (2000) argues, the agency might be regarded less prominent by shifting the expression as in: '*a suicide bomber killed several Afghan children*' into '*several Afghan children were killed by a suicide bomber*'. Indeed, the agent at times may be totally left hidden by passive as in: '*several Afghan children were killed*' or by employing the nominalization such as '*Killing of Afghan Children*'; in which the last one represses the agency of such gross misconduct. It is claimed that such a strategy encrypts ideological bias in favor. Thus, responsible individuals are defocused and removed from the surface realization of the process, and are concealed from the readers of the text or the audience of the speech. Other expressions comprised of passive sentences are as follows:

(15) a. *The impulse ... may initially **be focused** on..., but over time it **cannot be contained**. The same impulses toward extremism **are used** to justify....*

b. *Over the next few years, big decisions **will be made** in Washington....*

c. *Terrorist plots **must be disrupted**. Europe's crisis **must be contained**.*

Closer scrutiny of the speeches reveals that all the utilized strategies and devices in this study permeate in most paragraphs as follows:

(18) *This is the **choice** we now face. This is what the **election** comes down to. Over and over, **we've been told** by our opponents that **bigger tax cuts** and **fewer** regulations ... government **can't** do everything, it **should** do almost nothing. **If** you **can't** afford **health** insurance, **If** a company releases toxic **pollution** into the ..., well, that's the price of **progress**. **If** you **can't** afford to start ..., take my opponent's **advice** and*

In the above example, all strategies such as nominalization (*choice, election, tax cuts, health insurance, pollution, progress, and advice*), parallelism (*this is, if clauses*), antithesis (*bigger-fewer*), expletive (*over and over*), unification (*we, our*), modal verbs (*can't, should*) and eventually, passivization (*we've been told*) are used to indicate Mr. Obama's art of oratory and political rhetoric.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The discussion of the findings is explicated as follows and in terms of IGM, they corroborate Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) proposal that a material process type should be dominant in the analysis of IGM or transitivity. Revising the annals of GM indicates that IGMs are highly significant since they compress information and effectively systematize known information. Nominalization boosts the density of the information and improve the content of utterances through making sentences into a noun or noun phrases.

After analyzing these speeches based on nominalization, the results display that the most frequently employed types of IGM in these texts are types 1 and 2, i.e., being quality to entity (*prosper* to *prosperity*), and being process to entity (*grow* to *growth*) respectively; and the most dominant processes are material (881), based on action and happening, and relational (542) which are based on being and having. Nominalizations in these texts amount to 1682 expressions and the proportion of all processes to the whole words is 8.7 % and this excessive use of material processes is quite dramatic in terms of power relations. Halliday and Matthiessen's (2004) argue that if one tends to deploy power, it is more

effectual to deploy it within the domain of doing rather than other processes, because it is not easy to affect how people think, as compared with utilizing physical element to influence how they act. Consequently, it is fundamental to specify who gets to be the doer, where material processes are used.

Unlike material clauses symbolizing the doings of the participants in this study, relational clauses furnish descriptive information about the appearance of the phenomena and the qualities of the pertinent participants. In addition to relational processes, other types of processes, in terms of frequency, are conveyed by mental, verbal, behavioral and existential respectively. In contrast to relational processes concentrating on categorization and explication, mental processes are involved in the depiction of the participants' thoughts, affection and cognition. They reflect the orator's perceptual changes and represent ideologies resided in his consciousness. Verbal processes also indicate the symbolic activities of saying and permit the political orators to voice their concern, objection, sympathy and so on.

In terms of IGM some implications are drawn up to equip those who are pursuing their career as professional political writers or involved in political studies or political pedagogy. It is hoped that studies like this can pave the path by providing effective, efficient and informative particulars and facts for researchers, instructors and EFL students involved in writing, investigating and reading political discourse. Knowing about grammatical complexity of language and the way it works to condense information can also shed light on the seamless process of translation, since translation demands good command of English viz GM and IGM. Lastly, other functions of IGM such as condensation, lexical density, conceptualization, and formality can assist EFL and ESL students to improve their writing and reading.

As shown in the data analysis, some of the rhetorical strategies are regarded as transitional apparatus, as well as to aid the orator to move seamlessly from one portion to another like *expletive*, while others are employed to represent evidence or information as strongly as possible as *antithesis*. Still others help associate the whole topics together, making them cohesive, focused, convincing and intentional such as *parallelism*. Simply put, rhetoric grants you a great deal of power with which to communicate your message by provoking an emotive reply, arousing powerful imagery, or calling upon reliable authorities.

Analyzed CDA concepts in the study are modal verbs and passive voicing. CDA can be practiced for portraying, interpreting, inquiring, and critiquing social context and ideologies reflected in texts. CDA aims to systematically look into relationships between discursive practices, the structural form of language and the external social world (Rogers, 2011). In data analysis, it was noticed that Passivization and nominalization go hand in hand in most clauses and complement each other well. Through Passivization, information about agents at the sentence level are omitted and this agentlessness in clauses is most often achieved by metaphoricality and the use of passive verbs. The passive voices are impressively applied in the context illuminating the serious repercussions of worldwide and nationwide challenges, Mr. Obama's political opponents' actions, his Administration's and people's rights and responsibilities, his office's international diplomacy, terrorism etc. In some sentences, the orator has used by-passive voices (the use of the agent at the end of the clause) to de-emphasize the agent and underscore the event and action. However, in most cases the agent is totally removed and left implicit due to several reasons such as to avoid giving or taking blame or responsibility, to emphasize the effect or action, to make events seem more abstract, or to conceal responsibilities of certain individuals.

To sum up, the analysis of Mr. Obama's 2012 speeches infers that the addresses were prepared by a deft orator and are not impromptu speeches. Meanwhile, multiple linguistic and rhetorical strategies are exploited for the efficiency of the speeches. They are inextricably intertwined and, at times, it is hard to uncouple one from another as they are often multifunctional. The tendency and priority to apply more nominalization, passivization and modal verbs by the political orator in Mr. Obama's speeches are the vital reasons for making his language powerful, impressive, persuasive and ambiguous as well. Primarily, by metaphorizing a process and passive voicing, Mr. Obama can mirror a fact, or express his intended meanings implicitly as in a compact and dense forms. Secondly, nominalization is a means to assist him to expand his discussion cohesively and step by step, which employs compound passages encapsulated in nominal forms as theme. Finally, nominalizations construct and contribute to abstraction, generalization, impersonality, objectification, information load, language economy and cohesion, ambiguity and, of course, beauty of the texts. Upon listening as well as reading Obama's speeches, it will be noticed that, in nearly all paragraphs, there are some eye-catching tropes along with plenty of recurrent syntactical and lexical clauses attracting the audience and readers attention. Besides, it is immediately apparent from the selected speeches that President Obama relies heavily on rhetorical devices, particularly, parallelism tropes and unification strategy. Rhetorical devices investigated in the study are used as persuasiveness properties to improve the effectiveness, clarity, and beauty of the speeches. The aims are to persuade, to inform, to convey personal ideologies, to emphasize inter-relatedness of delivered messages, to signify differentiation, and to demonstrate orator's solidarity with the audience.

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Edward Bond's Call for Justice in *Summer*

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Abstract—English playwright Edward Bond is a playwright with strong sympathy toward the lower class. *Summer* is his first play to address the problem of social injustice and violence in the modern world. On the basis of close reading, this paper discloses the paralleled ignorance of injustice in both Xenia and the ex-German soldier. What Xenia did to Marthe in peace is just like what the ex-German soldier did to her family in the war. But both of them fail to see their wrong doings due to their ignorance of justice. The aim of this paper is to present Bond's vision of such an issue, his highlight on the importance of struggling for humanness and justice in an inhuman and unjust world, by which the lost dignity of man can be restored.

Index Terms—*Summer*, Edward Bond, justice, humaneness

I. BOND'S CONCERN OF JUSTICE

British literature is renowned for its great tradition of drama. As one among hundreds of great British dramatists, contemporary playwright Edward Bond is worldly famous for his ceaseless struggle in calling for a justified modern society in his works and career, although he is turning eighty years old. His plays probe causes, and disclose effects. "In a Bondian sense, art must deal with the conflict between ideal justice and a wrong interpretation of the justice by ruling class." (TAKKAÇ, 2009, p. 114) In 2001, when John Tusa from BBC Radio interviewed Edward Bond on the problems that he thought people have in general, Bond defined the nature of the contemporary age not as "postmodern" but as "posthumous".¹ In Bond's opinion, human being has ceased to create humaneness at this age. "Bond is a socialist, personally convinced of the revolutionary potential of the working class in this country." (Coult, 1977, p. 62) He is very much dissatisfied with the capitalist system, thinking the capitalist society ruled by money and power has grinded every one down and destroyed their souls. He directs our attention to the consumer culture, pointing out it is obvious that in the world not many citizens can actually afford to enjoy the benefits of technological development. What goes with material affluence is spiritual poverty and injustice.

In the interview, the state of modern societies is sharply criticized as the lifestyles they propaganda are so contrary to the natural, innate expectations that human beings are born with. Bond believes that children are born to see that the world should be like their home. Living in the world should be just like living at home; human relations should be as harmonious as that of a family. As children grow, this need develops into an advanced concept of justice, i.e. that the world is supposed be a home for everybody. In Bond's words, justice cannot be more than this. However, justice becomes corrupted by capitalist society. People can kill for want of "a right pair of shoes". We are seduced by wants and cease to pursue humanness however existential that need is.

Bond thinks that the human mind must be equipped with the wish for justice, which is regarded by him as the creative law of the universe. Otherwise humanity can never be achieved and modern consumerism will certainly swallow us. As our current social and economic systems are corrupted with various kinds of injustice and inequality, Bond keeps creating plays to warn his audience their existence and the necessity to guard and fight against it. *Summer* (1980), Bond's second play for the National Theatre, is widely accepted by many critics such as David L. Hirst, James E. Young and Mark Armory as a reminiscent war play. However, we can go a step further to regard it as one of such plays to show the injustice that we acquiesce to happen, we permit and we indeed commit all the time. The ultimate horror is not the scenes of war and violence witnessed in the play. What lies deeper is the system and philosophy which gives rise to war and violence.

II. *SUMMER*: A NEW PLAY OF BOND

Summer is written under great influence of Chekhov and acknowledged as Bond's "most reflective and lyrical play to date" (Marowitz, 1973, p. 128). In 1996, Bond translated Chekhov's *Three Sisters* for the Royal Court Theatre. In Chekhovian plays, the focus is usually on the ordinary and everyday life and characters remember the past, suffer in the present, and think about the future. *Summer* proves such strategies of Chekhov have given Bond no less influence. There are five characters in the play, an upper class woman Xenia, her former servant Marthe, their children Ann and David, and an ex-Nazi soldier. Like most of Chekhov's plays, *Summer* starts hopefully on an arrival and ends disappoint with a departure to a coastal town², while the "visit" itself takes an emotional toll on the characters involved.

The play sets in Eastern Europe, Xenia and her daughter Ann leave London to have a yearly vacation in the coastal

¹ See the script of the interview at: <http://www.bbc.co.uk/radio3/johntusainterview/bond_transcript.shtml>

² The exact name of the island town is not given.

town once owned by Xenia's family. Before the war, Xenia lived in abundance with her well-to-do family on the island. They could afford to keep servants. Marthe was one of the servants they kept. However, war changed and destroyed their life, brought her family loss, pain and exile. The German army confiscated their property, imprisoned her father. She was banished from the island in the Mediterranean Sea where they used to live. Years later, when she returns to the island as a summer holiday tourist, she and her daughter encounter Marthe and her son David in her old residence. She also meets an ex-German soldier guilty of committing war crimes on her family, a tourist too. Both encounters provoke very unpleasant memories about the war.

As what often described by Chekhov, things change with time passing, the old die while the young start new lives, and the audience is left to contemplate the meaning of the play. However, in Chekhov social and historical references tend to illuminate and deepen the psychological reality of individual characters. In *Summer*, Bond reverses the equation to suggest that the ordinary people interpret the social-historical matters. Xenia and Ann stay with Marthe who became a caretaker of the holiday flats since WWII. Marthe is discovered to have been living a second life as the survivor of a Nazi prison camp and is now terminally ill. As Marthe's doctor, David is getting ready for his mother's death as supposed a son should be. Xenia and Marthe speak of the past days with some kind of indication they have not done so before. However, Marthe's impending death emotionally charges the situation and allows them to speak, to each other and to Ann, in a way they might otherwise not.

As most reviewers and professional readers noted, the uncertainty and confusion created by delayed exposition creates a high degree of the play's tension; however, the slow reconstruction of the past, and the potential depth it empowers to the characters, is hardly the play's only goal. Nevertheless, the contrasting figures of Marthe and Xenia present the audience with an argument about the meaning of the past, without which, Bond argues, the meaning of "the present" cannot be truly discovered. Marthe, Xenia, and the German tourist, who appears in Scene Four, have survived the big war, suffered family losses, and witnessed cruelties. In the course of three quite common days, the central characters relive, from a distance, that history, which proves to be "shared" in only the most superficial sense. Their talk not only centers on the past, but in relation to it, their present behavior (even down to the most minimal gestures) reflects different class perspectives, different values, different lifestyles and attitudes. Different from Chekhov's characters who often carry with themselves some basic, universal level of humanity, Bond's *Summer* suggests that humanity itself is still in the process of being made, and may be earned and forfeited over time.

In terms of dramatic form and theatrical style, *Summer* is totally different from anything he had written before. "He writes about the effects upon the human spirit of a violent environment. ...prevents the violence from titillating, however much it may shock." (Trussler, 1976, p. 3) Before *Summer*, Bond mainly present extreme scenes of horror and violence on the stage, which is characterized by *Saved*, *Lear*, *Early Morning* and *Restoration*. However, *Summer* doesn't intend to shock. It is more of reminiscent style and featured with thought-provoking dialogues or arguments. Harsh scenes about the war are indirectly presented through dialogue rather than ruthlessly exhibited on the stage. There are strands of action overlapping and intersecting in the play. Marthe is deeply suffering from cancer. Her impending death allows them to speak to each other with unexpected passion. They argue with each other over justice and refuse to be reconciled. Xenia encounters face to face with a former German Nazi soldier. The second generation David and Ann cautiously start an affair, using love-making to reclaim the island and part at the end of the play. With time passing by, the old die, the young start new lives, things go on the direction not as the old expect them to go, only leaving the audience to contemplate the meaning of all, which is often found in the theatre of Chekhov.

III. PARALLELED IGNORANCE OF JUSTICE

In *Summer*, the subject of injustice is explored in details by Bond. The play lays its focus on the aftermath of WWII, the memories of it and the mass destruction caused by it. The question of whether human mind has improved further enough to learn anything from the horrible mistakes committed by ourselves in the past is set between the lines. Superficially the plot addresses a summer vacation which brings several people to meet at the Mediterranean coast. But in fact, the play explores class conflict and long standing injustices which bring open violence and wars in our society.

It's not until Scene Three that the past gets fully revealed, and the future reflected at the end, retrospectively suggests the play's first two scenes in which the tension of the play is mainly between the two women. "The central revelation of the scene is two-fold: during the war Xenia saved Marthe's life, and after the war Marthe testified against Xenia's father." (Spencer, 1992, p. 211) Even after so many years, Martha's scorn and hatred towards Xenia's family has not lessened in degree, as if she has been suffering from a trauma which can never be erased. The scene in which Marthe spits on Xenia's face best illustrates her accumulated hatred, which is the proof that Martha's scars on the soul can never be healed. As a servant in Xenia's family, the way she was treated by the society was inhuman and degrading. They were forced to take their inferiority for granted and think it as something natural and something they were predestined to have. To her, the limited kindness given by Xenia and her family was absolutely meaningless because the conditions in the whole society reduced her life to mere servitude and survival. As she says in the play, "What decides our lives is not what the owners are like. You can live without kindness, you can't live without justice – or fighting to get it." (Bond, 2002, p. 370) What Marthe truly wants is justice, not kindness. Since her life was barely worth living and meaningless in the unjust society she was in, she could not feel gratitude to Xenia for saving her life from the Nazi soldiers. What Xenia does cannot be judged as wrong doing, but characteristically inappropriate. Without hope for enjoying the same

property as her owner, without hope for keeping a decent living, without hope for escape, Marthe was overwhelmed with a strong sense of dissatisfaction and contempt.

Bond's attitude is represented by the speech of Marthe right up until the moment of her death, false kindness and limited sympathy is not enough to correct the destiny of the lower classes. To restore human dignity, what we need is a radical change in people's minds and the structure of society. To achieve full justice and make the world a better place, it is necessary to reexamine and restructure the fundamental human relations.

In another speech of Marthe, she makes this point even more clearly. When Xenia insists that Marthe should have the sense of guilt for showing evidence against her father and accuses her of being ungrateful, Marthe answers in this way:

"What guilt? Let us talk about ourselves. People in my generation had to depend on your family in order to live. But why should that have been? Your kindness made us beggars. It made some of us grateful, which was worse. There can never be enough kindness to make the world human. If you spent your life being kind people would still die of ignorance and neglect. Much more is needed... The foundations of your world were crooked so everything in it was crooked. Your kindness, consideration, consistency were meaningless. And the good you did was meaningless. In your world the good did evil. What could be worse?" (Bond, 2002, p. 392).

No matter how far two mothers have led their disagreement, their children Ann and David secretly fall into a love affair. The point that Bond is trying to vindicate through such a plot designing is that children should not continue their older generation's misunderstanding, hatred and conflict. "O she knows too much about the past. It would be a terrible wrong to a child to force it to fight its parents' battles." (Bond, 2002, p.361) Although experience from the past is of referential value in order to learn how to live the present life. For the hope of building a more peaceful and balanced society, Bond suggests in the play that new generation should throw away hatred of the older generation and bring a new vision of tolerance, mutual respect and justice.

Starting from Scene Three, the play shifts from the theme of social issues to the theme of war. Xenia met a German who once invaded the island and comes back as a tourist with his son and daughter in law. The fact that he was a German soldier in WWII tells his involvement in crimes committed on the island. However, after many years he appears at the crime scene without any sense of guilt. What his unit did to the island was terrible. They slowly turned the island into the place of death. They tortured people and kept them as hostages in small huts. Being frantic in the crowded rooms, the natives didn't know what was facing them the next day. When more and more people were killed, the island became too small bury them all. So, the Germans simply throw the victims into the sea. When they find this was not time and money consuming to bury the victims, they just treat them as human waste.

Like Xenia's ignorance about her exploitation of the poor, the German soldier is ignorant about their crime on the natives of the island. He is completely misled by the Nazi glorification of the Arian race in their propaganda, stubbornly holds that what the Nazi soldiers did in the past was for the good of the whole mankind. His mind has not changed even so many years after the war, and there is no burden on his conscience. He is still convinced that the mission of German soldiers was just and righteous, what they did was to eliminate everything defective for the benefit of a more purified and civilized planet. So, he still claims to Xenia that their task was not to destroy but to defend.

The German soldier even justified his wrong doing by saying that he was just a small part in the mechanism of Nazi, thinking that this can give him an excuse. He transfers all the blame on war ideology and the army leaders who were in charge.

"That's an army for you. Take the clothes off your back and put you in uniform. Take your name and give you a number. Take your head and stuff it with orders." (Bond, 2002, p.384)

However, according to Bond, although he was not the one to issue the orders, he did join the group to perform them without questioning, which really matters and cannot be denied. However insignificant he was in the military hierarchy, his stealing of war ideology to wash his hands cannot restore his innocence.

The soldier's monstrosity shocks Xenia. It is unexpected for her to see that who can be so calm and insensitive after committing such extreme crimes. "You invade us, bomb us, rob us, for our good!" (Bond, 2002, p.386), she utters in big rage. It is hypocrite to say you do that from clemency after hurting someone and curbing his freedom.

As the viewers gradually realizes, Xenia's real life ended long ago; for her, the war and its aftermath "ruined everything," and the memory of that leisured, comfortable life is beautifully envisioned:

"When I was a girl we went to the islands almost every day in the summer...Mother and father would bring their friends for the day. There was always some young man who could play the mandolin. The women sat under silk sunshades and the men rolled up their trouser-legs and stood in the shallows to fish... In those days my happiness frightened me – it was so great I thought I would die of it." (Bond, 2002, p.397)

However, what Xenia fails to see is that there is a parallel between what the German soldiers did to her family in the war and what she and her class of people did to Marthe and the lower classes in peace.

"In the play it is Xenia's family who are therefore as much to blame as the Nazis whom they pretended to assist in order to betray their plans to the partisans. Xenia finds it impossible to understand how her father could have been arrested by the very partisan... - as Marthe points out- 'the foundations of your world were crooked and so everything in it was crooked.'" (Hirst, 1985, p. 85)

The strong tie lies between these two subjects is the injustice that the strong gives to the weak. The difference is just in the scale of damage, one being tangible and obvious, and the other less visible, but more durable and hard to be

removed. Their ignorance of their own injustice makes them moral cripples.

IV. CALLING FOR JUSTICE

In his essay "The Rough Notes on Justice", Bond provides his own formulation of the meaning of the word "justice". In Bond's opinion, this notion can be understood as interplay of three separate entities. In the first place, there should be legal justice to ensure that everyone is equal before the law. Second, there should be fair economic and organizational principles to shape the society we live in. This social order will reflect the social justice that exists in one society. Third, there should be equal distribution of power. In *Summer*, the characters' identities are established in relationship to certain economic and power distribution, and not until that distribution has been fully revealed is the onstage situation, or its meaning, entirely grasped by the audience.

According to Bond, the quantity of power one has decides the amount of justice one can get and the kind of legal protection one can be served. However, the capitalist social system which is expressed by the amount of money one possesses. The more money one has, the more power and justice he obtains. "Each human being undergoes a similar dehumanizing experience under the pressure of socialization" (Castillo, 1986. p. 81). Bond perceives it is exactly this unequal distribution of power to be the block in all attempts to create a just society. That is why *Summer* draws the map of a society which is ruled with entrenched relationships, such as repression and submission, superiority and inferiority, dominance and impotence. In *Summer*, the gap between social structures is large and class differences are obvious. This can be nothing else but outcome of unjust social principles.

In each society, those who have no financial influence are usually the ones blamed for most of the ills. If a poor person commits a crime, he certainly gets the deserved punishment. But nobody tries to investigate what causes his committing crimes and what dissatisfaction he is with life? Since the connection between financial power and social problems is not clear, Bond is concerned for the fact that the poor, the unemployed, the working classes are driven to the verge of madness is not perceived by the uncaring and unperceptive public. (Bond, 2000, p.37) Taken as villains and criminals, these people are put in prison cells and execution chambers. The upper class only charges them for their sins. In such a way they become victims of social injustice. In *Summer*, such kind of ignorance the upper class held toward the lower class is evident as they decide everything and compel the lower class to accept whatever they decide. What American theatre director Peter Sellars³ says can best illustrate this: "We make policies for homeless people thinking we understand them well. Actually, we know nothing about them except our prejudice." (Sellars, 2013).

Edward Bond sees the difficult position of the lower classes clearly. In a society ruled by strict hierarchy, those at the bottom of the social ladder get little chances to meet with the demands of this modern age. They seem to be driven out of the social competition, which can provoke in them rejection and despair. Their condition is made worse and worse by constantly being reminded that they are unfit to be part of the global stage. Like American writer August Wilson calls, "You don't count if you can't consume." So, Bond urges that our society should change from how to punish transgression to how to stop crime and violence, how to prevent it and avoid it. It is more important to react before crime happens rather than after it takes place.

As far as Bond is concerned, "the struggle for humanness is the foundation of the human psyche" (Bond, 2001, p.312), the best deterrent to guard against crime is justice. "The present social order is in its own form of violence, and that man can change his society." (Jones, 1980, p. 517) The criminality that generates crime must be studied and discussed. Since most social programs which should bring reforms are not seriously taken into consideration and put into practice, he accuses the government of not doing its best in reintegrating the lower class back into society:

"Those who govern do not know what a person is. And the governed do not know what a government should be. Instead the evil do evil and because there is no justice the good must do evil. How else can they govern the prison they live in?" (Bond, 2000, p. 2)

Since the gap can not be healed one day, Sellars suggests that the upper class should not turn their backs to the other, fear them and demonize them. The upper class should first be open to the lower class and accept their ignorance to their interest as part of our reality that has to be accounted for, which is exactly what Bond calls for in *Summer*, "for he knows that any change will be slow and difficult" (Jones, 1980, p. 517).

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The Perks of Politeness Translation Strategies

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Abstract—Translation of polite expressions is an arduous task of the translator. Every culture presents its own system of polite expression in the source language. Therefore, the translator should prepare the mutual situation in source and target language in order to convey the near sense of polite expressions. Politeness Principles (PP) and Positive-Negative Politeness were proposed by Geoffrey Leech (1983) and Brown-Levinson (1987) respectively. The present paper seeks to find some translation strategies in dealing with polite expressions across cultures. And finally, this study is based on the English-Italian instances to test the workability of the defined politeness translation strategies to see the similarities and difference between the intended languages.

Index Terms—translation of polite expressions, culture, Politeness Principle, Positive-Negative Politeness, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

A. A Brief Description of Politeness in Translation

Politeness is a speech event which is of great importance in translation as the main transference essence in cross-cultural communication. Politeness is the natural phenomenon amongst people but it needs more considerable attention in cross-cultural communication. Generally speaking, when the translator know how to deal with grammatical structure of the Target Language, then he or she should prepare the situation to deal with pragmatic aspects of language such as politeness (either on record, bald on record, or off record), Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID), presuppositions, and implicatures.

With the amelioration of economic trade amongst cultures, the need to perceive the source and target language is of great rigorous. Each culture has its own system of transferring polite words to others. It can be said that politeness intensification is of great importance for renderer to translate and then transfer them to the target reader. But, sometimes cultural overlaps will be pernicious in the target language. For instance, the Russian language does not utilize the "Please" word in formal situation (Oxenden and Latham-Koenig, American English File, 2008, p.38). While in British culture, the word "Please" has the most intensifying appellation amongst people. How can the Russian renderer deal with this situation to transfer the exact content of the source language without any chops and changes? Or, how can a Japanese Translator transfer the social deixis (both relational and absolute) to English translation and make the same understanding in the target language (Archer, Aijmer, Wichmann, 2012, p.27). The other note will be Face Threatening Act which should be done very cautiously in politeness. In some situations, the translator should decrease the sense of face threatening act in the target language or should somehow modify the structure of the politeness when transferring the content. But the very important fact is that he or she should determine the red line in his or her translation. Passing the red line means breaking the laws of translation and changing the content thoroughly. According to Hatim and Mason (1997, p.147), the translator should be a mediator between the source and target languages. They defined mediation "the extents to which translators intervene in the transfer process, feeling their own knowledge and belief into processing the text." But in this direction, some translators depend themselves to notion of "Les Belles Infidèles" which means "translation as being *belles* (beautiful) and *Infidèles* (unfaithful)" (Chamberlain, 1998/2000, p.315)." In this track, they devote themselves to natural equivalence or one to one correspondence and they want to build up the similar situation in the target language. This strategy was well-adapted in the time of Structuralism who studies the inner-relations in the language system. How can the translator prepare the outer situations in the target language? As it can be understood, pragmatic markers such as politeness, face want are in outer layer of language system. They should be conveyed systematically which bear no offensive track in target language. Therefore, the translator should scrutinize the **language resistancy** prior to the act of translation (Akbari, 2011). The note to be considered will be the role of "decoding ability" in translation of politeness. Decoding ability in any language involves at least four principal levels: (1) the capacity of children whose vocabulary and cultural experience are limited. (2) The double standard of capacity of new literates, who can decode oral message with facility but whose ability to decode written message is limited. (3) the capacity of average literate adult, who can handle both oral and written messages with relative ease; and (4) the unusually high capacity of specialists (doctors, theologians, philosophers, scientists, etc.), when they are decoding messages within their own area specialization (Eugene Nida, 1964, p.156-171). Transferring the politeness strategies in these four groups can be an arduous task. Saturation of the needs of the target reader requires utilizing some new strategies in translation which can connect the reader or hear to the text and preventing any incoming premonition in rendering.

B. *The Scope of Study*

In order to get an exact understanding, this study seeks to investigate the perks of politeness strategies in translation of English-Italian sentences to see the discrepancies between these two languages ins and outs. This study covers new politeness strategies in translation to meet the needs of the target reader in this direction.

C. *The Significance of Study*

The author anticipates some new strategies when dealing in every situation both theoretically and practically. Theoretically in a way that is completely utilizable amongst various cultures and practically for those who want to inspect the nature of politeness strategies in translation to procure an incredible interpretation or rendering in the target language and depict the deference strategy (Yule, 1947, p.66) of the source language.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. *Politeness as an Integral Part in Human Interaction*

Leech (1983, p.1) was depicted communication as problem-solving task. Using language appropriately means that the speaker wants to build up the best frame in the hearer's consciousness. In this direction, the hearer makes some efforts to understand the real want of the speaker. Therefore, the hearer and speaker should interact correctly in order to build an understandable bridge between them.

B. *Grice's Cooperative Principle*

In order to build and make a meaningful communication, the hearer and the speaker should cooperate with each other. It should be noted that this cooperation is merely mutually exclusive and both of the parties should assume themselves in the circle of interaction. Grice (1975) stated that "our talk exchanges do not normally consist of a succession of disconnected remarks, and would not be rational if they did. They are characteristically, to some degree at least, cooperative efforts; and each participant recognizes in them, to some extent, a common purpose or a set of purpose, or at least a mutually accepted direction. We might then formulate a rough general principle which participants will be expected (*ceteris paribus*) to observe, viz: 'Make your contribution such as required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged. One might label this the Cooperative Principle."

Grice categorizes the Cooperative Principle into four categories which they very necessary for achieving an efficient communication between the parties. They are as follows:

(I) **Quantity Maxim**

- (1) Make your contribution as informative as required (for the current purpose of the exchange).
- (2) Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

(II) **Quality Maxim**

Try to make your contribution one that is true. (1) Do not say what you believe to be false. (2) Do not say that for which you lack evidence.

(III) **Relation Maxim**

Be relevant

(IV) **Manner Maxim**

Be perspicuous. (1) Avoid obscurity of expression. (2) Avoid ambiguity. (3) Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity). (4) Be orderly

It is completely natural to say that real languages do not always comply with Cooperative Principle. In this direction, one might say that politeness principle comes from the violation of the above-mentioned process of Cooperative Principle. Therefore, it should be considered that these four categories are not the absolute license of every culture. All cultures can be able to add some maxims they want and then they can break them. Grice's theory has been criticized from various angles. For instance, Thomas (1994, p.760) addressed that "Grice own definition of the Cooperative Principle is ambiguous and inconsistent." Then he said that different interpretations come from the Grice's maxims and "the very term Cooperation is misleading, since what in everyday term would be seen as highly uncooperative behavior, such as arguing, lying, hurling abuse, may yet be perfectly cooperative according to some interpretations of Grice's (1975) term." In spite of the intensive critics, Grice's maxims prepare the situation for the diverse studies such as politeness theories.

C. *The Important Theories of Politeness*

Lots of studies would be done about politeness in translation and cross-cultural studies. After Brown and Levinson's (1978) "Universal in language usage: Politeness Phenomena" politeness became the best topic to negotiate amongst translators and linguist. Amongst the linguist, Robin T. Lakoff was the first person who scrutinized politeness in the scope pragmatics. Lakoff defined politeness as (in Eelen, 2001, p.2) "a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimizing the potential for conflict and confrontation inherent in all human exchange." Lakoff (1990) addressed "politeness rule" as:

"[.....] If one seeks to communicate a message directly, if one's principal aim in speaking is communication, one will attempt to be clear, so that there is no mistaking one's intention. If the speaker's principal aim is to navigate somehow or other among the respective statuses of the participants in the discourse indicating where each stands in the speaker's estimate, his aim will be less the achievement of clarity than an expression of politeness, as its opposite."

Another politeness theorist will be Geoffrey Leech (1983) which labeled politeness strategy as part of interpersonal rhetoric. He proposed that in order that politeness would be occurred, communication should break the Grice's conversational maxims. He then proposed Politeness Principle (PP). Leech (1983) said that the Politeness Principle is based on the premise that interlocutor seeks to *minimize the expression of impolite beliefs and maximize the expression of polite beliefs*. Leech (1983, p.132) proposes the categories of his Politeness Principle (PP) which are as follow:

(I) Tact Maxim

- (a) Minimize cost to other
- (b) Maximize benefit to other

(II) Generosity Maxim

- (a) Minimize benefit to self
- (b) Maximize cost to self

(III) Approbation Maxim

- (a) Minimize dispraise of others
- (b) Maximize praise of others

(IV) Modesty Maxim

- (a) Minimize praise of self
- (b) Maximize dispraise of self

(V) Agreement Maxim

- (a) Minimize disagreement between self and other
- (b) Maximize agreement between self and other

(VI) Sympathy Maxim

- (a) Minimize antipathy between self and other
- (b) Maximize sympathy between self and other

In all of these categories, Leech stated that the Politeness Principle cannot be applied for all the cultures and do not cover all aspects of pragmatics. Therefore, it should be noted that the translator must be familiar with socio-pragmatics in order to analyze different cultures and societies. In this regard, Politeness Principle of Leech has been criticized by Watts et al (1992, p.7) in that "far too theoretical to apply to actual language usage and too abstract to account for either the commonsense notion of politeness or some notion which fits into a general theory of social interaction."

The last politeness theory is pertained to Penelope Brown and Stephan C. Levinson. Brown and Levinson (1987, p.59) made an influential situation in politeness theory. It should be mentioned that their theory is based on "face" concept which later defined as public self-image in this direction. Face concept involves into two wide concepts: (1) positive face and (2) negative face. The former deals with solidarity and membership of the speaker and hearer in the circle of interaction, while the latter relates to deference strategy and it frees own self from imposition. This theory expounds that most of the speech acts threaten either the hearer's or speaker's face want. In this regard, one must utilize politeness to minimize the possibility of face threatening act (FAT). To cut the long story short, it can be stated that face threatening act can be categorize either off or on record. Off records allude to utterances which are not directly addressed to another. While on records refer to utterances which are directly addressed to another completely. In these two cases, politeness strategy will be of high importance and the translator should be aware of transferring the correct sense of theses stages to saturate the needs of the target reader thoroughly. Brown and Levinson proposed possible politeness strategies which are as follow:

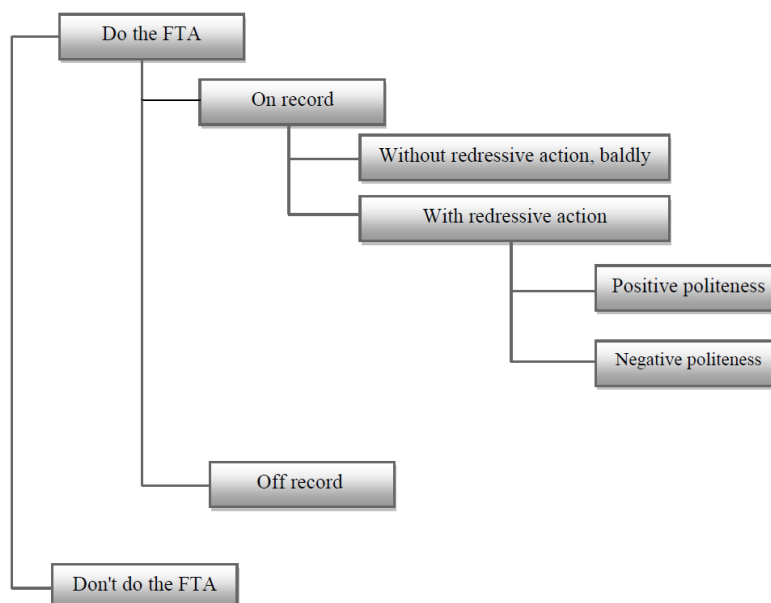


Figure1: Possible politeness strategies pertained to FTA (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p.69)

Among these categories, "off record" may have different interpretation amongst cultures. In this case, the translator cannot resort him or herself to literal or one to one correspondence of the target language. But, the most important fact is that off record strategy can soften the indirectness and then remove threat. And finally, it is well worth saying that the translator should consider all aspects of politeness strategies in order to deal with these kinds of situations to remove any menace for target reader and he or she can transfer the near sense of the source language.

III. POLITENESS TRANSLATION STRATEGIES

In this section, this paper seeks to investigate some strategies in politeness. These kinds of strategies are context-based and the translator should pay attention to the situation of the strategies being utilized in this direction. This paper scrutinizes two kinds of politeness strategies in translation: (1) solidarity (positive) strategies and (2) deference (negative) strategies

A. Solidarity Strategies

(A). Reader Attention

In the circle of communication and interaction, two parties are the most important factor which is well worth attending. In this direction, reader is context-based and needs to be well paid attention. Saturating the needs of the reader is an ordeal task for the translator or interpreter. Some factor should be considered when dealing with the target language in general such as cultural clashes, connotative meaning, and pragmatic circle. In these afore-mentioned cases, language sensitivity is of great importance. For instance, "*Vai ancora a scuola?*" in the Italian language expressed in a friendly way. The reader in this language knew the tone of the sentence but the problem is that how the renderer can be able to transfer the tone of the sentence in the target language and attract the attention of the reader. How can the reader be able to perceive the sense of the text? English language is genderless and cannot be able to ruminate the exact speaker of the text. Therefore it is better to prepare the context for the reader to connect him or herself to the content of the text and let him or her judge about the interpretation of the text. In politeness translation, the translator should pay attention to the speaker of the text. For example, in the Italian language the speaker enunciates the polite words via some vestiges such as "*il Caro*" and "*la Cara*". The former is utilized for the masculine gender and the latter is used for the feminine gender. But the problem is that in the English language, the translator cannot clarify the exact gender of the text and should prepare the context for the reader of the text.

(B). Magnifying

This technique is utilized when the translator wants to show the intensification of the text for the reader. This technique follows the intensifying adverbs such as absolutely, very, too, and really. Whenever these adverbs follow the polite word, they cause the translation more direct and more intensive for the target reader. For instance, "*Veramente, ti voglio molto bend*" in the Italian language contains to important factors such as "*veramente*" and "*ti*". The former expresses the intensive adverb and the latter is gender based pronoun. The interpreter or the translator should be aware of the tone of the sentence and render "*I'm pretty fond of you*". This translation prepares the romantic situation for the reader and reader knows this sentence will be expressed by either a friend or the lover. Magnifying the polite word in translation is of great importance to connect the reader to the source language text. As another example, "*Apprezziamo molto il suo aiuto la scorsa settimana*" in the Italian language contains some element to be noted. First, the adverb "*molto*" acts as the intensifying adverb and then the word "*suo*" acts as a possessive pronoun in this sentence. This

sentence revealed that the speaker wants to prepare the formal situation by using such words. Therefore, the formal rendering of this sentence will be "*we really appreciate your help last week*". Consequently, the reader understands that the possessive pronoun utilizes in the formal way and the addressee will be in high rank.

(C). *Eschewing dispreferred structure*

The well-trained translator should decrease the offensive degree of some expression. In this sense, the inflexible group will be feminine gender who shuns expressing something really clarifying. Therefore, the translator should amalgamate every ilk of people in this track. In this case, the renderer can be able to utilize two techniques (1) using euphemism and (2) seeking common ground which the speaker agrees on. The latter case will not be used for politeness strategies in translation but the latter case will be utilized brilliantly and then lessens the degree of disagreement. For instance,

A- *Bene, ti piace il mio vestito?*

B- *Esso ti addata adeguatamente (il vestito pi ù brutto che abbia mai visuto)*

In this case, the translator should consider the audience or the reader of the text and then he or she has better to use the common ground which the reader will agree on. The English translation of the afore-mentioned sentence will be:

A- *Well, you like my new dress?*

B- *It fits you suitably (the ugliest dress she has ever seen)*

In the English rendering, the translator resorts him or herself to technique of "modulation" (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1958/1995, p.58). The translator changes the direction of the sentence and then lessens the degree of Impoliteness despite his or her will.

(D). *Be Propitious*

This is one technique of politeness in translation which is aimed at minimizing the face threatening act. In this interaction, the speaker, renderer, and the hearer are in the circle of cooperation. The renderer should be aware of the positive outcome of transfer. This technique is the most drastic ones in conveying the main essence of politeness in translation. Optimism is of great importance in simultaneous interpreting. Therefore, in this case, the translator or the interpreter should get fully familiar with the target language. "Be Propitious" is context-based for which the interpreter should regard all aspects of the target culture in order to convey the main content of the source language. For instance, "*Non, ti dispiace se scrivo qui?*" This sentence contains the word "*dispiace*" which is completely polite in the source language. "*Dispiace*" is a speech event which considers the permission-based approach (Archer, Aijmer, Wichmann, 2012, p.43). Therefore, the renderer should translate such sentence as "*Do you mind if I write here?*" the English rendering diminishes face threatening act (FTA) in order to lessen the degree of imposition in the target language.

(E). *Reciprocal Assumption*

This technique is used for highlighting the beneficial relationship. It can be stated that reciprocal assumption is mutually exclusive. Some languages such as the Italian, Persian, Japanese, and Korean languages use compliments as an integral part in speaking. Most of the renderers observe this technique in their translation to show the color of the source language. But the problem is that the other languages such as the English, Russian, and Spanish don't have such compliments in their culture. Therefore, how can the renderer transfer such issues in the target language to saturate the needs of the target reader? In these cases, the translator should make politeness as gloss translation. Or he or she can utilize the technique of "Dash-Array (Darrey)" (Akbari, 2011) to show the generic and specific aspects of gloss translation completely. For example, "*Questo è il tuo turno*" can be translated as "*This is your shot*". These sentences show that the translators adhere themselves to preparatory condition (Archer, Aijmer, Wichmann, 2012, p.38) which expresses that the source language **benefits** the target language. Therefore, it should be stated that politeness theory is coincided to speech event of the target language.

B. *Deference Strategies*

(A). *Indirect Rendering*

This case (Indirect Rendering) is used for formal and official situation. Most of the renderers utilize this technique when dealing with legal text. Legal text should be translated carefully with observing the ranks and statuses. Both the Italian and English languages observe such technique in their translations to remove any offense or obscurity in both source and target languages. In most of the conversations, the speakers use mitigating devices such as "*Please*", "*Could you*", and "*Would you*". Dealing with these deference politeness strategies, the renderer should translate the source words in accordance with the target language to diminish any incoming impositions. Natural equivalence or one to one correspondence is of great importance in this group. Everything can be said is coincided to the target language and vice versa ($A \rightarrow B$ and $B \rightarrow A$). For example, "*Mi pu ò fare un favore per piacere?*" can be rendered naturally as "*Can you do me favor please?*" These two sentences observe the deference politeness strategy and they minimize the effect of face threatening act (FTA) completely. And finally, should the translators encounter direct rendering, they must resort themselves to directional equivalence which is completely culture-based and should be done cautiously to lessen the degree of reader's imposition in the target language.

(B). *Diminishing Imposition*

In translation tasks, the translator can be able to create a rapport amongst the source language, the translation, and the target language. But the important note is that how it is possible to do so. The renderer acts as the mediator between the two poles. Therefore, he or she should lessen the degree of imposition in the target text. Translation is a kind of

business which it tries to connect every group in this circle. In some situations, the renderer or especially the interpreter must modify the degree of politeness in order to meet the needs of the reader. This case is completely context-based. To put it in the nutshell, the translator/interpreter may determine the red line in his or her translation to keep every ilk of people in this regard. Face Threatening Act plays the main role in this case. So, the translator should replace the intended imposition to the less imposition in the target language. As a result, the less the imposition will be, the less the risk of Face Threatening Act. For example, "*Voulo dedicare un po' di tempo per me?*" can be rendered as "Would you devote a little bit time to me?". In the Italian example, the source language utilizes the word "*un po'*" to lessen the degree of imposition in the target language. It should be noted that diminishing imposition s well coincided to indirect speech utilized in formal situation in order to observe the status of the reader or hearer of the text.

(C). *Be ambiguous*

A good rendering is the one which prepare the situation for the reader to judge about the text. A good rendering is the one which put the reader in an uncertain situation. Uncertainty in translation is an asset for the translator to create the unequilibrium scale. But one cautious note should be taken. In which kind of text can the translator create the unequilibrium scale in the target language? For example, in technological or medical text, the translator doesn't allow to pass the red line. Because the afore-mentioned texts are pertained to way of life of people and should not be put in danger by different interpretations. In poetic text, the reader and the renderer can pass the red line and make different interpretations. Because this kind of text is related to feeling of people and the people want to infer what they want. And how will it be relate to politeness in translation? Politeness is the sense of ambiguity in the target text which shows the double-sidedness of the target language. For instance, compliments in eastern countries are norms of life while they have the pejorative meaning in the western countries. In this kind of situation, the translator puts him or herself in a dilemma that he doesn't really know what to do to saturate the needs of the target reader and besides he or she wants to show the system of source language norm. Therefore, the renderer must translate ambiguously to connect these poles. It should be noted that the translator cannot change the meaning of the source text completely. For example, "*Funziona davvero?*" is a kind of ambiguous sentence which let the reader of the text judge about it whatever he or she wants. One of the meanings of the sentence is pertained to literal or natural meaning of the sentence. While other alludes to dysfunctionality of the sentence and it puts the speaker in dilemma. Therefore, literal meaning of the sentence is in accordance with direct meaning and the ambiguous meaning is pertained to indirect meaning of the sentence. As a result, the polite word should be rendered by the norms of the target culture to create a rapport between the poles in translation.

(D). *Rapprochement*

The last technique of politeness translation is to build up the rapport connection between the source and the target languages. Utilizing *rapprochement* in the target text is extremely tied with the type audience of the target language. In these situations, first, the renderer should pay attention to the status or social position of the intended audience. Therefore, the translator should apply mitigating device to remove any offence or disrespect in the target language. Second, the translator should inspect language patterning in this direction. For instance, in the Russian language, the speaker does not use any mitigating devices in his or speaking while in the English language; the speakers always utilize the mitigating device to respect the hearer or reader of the text. Language patterning comes from language sensitivity. It means that, the intended language eschew utilizing the eccentric forms and always it wants to nativize the words and figures them in accordance with the target language (Akbari, 2013, p.24). Therefore, **language patterning** and **decoding ability** in translation of politeness are of great importance. For example, from the long time ago; the English families would be famous for nobility and dignity. In all of the situations, they observed how to use the polite word in their daily conversation to progress their works. So, one might conclude that language patterning of the intended language will be of high respectation.

Last but not least, all of these procedures are well-tested in diverse situations. But the most important fact is that, the translator should render indirectly to respect or defer to every ilk of people. It can be stated that, sometimes these procedures overlap with each other and make rendering difficult to perceive. In these positions, the renderer should put his or her effort to connect the two poles in translation via the technique of **loss and gain**. Loss and gain technique is used in pivotal situation in that it removes some parts of translation and then it utilizes (compensate) in other parts of the translation. It means that the translator wants to keep the source and target languages altogether. Therefore, loss and gain causes the politeness to transfer to the target text completely and saturates the taste of the reader.

IV. DISCUSSION

Every rendition is the symbol of the source language. Therefore, the translator should put his or her effort to show his or her culture brilliantly. Translation of politeness across cultures is an ordeal work. The translator should consider every sort of people, taste, traits, and backgrounds. Every person has his or her own taste of understanding the text. Therefore, the renderer should be cautious in translation of the text. In all these cases, the translator should be well-adapted to transfer and convey the main essence of the source language politeness. Nord defines translation (1997, p.18), "translation as a form of mediated cross cultural communication." It means that, everything can be said in one language, it too can be said in another language as well, but the form is different. Therefore, Nord drew the figure to show the process of transference into the target language:

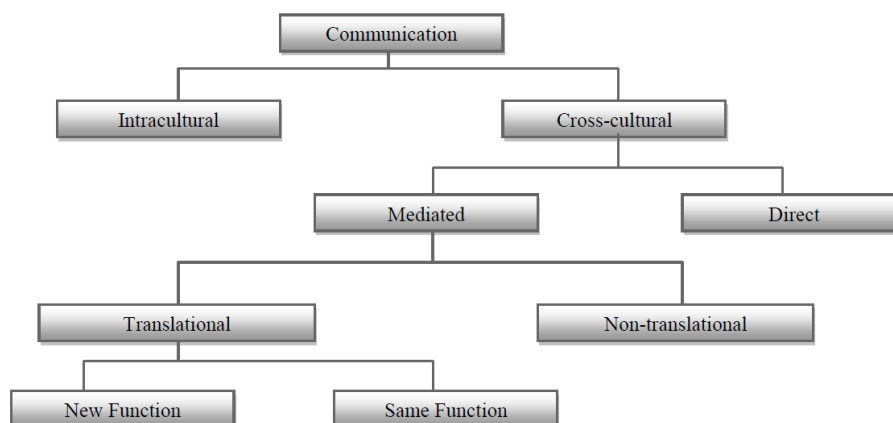


Figure2: Cross-cultural communication

In this figure, the translator is a mediated agent to connect the poles of the source to that of the target one. In this direction, the translator can also use translational and non-translational text to convey the essence of the text. In politeness translation, the renderer can utilize both same and new function. The former will be used for natural equivalence. Natural equivalence in politeness translation will be used one to one correspondence i.e. solidarity politeness in the source language is in accordance with the target one. The latter alludes to deference strategy (directional equivalence) in negative politeness. It means that the translator should create the same situation in the target language. For instance, the way of expressing compliment in the source will be different from the target language. One important note should be taken that during the rendition, the renderer should ordain the red line in order not to pass this line and he or she causes to modify the deep structure of the text. The translator can embellish the surface structure of the text by adding or omitting some particular discourse markers. In "New Function" part of the figure, the translator wants to make cultural diversification while in "Same Function" part; the translator is going to procure cultural homogeneity. And finally, "Non-translational" part of this figure refers to particular situation in which the source language is completely different from the target language. In this direction, the translator utilizes the technique of gloss and drafting translation as a footnote. But it will be recommended that the translator create the similar situation in these special cases to saturate the taste of the reader.

Last but not least, it is important to say that this study has been based on the English-Italian instances and does not show any corresponding examples related to the Persian language. It is hoped that some studies would address the case with other languages and would accordingly set out to test the workability of the politeness translation procedures on the large number of texts in the near future.

V. CONCLUSION

This study sought to investigate the politeness translation strategies in the source and target language. Translation of politeness in cross-cultural communication would be of great importance in Translation Studies. Therefore, this paper prepared some procedures to convey the near sense of translation of politeness in the target language. Language patterning and the role of decoding ability would be more drastic in translation. Politeness translation needs considerable attention in every field of study. The translator should also work on people's interaction in different situation in order to make a frame of his or her study. Politeness paradigm is also utilizable in natural and directional equivalence. In the light of these expounds, one can conclude that every language which has the same ancestor as the other languages, it applies for natural equivalence in politeness translation. While others have diverse ancestors, they apply for directional equivalence and they have to create the similar situation in the target language to convey the near sense of the polite words. And finally, saturating or meeting the needs of the reader is of great importance and the translator should create the position in translation which the audience can be able to touch the workability of the rendition.

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An Analysis of Lin Shu's Translation Activity from the Cultural Perspective

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Abstract—Lin Shu is one of the most influential translators in Chinese history. Although he had no knowledge of any foreign languages, he translated more than 180 foreign literary works in collaborating with other people. His translation, which enjoyed great popularity at that time, is an unusual phenomenon in China and even in the world history of translation. While, translation can not be done in vacuum and a translator is inevitably influenced by his own culture consciously or unconsciously. Using the theories of Poly-system and “three elements (poetics, ideology and patronage)”, this article tries to probe into the various factors influencing Lin Shu's translation.

Index Terms—Lin Shu, translation activity, cultural perspective

I. INTRODUCTION

Lin Shu (1852-1924), one of the most influential translators in Chinese history, translated more than 180 foreign literary works, including 160 novels, which were taken from 98 writers' works from 11 countries. The subject matters of his translation of novels are wide and rich. Being illiterate of foreign languages, he translated with classical Chinese upon his collaborator's oral interpretation of the original texts by employing the techniques of omission, addition, and alteration freely. As the master of translation, Lin Shu not only ushered in the Western literature and culture to China, but also introduced many new literary techniques to the Chinese writers and readers.

Lin Shu's translations did make a big hit at his times, enjoying great popularity among a large number of Chinese readers and still maintains some readable flavors now. His translation is an unusual phenomenon in China's and even the world's history of translation. This article tries to re-evaluate Lin Shu's translation by analyzing the relevant conditioning factors and give his translation a more reasonable explanation from the cultural respect.

II. LIN SHU AND HIS TRANSLATION ACTIVITIES

The year of 1924 witnessed Lin Shu's departure from this world. He had been dedicated to translation for several decades, broadening the horizons of the fellow countrymen and promoting the Sino-Western cultural exchanges.

It seems that the things happening to Lin Shu footnote the old saying that fantastic translations would inevitably pass into oblivion—nowadays, few speak of Lin Shu and his translation; even if sometimes mentioned, he would be the target of criticism for his unfaithfulness in translation. The significance of studying him lies in the attempt to find out why his translated works at one time enjoyed overwhelming popularity and what lessons we can draw from his translation to develop our translation theoretical research and to direct our translation practice.

A. Lin Shu—from Juren to a Translator

Lin Shu was born in Min County (present Fuzhou City) of Fujian Province. In 1882, He was granted the title of Juren (the title given to the scholars successful in passing the imperial exam at the provincial level in ancient China).

As a child, Lin Shu lived in straitened circumstances after his father's repeated failures in business. Later, his father's death left his family in poverty. Under the guidance of his mother and grandmother, Lin Shu learned a lot of good virtues, and he was filially dedicated to his mother, which was much praised at that time.

Poor as his family was, Lin Shu was a diligent boy. At the age of five, he developed the desire for learning. When he was eleven years old, he began to learn ancient Chinese prose, and from then on, he had been trying to find as many books to read as he could. It is said that he had covered no fewer than 2000 ancient books by the age of 20, which made it possible for him to become a great master of classical Chinese and a famous translator.

When young, Lin Shu began to be concerned about the world situation, believing that China must learn from Western nations if she wanted to become richer and stronger. It was in his forties that he switched his efforts to the translation of Western books in order to enlighten the Chinese people and awaken his compatriots to China's weakness for the purpose of encouraging them to strive for the motherland's prosperity and powerfulness.

In his last years, he was against the New Cultural Movement and the movement of vernacular, and became

increasingly conservative. He once wrote a public letter to Cai Yuanpei to denounce the New Cultural Movement. But after realizing his inappropriate manner, he wrote to publishing houses to make apologies.

In 1924, he died in Peking as an advocator of feudal ethical code and classical Chinese, leaving invaluable literary heritage as well as controversial fame. To be just, Lin Shu's political standpoint might deserve criticism but his literary talents and contributions should not and would never be denounced.

B. Lin Shu's Translation Activities

Politically, Lin Shu was a conservative, but he was a pioneering scholar in literary translation. Merely by chance he started his career of literary translation. In 1898, one of his close friends named Wang Shouchang freshly from France talked about the French masterpiece *La Dame aux Camelias* to Lin Shu and Lin became interested. So, Wang Shouchang interpreted the book for Lin Shu, and Lin Shu reorganized and wrote down the contents with classical Chinese. Very soon, Lin Shu's first translated fiction entitled *Chahuanü Yishi* in collaboration with Wang Shouchang came out, which completely out of their expectations, made a big hit. From then on, Lin Shu switched his attention to the translation of Western books until his death in 1924. In the following 25 years, Lin Shu translated 181 books, amounting to 270 volumes. The nationalities of the original authors cover Britain, America, France, Russia, Greek, Norway, Spain, etc., and the authors range from Shakespeare to Tolstoy.

Lin Shu was a talented scholar with high speed in translation. It is said that hardly had the interpreter finished the oral interpretation when he finished his translation. Consequently, he was able to translate six thousand words within four hours. Speaking of Lin's translation speed, Hu Shi, who was a renowned scholar at that time, showed great admiration. Accomplished scholars of Lin's times such as Guo Moruo, Mao Dun, Zheng Zhenduo, etc. were all greatly influenced by his translated novels. Zheng Zhenduo once said: "We cannot find equivalents for every word or phrase in the translation for the original version, but after reading through the whole paragraph and the corresponding translation, you would find that the original flavor was retained. Even the sense of humor, which was considered difficult to render, was expressed in Lin's version" (Xue, 1983, p.162). Guo Moruo remembered: "Lin Shu's translated novels enjoyed great popularity and they were also my favorites... His translation of Joan Haste was the first Western book I read. This book was not thought highly of in the world, but much color was added to it through Lin Shu's translation in concise classical Chinese" (Chen, 1992, p.133).

Although he mainly employed the strategy of free translation, Lin Shu never domesticated the proper names of places and persons, or even the names of the authors. This seems very natural today but was very rare at that time. Before him, translators always changed the proper names and amended the originals, sometimes even omitted the names of the original authors. It was Lin Shu that took the lead in the standard translation of literature of China.

As an accomplished translator, Lin Shu had no knowledge of foreign languages. All his translations were in collaboration with his partners. As he had quite a few partners, he had the opportunity to translate various works in different languages; on the other hand, owing to the ignorance of some of his partners, he spent much of his energy on quite a few less valuable works.

One month after Lin Shu's death, Zheng Zhenduo published an article entitled *Mr. Lin Qinnan* in *Novel Monthly*, which commented Lin Shu in an all-round way. The comments were comparatively just. As far as Lin Shu's translation, he wrote:

On the one hand, we should be grateful to Mr. Lin Qinnan because he introduced so many worldwide masterpieces to us; on the other hand, it is a pity that nearly half of his energy was in vain, because only over 60 of his more than 150 translated books were masterpieces (including 27 second-rate books by Henry Rider Haggard and Arthur Conan Doyle) (Xue, 1983, p.159).

Comments on Lin Shu involve a number of controversies. Many people criticize him because he was a stubborn conservative from the political standpoint of ordinary men; however he can never be forgotten or negated because of his peerless contribution to the history of Chinese literary translation.

III. THE CULTURAL TURN IN TRANSLATION STUDIES

The 1970s witnessed the "cultural turn" in translation studies of the Western translation field. Hence, the target-language-culture-oriented translation theory came into being. The representatives of this "cultural school" are Even-Zohar and Lefevere, whose typical translation theories are respectively "Poly-system" theory and "three elements" theory. These theories provide the translation researchers with a new theoretical framework and perspective.

In his research of Hebrew literature, Even-Zohar, an Israeli scholar, put forward "Poly-system theory". This theory considers literature as a Poly-system made up of multiple systems, whose positions are different, some occupying the central position, others the marginal positions. During the course of the development of this Poly-system, the positions of the components vary with cultural contexts. When translated literature occupies the central position, national literary system is relatively weak, or in peril, or at the turning point, or even in the vacuum period. Thus, literature system would introduce new thoughts, contents, and theories by means of translation. And the translation methods are embodied in various forms. On the contrary, when literature system occupies the central position, there is no need to introduce foreign elements, and translation is, therefore, in the marginal position. The translation strategies would also be affected. Zohar harbors the view that it is the mainstream literature that determines the status of the translated

literature in the poly-system. The status of the translated literature in the poly-system, in turn, would determine the material to be translated and the translation strategies to be employed—domestication or foreignization, literal translation or free translation (Even-Zohar, 2000). Poly-system theory is of significance partially because it tells that it is the multiple systems of the target language culture that determine the translation activities. What will be translated and how the selected materials will be translated are determined by the need of the target language culture and the standards of the target language (Gentzler, 1993).

Andre Lefevere is another influential representative of the cultural school of translation. In his book entitled *Translation, Rewriting and the Manipulation of Literary Fame*, he elaborates on the famous “three elements” theories. His theory considers translation the rewriting of the original. The translated version can not fully reflect the flavor of the original mainly because the translation activities are manipulated by three factors including poetics, ideology and patronage. The images of the translated works and the viewpoints of the translator are all closely related to the mainstream poetics and ideology of the current society. Furthermore, patronages including political parties, classes, the royal palace, religious institutions, publishing houses, and mass media, etc. are always manipulating the whole process of translation activities (Lefevere, 1992).

Other scholars respond actively to this cultural view on translation, and the trend of conducting translation studies from the perspective of cultural communication has been gaining weight.

American translation theorist Maria Tymoczko has once noted that as a language art, translation has often been considered from the viewpoint of timeless linguistic rules (which has led to normative tendency) (Lin, 2001). But such a view has changed since the 1950s. Translation is no longer viewed as a mere transformation of linguistic signs from one language into another. It is more of a cultural phenomenon. “Some translation theorists like Lambert and Robyn, view translation as identical to cultural communication, which is conceived not as a static phenomenon but instead as the endless translation of signs into other signs” (Gentzler, 1993, p.186). And Susan Bassnett and Lefevere (2001) approved her proposal as “momentous”, marking a “cultural turn” for translation study.

Once upon a time, the questions that were always being asked were “How can translation be taught?” and “How can translation be studied?” ... Now, the questions have changed. The object of study has been redefined; what is studied is the text embedded in its network of both source and target cultural signs and in this way translation study has been able both to utilize the linguistic approach and to move out beyond it (Bassnett & Lefevere, 2001, p.123).

According to A Dictionary of Translation Studies the main viewpoints of the cultural view on translation are as follows (Fang, 2004):

Translation is more of a cross-cultural communication than of a bilingual communication; the aim of translation is to break the language barriers to cultural communication; the nature of translation is cross-cultural transmission of information and translation is a cultural activity in which translators make the reappearance of the source text with the target language; the essence of translation is cultural transplanting and cultural mixture, but it takes time; it is rather than the language but cultural information that is the object of translation activity. The involvement of cultural factors in translation process is permanent when we put translation studies under cultural background. Political tendency, sense of aesthetics, and ethics all have great influence on the process of translation. Translators’ amendments to the original, addition or omission, are all the results of cultural constraints of a certain period in a certain context. Since the aim of translation is to step up cultural communication, some amendments in the target text are acceptable and sometimes necessary, which will serve the target language culture better or smooth the cultural communication. Some contents that are irrelevant in today’s society or not fit for our country’s current situation should be omitted in temporary translation. But in the future, these omitted parts will probably be added when it is retranslated, for the broadening of the readers’ cultural horizons will equip them with necessary psychological capacity to understand and accept these contents. For example, foreignization and domestication are mainly concerned about cultural factors. Foreignization is in line with cultural transplanting, but domestication is the opposite process to cultural transplanting. As far as the form of the translation work is concerned, it is generally admitted that no translation work is the production of pure domestication or mere foreignization. No matter what attitude the translator adopts towards foreignization and domestication, his translation work must be a mixture of domestication and foreignization. No matter how much the target text is domesticated, it should at least reflect the customs and conventions of the alien nationalities. Otherwise, translation can not be called translation any more.

IV. FACTORS INFLUENCING LIN SHU’S TRANSLATION ACTIVITIES

For a long time, the “source-text oriented” translation research mode has been prevailing in Chinese translation studies circles, in which translation is only considered as the reproduction of the source text, and “faithfulness” being the only criterion for evaluating a translated version. Translation studies made in this mode consequently turn to be a simple summing-up of the translator’s translation thoughts and practice, while ignoring the fact that the social-cultural environment exerts great influence on the translator’s translation theory and activities.

In light of the Poly-system theory of Even-Zohar and Manipulation theory of Andre Lefevere, the following intends to analyze Lin Shu, the most unique and influential translator in the late Qing dynasty in a comprehensive way integrated with the China’s special social background at that time. Specifically speaking, an investigation will be made on the ways social cultural environment exerted significant impact on Lin Shu’s choices of the original texts and

methods of translation, as well as into the counteraction between Lin Shu's translation and the contemporary society.

A. *The Influence of Historical and Cultural Contexts on His Purpose of Translation*

According to Poly-system theory, the translator's intention of translation is first of all determined by the social and cultural background of the society in which the translator lives. In Lin Shu's times, China's feudal society was on the decline. China's economy and politics were all disadvantageous as compared with those of the Western countries. In addition, China's culture was undergoing severe test. Yet, traditional literature was still the mainstream, and its norms still governed the readers. The most influential and popular language among scholars was the ancient language of the Tongcheng School. But as far as the form, thoughts, and contents were concerned, there was hardly any breakthrough. In fact, China's national literature was in the stationary period or in peril. Therefore, some scholars made efforts to break the foundation of traditional literature and establish a new literature system. Liang Qichao advocated "Poetry Revolution", "Literary Revolution" and "Novel Revolution". Of all the three "revolutions", the achievements of "Novel Revolution" were the most invisibly tremendous. On the one hand, Liang Qichao, in his *On the Relationship between Fiction and the Mass*, insisted on the establishment of the position of novels; on the other hand, he criticized the Chinese traditional novels, indicating that they were filled with too much of love affairs and theft and therefore became the roots of the social disorder. So, they should be eradicated.

Under this condition, it seemed that the leading scholars of the revolution wanted to make novels the core of literature; but traditional national novels failed to fulfill this historical mission. Thus, the so-called "Literary Vacuum" appeared. This "Literary Vacuum" made translation the "mainstream" activity. Scholars of that ages resorted to translation to establish a new literary system. It was in this social and cultural context that Lin Shu began his translation activities. Naturally, his aim of translation is to "awaken the Chinese nation to its weakness" and to "call on the fellow countrymen to strengthen military forces" (Xue, 1983, p.104).

B. *The Influence of Target Language Culture on His Choice of Books*

Target language culture exerts great influence on the choice of the books to be translated. From the very beginning, Lin Shu spontaneously connected his translation activities with the realities of the society. The political and social atmosphere directly influenced the choice of the originals. He translated many books which sang high praise for the fight against invasion and showed deep sympathy for the invaded weak nations. He wanted to vitalize the Chinese nation to combat against invasion with foreign people's high anti-invasive spirits. The translated version of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* served this purpose very successfully.

Lin Shu and his collaborator Wei Yi rendered Harriet Beecher Stowe's *Uncle Tom's Cabin* into Chinese in 1901. Lin translated this novel to let Chinese people know about the plight of African-Americans and their struggle for freedom, and to "bolster their morale to defend the Chinese race" (Xue, 1983, p.104). The Chinese version of *Uncle Tom's Cabin* came out at a time when the Exclusion Act of California (1882) was in force and Chinese laborers in the United States were suffering torment similar to what Blacks had suffered. Readers from all walks of life in China were shocked and touched. In his review of the novel, Lin Shu pointed to the fact that, "The calamity has already befallen us yellow race. The exclusion of Chinese laborers in the U.S. and the maltreatment of Chinese in various countries in the West are already a fact. Their predicament is in no way different from, but worse than that of the Negroes" (Xue, 1983, p.103). He recommended the novel to all readers, saying that, "I weep for us yellow people as I weep for the Negroes; I grieve for the present poor situation of us yellow people in the same way I lament the past of the Negroes. I hope that every household can have a copy of *Uncle Tom's Cabin*..." (Xue, 1983, p.103). According to this, we know that Lin Shu's choice of this book was also a purposeful conduct. The collective and his own political ideology induced him to introduce this book to the Chinese readers.

C. *The Influence of Literary Context on His Translation Strategy*

According to Poly-system theory, in translating, the translator with a strong cultural background tends to adopt domesticating strategy; otherwise, the translator would choose foreignizing strategy. Yet, Lin Shu's adoption of domestication is not in line with the hypothesis of Poly-system. The main reason should be that the Chinese scholars at that time still subjectively considered Chinese culture superior to foreign cultures and were proud of it, although Chinese culture was in a weak marginal position. For the sake of catering to the taste of the target readers, Lin Shu adopted domesticating strategy.

Not knowing any foreign languages, Lin Shu could not read novels in foreign languages. However, as a master of classical Chinese, he had a strong desire of literary creation. Besides, his unbending character and great ambition and conscience impelled him to achieve his aims through great efforts. He aimed to expand classical Chinese through enabling the readers to read his works and to enjoy the beauty of our classical Chinese. He believed he had the ability to translate modern novels by means of classical Chinese and thus enliven the old language form of Chinese. Therefore, he spared no effort to make his translation as beautiful as possible, which made his translation strategies of omission, addition and alteration reasonable.

And it is also out of the purpose of presenting graceful classical Chinese that Lin Shu changed the translation of the title of the novel for three times, from 《黑奴受逼记》 to 《汤姆家事》 and to the present 《黑奴吁天录》, which shows his strategy of rewriting.

D. *The Influence of Poetics on his Translation Strategy*

Poetics includes two aspects. One refers to literary technique, genre, theme, environment and symbolism; the other refers to the social role of literature. The former constitutes the functions of literature and the latter manipulates the degree of the influence of literary works (Lefevere, 1992, p.26). As a member of society, the translator would be unavoidably affected by the poetics of the target language culture. The influence is always embodied by the translation strategies like abridgment of and amendment to the original. Because the target readers are from the target language system, and the translator has long been steeped in the target language system, the mainstream literature would to a large extent exert influence on the process of creation of translated literature. Consequently, the translated version differs from the original in grammatical structure, logical forms, styles, etc. The translator always has the fear that his translation would be cold-shouldered if he introduced some strange expressions into his translation, so he would more often than not make some amendments to the original according to the poetics of the target language culture.

When translating *La Dame Aux Camelias*, Lin Shu changed the first person into the third person just because the story-telling mode of traditional Chinese literature is the third person and the first person is seldom used. The amendments to the original on the part of Lin Shu are also reflected in his translation of the personality, image, religion and psychological description of the characters.

E. *The Influence of His Ideology on His Translation Strategy and the Choice of Originals*

Ideology refers to social and political thoughts and values of the society, a certain class or of individual. The influences of the translator's ideology could lead to the deformation of the original in translation.

"What kind of image would the translated literary works create is to a great extent determined by the translator's ideology, which can be the translator's own or the one imposed upon the translator by patrons" (Lefevere, 1992, p.41).

Therefore, under the influence of a different ideology, the things bearing the unique feature of the original culture may be weakened, deformed, or disappear. The Qing dynasty propagandized ruling by the virtue of filial piety, and the concept of filial piety was deeply rooted in the mind of Lin Shu. Therefore, he always imposed the label of filial piety on his translated works. Take the translation of the titles of some books for example:

Author	The Original Title	The Chinese Title	Literal Meaning of the Chinese Title
Charles Dickens	The Old Curiosity Shop	孝女耐儿传	A Story of Filial Daughter and Son
Henry Rider Haggard	Montezuma's Daughter	英孝子火山报仇记	The Filial Son's Revenge on His Father's Murderer
David Christie Murray	The Martyred Fool	双孝子喋血酬恩记	Two Filial Sons Taking Their Revenge

Obviously, Lin Shu rendered the original titles in this way to comply with the social values for the purpose of making his translations easily accepted by the target readers.

F. *The Influence of the Patronage on the Translator*

Patrons refer to any individual or institution which can help the literary works to come out and circulate and at the same time can hinder, ban the circulation of or destroy the literary works. They exert crucial influence on the trend of translation activities, the prosperity or decline of translation, and the status and life of the translator (Yang, 2001). Why did Lin Shu's translations filled with mistakes, abridgments, and omissions enjoy great popularity? Historically, part of the reason is the need of the social context of new literary forms; and what is more important is that his translation activities gained the strong support of the patrons. In his ages, many scholars with bourgeois thoughts like Kang Youwei, Liang Qichao were engaged in the translation of various literary works and political novels so as to promote bourgeois innovation. The translations of *La Dame aux Camelias* and *Uncle Tom's Cabin* were the response to this tendency, and they were of course supported by the reformers of the upper class. Kang Youwei's verse "Peerless are the two identical translators of Yan Fu and Lin Shu, hundreds of their translations served to invigorate the nation" (Xue, 1983, p.277) is the great support and compliments for him.

V. CONCLUSION

As a very influential translator, Lin Shu enjoys a special status in China's translation history for introducing an enormous number of foreign works into China and thus exerted tremendous influence on his contemporary scholars and the generations to follow. Lin Shu knew no foreign languages, but he translated more than 180 originals in Western languages into Chinese. It is the concrete social and cultural needs that made Lin Shu occupy a unique status in China's translation history. His translations abounding in mistakes, omissions, and abridgment were not sniffed at but greeted with tremendous enthusiasm, which was a great wonder in the history of world translation. In his translation activity, translation was not merely the transformation of linguistic signs but also the cultural interaction concerning the target language poetics, ideologies, and patronages, etc. Therefore, the criticism of the unfaithfulness of his translations from the perspective of linguistics was not comprehensive, scientific or objective. Only when taking into account the social and cultural background of his times can we conduct the studies of his translation activities in a relatively scientific and objective manner.

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On the Effects of Doing CDA Term Projects on Iranian Graduate TEFL Students' Critical Pedagogic Attitudes

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Abstract—The expansion of the scope of TESOL to include the social, political, and ideological aspects of the learners' lives, has necessitated a more systematic application of the principles of critical pedagogy to the field of ELT. Despite this, few attempts have been made in this regard. Having felt the need, the present researchers embarked on examining the effectiveness of assigning critical discourse analysis term projects to graduate students of TEFL as one of the many possible ways to promote the critical pedagogic attitudes of the prospective teachers of English as a foreign language. To this end, forty three homogenous male and female graduate students of TEFL studying at the Islamic Azad University, Mazandaran Science and Research Branch, took a five-point Likert-scale critical attitude questionnaire to show the level of their critical pedagogic attitudes. Then, the students in the experimental group were guided to choose Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) topics for their term projects while the rest of the students who constituted the control group were guided to choose NCDA topics. In the third phase of the study, the subjects were given the same attitude questionnaire as the post-test in order to determine whether the subjects' critical attitudes had changed as a result of doing their term-projects. The results showed that doing critical pedagogy-related term projects had a significant influence on the critical pedagogic attitudes of the graduate students of TEFL. The implications of this finding are discussed in the present paper.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, critical pedagogy, critical pedagogic attitudes, doing term projects

I. PRELIMINARIES

If we are to envisage one worthwhile goal for education, that goal cannot be anything other than enabling individuals to understand themselves, their worlds and their people better. This, in turn, is possible through the development of critical thinking in the learners. Only a critical thinker is capable of “skillfully conceptualizing, synthesizing, and evaluating information gathered from, or generated by observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication as a guide to belief and action” (Scriven and Paul 1996, p.40).

Critical thinking is a “positive process of calling into question the assumptions underlying our customary, habitual ways of thinking and acting and then being ready to think and act differently” (Brookfield 1987, p. 6). As Brookfield's (1987) definition clearly states, critical thinking is a process of examining and assessing the status quo with an attempt to improve it.

Although enabling individuals to see themselves, their worlds and their people critically does not seem to have many opponents, “the emphasis of most people's teaching has been on teaching content” (Fisher and Scriven 1997, p.2). This is, at least partly, attributable to the fact the implications of critical pedagogy which was introduced in 1960s by the Brazilian educator Paulo Freire (1921-1997) in his seminal book, “Pedagogy of the Oppressed”, has not been fully appreciated by educators.

Rooted in critical theory, critical pedagogy asserts that education is political (Freire, 1970; Giroux, 1983; Freire & Macedo, 1987; Pennycook, 1989; McLaren & Kincheloe, 2007). One clear implication of critical pedagogy, among others, for education in general and the field of ELT as the most relevant discipline to the present study in particular, is that teachers must assume new identities and be ready to “develop counterhegemonic pedagogies that not only empower students by giving them the knowledge and social skills they will need to be able to function in the larger society as critical agents, but also educate them for transformative action” (1988, p. xxxiii).

There are several strategies to strengthen the critical attitudes of EFL learners. If educators in the field of ELT are convinced that education should aim at producing critical people, they should try a myriad of strategies to approach the problem. One possible way of making the prospective teachers critical can be involving them in doing critical discourse analysis term projects through which they have to do a lot of reading and review the related literature and be familiarized with the concepts and goals of critical pedagogy.

A. Statement of the Problem

Until recently, the main focus of educational activities in the field of TESOL was primarily on the promotion of learners' grammatical accuracy and communicative fluency (Kumaravadelu, 2006). This was probably because scholars "tended to assume that teaching English was a politically neutral activity and that it would bring untold blessings to those who succeeded in learning it" (Richards, 2009, P.6). However, "[d]uring the 1990s", as Kumaravadelu (2006, p.70) states, "the TESOL profession took a decidedly critical turn" which recognized "language as ideology, not just as system".

The expansion of the scope of TESOL to include the social, political, and ideological aspects of the learners' lives, necessitated the application of the principles of critical pedagogy to the field of ELT including foreign language teacher education. Despite the significance of the issue, few attempts have been done in this regard in the context of the Islamic Iran whose anti-imperialistic motives further justify the unraveling of the hidden agendas of the ELT industry. Having felt the need, the present researchers embarked on examining the effectiveness of assigning critical pedagogy-related term projects to graduate students of TEFL as one of the many different attempts that one can do to promote the critical pedagogic attitudes of the prospective teachers of English as a foreign language.

B. Research Question and Null Hypothesis

In order to fulfill the aims of the present research, the following research question was posed:

Q₁: Does doing term projects in the area of critical discourse analysis affect the Iranian graduate TEFL students' critical pedagogic attitudes?

Based on the research question, the following null hypothesis was formulated:

H₀₁: Doing term projects in the area of critical discourse analysis does not affect the Iranian graduate TEFL students' critical pedagogic attitudes.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

A. Critical Pedagogy

The concept of critical pedagogy is rooted in the principles of critical theory which is primarily focused on power relations in society and strives to generate justice by enabling people to free themselves from oppression. As Horkheimer (1982, p.244) states, a theory is critical if it seeks "to liberate human beings from the circumstances that enslave them". Critical pedagogy sees education as the way through which liberation of people from different forms of discrimination should be done. This function of critical pedagogy is manifest in Kellner's (2000, 197) statement: "critical pedagogy considers how education can provide individuals with the tools to better themselves and strengthen democracy, to create a more egalitarian and just society, and thus to deploy education in a process of progressive social change". The emergence of critical pedagogy was a response to the emerging forces of oppression. Critical pedagogy, therefore, tries "to raise questions about inequalities of power, about the false myths of opportunity and merit for many students, and about the way belief systems become internalized to the point where individuals and groups abandon the very aspiration to question or change their lot in life" (Burbules & Burk, 1999). According to Kanpol (1999, p. 27), "critical pedagogy seeks to unoppress the oppressed and unite people in a shared language of critique, struggle, and hope to end various forms of human suffering".

B. Critical Consciousness

Critical consciousness is one of the important components of critical pedagogy and the key to people's freedom. There are three different levels of consciousness, namely 'semi-intransitive', 'naïve transitive', and 'critical' (Freire, 1970b). At the semi-intransitive consciousness level which is the lowest of the three, people tend to attribute their problems to super-natural sources or to their own incompetence and consequently will not do much to improve their conditions. The next level of consciousness is called 'naïve-transitive consciousness' which is one step closer to awareness. People who have naïve consciousness view the causes of their problems more accurately and begin to take action. The third level of consciousness which is the highest level of the three is 'critical consciousness'. People who manage to reach this level can analyze their existing problems more thoroughly and view reality and their life conditions as changeable phenomena. That is why they are able to engage in reflection and action, i.e. praxis.

C. Critical Issues in ELT

Despite the orchestrated efforts of many ELT scholars to depict English as a neutral, apolitical and irreligious language, there were gradual tendencies to view English as a language of western ideology with its associated hegemonic power of destruction. Many scholars gradually began to show overt pessimism about the role English is playing in the world and saw it as a vehicle used by some powerful countries in the world to transfer their thoughts, ideologies and social attitudes to the weaker nations of the world who have to learn their language. "Among foreign languages, English serves as a highway along which not only neutral messages but also thought, ideology, and social attitudes are transferred. English thus serves as a vehicle of what Phillipson (1992) called linguistic imperialism" (Neustupný and Nekvapil, 2003, pp.155-6).

All the above-mentioned concerns about the neutrality of the English language called for a critical reexamination of different aspects of ELT- a reexamination which could best be addressed through a critical pedagogic approach to ELT.

Needless to say, of prime significance are the roles ELT educators are to assume in this regard. In Freirean pedagogy, teachers are no longer teaching technicians but scholars, researchers, cultural workers (Freire, 1998). As rightly mentioned by Byean (2011, p.5), being “aware of the interlinked facets of English and its underlying ideologies in ELT, English teachers need to approach ELT with more critical minds.”

If “it is part of a teacher’s responsibility to help students interrogate the hidden assumptions and values that accompany knowledge” (Canagarajah, 1999, p.16), the development of critical teachers should be a top priority in every educational program including TESOL.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

Forty three graduate students of TEFL studying at the Islamic Azad University, Mazandaran Science and Research Branch, participated in the present study. The participants were selected through convenient sampling as one of the researchers was the instructor of the ‘Discourse Analysis’ course the participants were taking. There were male and female students in both classes. In terms of general proficiency and other relevant background factors, the subjects were homogenous as they were all doing their MA in TEFL and were all classmates.

B. Instrumentation

In order to investigate the research hypothesis of the present study, the researchers used a five-point Likert-scale critical attitude questionnaire consisting of 24 items developed and validated in the context of Iran by Pishvaei and Kasaian (2013). The construct validity and content validity of the questionnaire had been established by the designers and the reported reliability was a high of .85. As the subjects who participated in the validation process of the questionnaire were Iranian university students and professors, the researchers were convinced that the questionnaire could serve the purpose of the present research in Iran quite well. To further ensure the reliability of the questionnaire, it was administered to a group of 26 students with similar characteristics and the Cronbach Alpha index showed a high internal consistency, .81.

C. Materials

The materials used in the study were the book chapters on Discourse analysis the participants studied as the requirement of the course they were taking. This was used to familiarize them with the concept of discourse analysis in general and critical discourse analysis in particular. Maximum care was taken to ensure the sameness of the activities in both classes. The other materials that can be mentioned as relevant were the ‘review of the related literature’ section of the term projects the participants did under the supervision and the guidance of one of the researchers as the instructor of the course of Discourse analysis they were taking.

D. Procedures

In order to examine the possible influences of discourse analysis term-projects on critical attitudes of Iranian graduate students of TEFL, the participants of the study who were members of two intact MA classes were assigned to experimental and control groups.

The study was carried out in three phases. To begin with, all the participants in the two groups were given the attitude questionnaire as the pretest to assess the level of their critical attitudes before the treatment started. An independent sample t-test was run to check the required sameness of the two groups in terms of their initial critical attitudes. In the second phase, the students were asked to choose Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) a Non-Critical Discourse Analysis (NCDA) topics for their term projects after consultation with the course instructor. The researchers made sure that half of the topics chosen by the students were related to ‘Critical Discourse Analysis’ and the other half simply about ‘Discourse Analysis’. The students who had chosen the CDA topics constituted the experimental group while the rest of the students who had chosen NCDA topics made up the control group. Each group included both male and female students. The only distinguishing factor between the two groups was the nature of their term project topics (critical versus Non-critical). The participants were asked to do their term projects under the supervision of one of the two researchers (i.e., the course instructor) and interact with him regularly. In the third phase of the study, the subjects were given the same attitude questionnaire as the post-test in order to determine whether the subjects’ critical attitudes had changed as a result of doing their term-projects.

After collecting the required data, the participants’ scores obtained from their performance in the critical pedagogy questionnaire were put into two categories: acritical and critical. Scores ranging from 24 to 72 fell into the acritical category while the scores from 73 to 120 fell into the critical category. Since the assumption of the normality of the data was established, one sample and independent –sample t-tests were used.

E. Design

The present study had a quasi-experimental design as it involved experimental and control groups but used the convenience sampling.

F. Data Analysis Procedure

After collecting the pretest data from the participants which was collected to estimate their initial level of critical pedagogic attitudes and make sure that the two groups were not statistically significantly different from each other in terms of their attitudes, every participant was assigned a code and his/her responses to the questionnaire items were given values from 1 to 5 depending on whether and how much they agreed with the 24 statements in the questionnaire. As there were 24 items in the questionnaire and each item had between 1 and 5 points, the minimum and maximum scores were 24 (24x1) and 120 (24x5) respectively. Therefore, the researchers decided to set 72 which was equivalent to 50% of the maximum score a critical participant could possibly gain as the cut-off point to decide whether the participants had critical or no-critical attitudes. Independent-sample t-test was used to compare the scores obtained by the experimental and the control groups while a one sample-test was also run to see whether the groups were critical or acritical. Subsequent to the treatment and the placebo treatment, the posttest gain score of each participant was computed (gain score= posttest score – pretest scores) to decide if the attitudes of the two groups had changed as a result of the treatment. Since the assumption of the normality of the data was established, the gain scores of the two groups were compared using independent sample t-test. To further investigate the participants' intragroup level of criticality, their scores were compared with the Test value of 72 (the cut-off point) using a one-sample t-test.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The Verification of the Null Hypothesis

H₀₁: Doing term projects on critical discourse analysis does not affect the Iranian graduate TEFL students' critical pedagogic attitudes.

To test the null hypothesis, the pretest data needed to be processed to find out the respondents' existing level of critical pedagogic attitudes and decide whether the two groups were statistically significantly different from each other in terms of their attitudes. To this end, every participant was given a code and his/her response to each questionnaire item was given values from 1 to 5 depending on which of the five likert scale questionnaire choice (Strongly disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree and Strongly agree) they had chosen. It is worth mentioning that in items 1, 3, 6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 15, 18, 20, 21, 22 and 24 the highest level of criticality would be shown if the respondents selected Strongly Disagree. Items 2, 4, 5, 9, 10, 11, 14, 16, 17, 19 and 23 were the reverse items and in these items, the highest level of criticality would be shown by the choice of 'strongly agree'. The results of the latter items were reversed before tabulating the data. Therefore, 5 was regarded as the highest level of criticality in all items. As there were 24 items in the questionnaire and each item had between 1 and 5 points, the minimum and maximum scores were 24 and 120 respectively. Therefore, the researchers decided to set 72 which was equivalent to 50% of the maximum score a critical participant could possibly gain as the cut-off point above and below which the critical or no-critical groups. Then, as the assumption of normality of data was met, the one-sample t-test was used to compare the scores obtained by the experimental and the control groups.

TABLE 1:
ONE-SAMPLE STATISTICS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental Group	22	42.4545	8.51177	1.81472
Control Group	21	43.9048	10.55891	2.30414

TABLE 2:
ONE-SAMPLE TEST

Test Value = 72	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Experimental Group	-16.281	21	.000	-29.54545	-33.3194	-25.7715
Control Group	-12.193	20	.000	-28.09524	-32.9016	-23.2889

As Tables 1 and 2 above display, the mean scores of the experimental and control groups were 42.45 and 43.90 respectively both of which were well below the Test Value of 72. The sig values for the two groups were .000 signifying that the observed difference between the group mean and the Test value was statistically significant for both groups. In other words, neither the experimental nor the control group had a critical pedagogic attitude at the beginning of the program as their means were statistically significantly lower than the cut-off point, i.e. 72. Having established that both groups belonged to the acritical category, it was still necessary to make sure that the two groups were not meaningfully different from each other. To this end, the scores obtained by the participants in the two groups were subjected to an independent sample t-test whose results are included in Tables 3 and 4 below.

TABLE 3:
GROUP STATISTICS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental	22	42.4545	8.51177	1.81472
Control	21	43.9048	10.55891	2.30414

TABLE 4:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.528	.472	-.497	41	.622	-1.45022	2.91817	-7.34357	4.44314
Equal variances not assumed			-.494	38.426	.624	-1.45022	2.93296	-7.38552	4.48509

A quick look at Tables 3 and 4 shows that the assumption of the equality of the means of the two groups was confirmed (Sig value = .622). After establishing the sameness of the experimental and control groups in terms of their initial critical pedagogic attitudes, the researchers needed to examine the possible effects of treatment and placebo treatment on the experimental and control groups respectively. Therefore, the posttest gain scores of all participants in the two groups were computed by subtracting the pretest score from the posttest score of each individual and then compared through an independent sample t-test. Tables 5 and 6 below show the details.

TABLE 5:
GAIN SCORE GROUP STATISTICS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental Group	22	29.6364	8.80771	1.87781
Control Group	21	10.0952	8.67124	1.89222

TABLE 6:
GAIN SCORE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.112	.740	7.327	41	.000	19.54113	2.66683	14.15536	24.92689
Equal variances not assumed			7.330	40.958	.000	19.54113	2.66583	14.15720	24.92505

Table 5 shows that the mean of gain scores of the experimental group was 29.63 which was almost three times bigger than the control groups' gain score mean of 10.09. This was indicative of the effectiveness of the treatment given to the experimental group. Moreover, the sig value of .000 in Table 6 confirms the statistical significance of the improvement in the experimental group. This is enough to reject the null hypothesis which had assumed no effect for doing critical discourse analysis research projects on the critical pedagogic attitude of Iranian graduate students of TEFL.

Although the comparison made between the gain scores of the two groups served to reject the null hypothesis, the researchers considered it worthwhile to compare the mean of each group with the Test Value of 72 to see whether the observed gains in the two groups had helped them reach the threshold level of criticality or not. Tables 7 and 8 include SPSS output for post-test one sample statistics and posttest one sample test.

TABLE 7:
POSTTEST ONE-SAMPLE STATISTICS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Experimental Group	22	72.0909	9.90867	2.11254
Control Group	21	54.0000	10.91329	2.38148

TABLE 8:
POSTTEST ONE-SAMPLE TEST

	Test Value = 72					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Experimental Group	.043	21	.966	.09091	-4.3024	4.4842
Control Group	-7.558	20	.000	-18.00000	-22.9677	-13.0323

As it is evident in Table 7, the control group improved its mean from the initial 43.90 to 54. This improvement which can, in all probabilities, be attributed to the instructions they had received in the course about the principles of critical pedagogy was not large enough to make them members of the critical group (above 72). In the case of the experimental group, however, the treatment was effective enough to change the participants' group membership from their initial

acritical group membership to the critical one. This can be confirmed both by the magnitude of their mean which was larger than the cut-off value of 72 and the sig value of .966 which confirms the equality of the gained mean score and set Test value.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In view of the fact that despite its international relevance and coverage, English language teaching industry is still monopolized by a few native speaking countries who fail to fully appreciate the implications of English as an international language, the training and development of truly critical English language teachers can to some extent ward off the hegemony of native speaker-controlled ELT industry. If education is to serve a worthwhile purpose, it should be helping the students move from Freire's (1970b) first level of consciousness (semi-intransitive) to its third level (critical consciousness). This cannot happen unless the teachers have reached the third level of consciousness themselves. For EFL teachers in many 'expanding circle countries' who have to teach imported textbooks which are generally laden with western ideologies, this third level of consciousness is even a more basic necessity. This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of assigning term projects on critical discourse analysis on Iranian graduate students' critical attitudes. The important findings of this study can be summarized below.

1. The graduate students of TEFL as prospective teachers of English as a foreign language did not have any critical attitudes towards the hegemonic potentials of ELT industry.

2. As the small improvement in the critical attitudes of the control group of the present study showed, the teaching of the principles of critical discourse analysis as a part of discourse analysis course cannot be effective enough to make the graduate students of TEFL critical.

3. The assignment of the term projects on critical discourse analysis greatly improved the critical attitudes of the Iranian graduate students of TEFL so much so that their initial acritical attitude changed into a critical one.

The third finding is in complete agreement with Freire's (1970, p. 126) argument that social transformation can take place if individuals become engaged in 'praxis' or informed action.

What can be said about the above conclusions is that an important concern such as the development of the critical attitude of the prospective EFL teachers should not be left to the accidental changes that might be brought about by covering a few chapters on critical discourse analysis. Rather, it should be based on taking informed action. The present study proved that doing CDA term projects can efficiently improve the critical attitudes of the Iranian prospective EFL teachers. Other strategies that can be deemed effective are the inclusion of a two-unit course on critical pedagogy in TEFL BA and MA programs or setting up seminars and workshops on critical pedagogy. MA theses on critical discourse analysis and critical pedagogy can also prove helpful. Therefore, one implication of the present study is that MA candidates are encouraged to do their MA theses on critical pedagogy or critical discourse analysis.

If we expect critical actions out of the would-be teachers of English as a foreign language, we have no choice but to help them reach what Freire (1970b) called 'critical consciousness which is best possible through praxis.'

VI. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The followings are some suggestions for further research that can be done in the area of critical pedagogy:

Further studies can be done with larger samples selected from many more universities.

Similar studies can be done with practicing high school and private institute language teachers whose critical consciousness is more urgently required than that of prospective English teachers.

Another useful research work is to compare the critical attitudes of MA graduates in TEFL whose theses involved the investigation of critical pedagogy issues with those graduates whose theses were irrelevant to critical pedagogy.

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E-C Advertisement Translation on Communicative Translation and Semantic Translation Theory

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Abstract—Advertisement has been playing a more and more important role in both our life and society because of the world's commercialization and globalization. So there is an urgent need to study on which way is better for advertisement translation. According to Newmark's theory, communicative translation tries to produce the same effect to the readers as the original readers who read the SL. While semantic translation attempts to translate word for word without even changing the sequence or the structure of word and sentence in SL, regardless of the cultural background of readers who read TL. This paper may serve a discussion about the question which way of translation, communicative or semantic translation can be best taken advantage of to translate advertisement.

Index Terms—advertisement translation, communicative, semantic

I. INTRODUCTION

In the past twenty years, the domestic research of advertisement translation has achieved great success. After a comprehensive study of the articles and works on advertisement translation, the study of advertisement language and advertisement translation in the past twenty years in China can be divided into two stages. Since the research on this respect is a developing course, there is no clear or absolute borderline of such a division. From the middle to the end of the 1990s can be regarded as the first stage. Lots of scholars and translators began to deal with advertisement translation with some certain translation principles or procedures. However, their main concern is whether the advertisement language or translation is beautiful or not. On the other hand, few researches were under the guidance of a definite translation theory; most of them studied with the methods of induction and exemplification. The past ten years sees a deepened research and a fast development of advertisement translation study in China. Some factors like: different kinds of western translation theories introduced in China, more researchers engaged in advertisement translation study with translation theory pushed the further development.

Of course, there were scholars analyzed advertisement translations applying Newmark's theory. Vocative function is one of the text functions that Newmark once put forward and it was used to analyze advertisement translation. That is to say that a translator has the responsibility to revise or recreate the advertisement when there are obscurities in the original advertisements regardless of the personal style or text style of the original. The aim of such "recreation" is to put the readers as the highest priority so that the translation would be in line with the cultural customs and cater to the TL readers.

To draw a conclusion, over the past years, advertisement translation studies in Chins have became more and more mature. Although so many scholars study the procedures of advertisement translation, few of them paid much attention to the applying of Newmark's communicative and semantic translation. This paper would try to explore how these two ways of translation can be applied in advertisement translation. After a general review of the researches of predecessors on advertisement translation, the author realized that the study of advertisements in China needs to be expanded and deepened. However, few has applied semantic and communicative translation to analyze advertisement translation or discussed whether they are proper to be used in advertisement translation.

II. OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

With the world's commercialization and globalization, advertisements have almost entered every aspects of life. They play an important role in enlarging markets, promoting sales and building a certain group of consumers.

It is not hard to find that there are an increasing number of foreign goods entered our life. Translation needs of those foreign brands or slogans are becoming more and more urgent, and a well-translated advertisement is of great importance to a company. Foreigners will recognize Chinese brands through translations of advertisements. As a consequence, there is now a fierce competition of advertising because advertisements indeed play a more significant role in international market enlargement and attracting foreign consumers. A higher demand for well-translated advertisement is emerging.

Peter Newmark, a prominent figure in the field of translation, made his great contribution because of his putting

forward of communicative translation and semantic translation theory. Following Cicero, St. Jerome, Luther, Dryden, Tytler, Herder, Goethe, Schliermacher, Buber, Newmark proposed his definition of communicative translation and semantic translation in *Approaches to Translation*: communicative translation attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original. (Newmark, 2001). Such a theory is appropriate for advertisement translation study. Communicative translation regards the persuasive function of advertisement in the TL as the highest priority in translation. It also takes the foreign elements, norms of TL and messages within SL into consideration so that rhetoric features in SL can be best presented. While semantic translation can help to realize informative function of advertisements. (Newmark, 2001) The author holds that the two ways of translation, communicative and semantic translation, the former one may best serve to translate advertisements as its requirements meets the persuasive function of advertisements and rhetoric features can be better presented. In this paper, some detailed examples will be presented to show the effect of the best way of advertisement translation.

III. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO ADVERTISEMENT

The origin of the word: advertisement is "advertere" in Latin. Nowadays, there are many doctrines of explanation to this concept, which are literally different but similar in meaning: the advertisement is an activity of spreading information that are often provided by certain investors through media. (Newmark, 2001) We can see that there are some basic components within the definition of advertisements: (1) advertisements are for the mass consumers, (2) advertisements are for spreading information, which can be something about products or service. They can also be used in fields like economical, political, religion or social concepts. (3) They are shown to people through media, such as TV program, newspapers, magazines and so on. (4) They are sponsored by a certain people or a group for some purposes, which mainly are promoting products or gaining profits.

In our modern society advertisements have been imposing a great influence upon economical and life. Advertisements can be found almost everywhere, including television, newspapers, magazines and even wrappings, etc. although the aim of advertisements is to sell products, its functions doesn't stop there. In practice, that is where it starts. Therefore, it is necessary to study the functions of advertisements, which may fall into five categories:

a. The information function

There is no doubt that consumers firstly need to know which products are exact what they want, so the information would be real, detailed and understandable; making the customers know what the products are how is the service. After the consumers get the information about products and service, it needed to arouse their desire to buy and make them curious and then, they feel they need to spend money. The demand creation is such formed.

b. The persuasive function

Once the consumers are willing to have a try but they aren't sure whether the products are as good as the description, they will hesitate. The advertisements help to persuade or courage them to buy. It doesn't mean that they are forced to buy by the producer. Consumers are also persuaded to establish a good corporation identity in their mind by advertisements, which can help to set up their confidence and a belief of high-quality products and services.

c. The economical function

People are invited to try new products so that in long term fewer people buy obsolete ones. In this way, they accelerate the success and failure of products. Providing the information of new products and their prices, buyers are aware of applying new technology and are more willing to buy them, so the competition between firms become fierce. It is possible that products are developed but prices are lower. The rise of a certain brand is also a showcase of its economical function.

d. The social function

Advertisements play a role in society and it is one of the major forces which can help to foster growth and understanding of important social issues. They could open another window for us to learn about the society. They also inform us of new and improved products and teach people how to use these innovations. By advertisements, consumers compare products and decide what to buy. Fashion trend also can be reflected.

e. The educational function

Through advertisements we can know the advancement of our society. The charity advertisements can be taken as an example. There are charity advertisements which remind us of saving water, loving peace, protecting environment around us, caring the disabled and the elder and so on. People are more aware of such social problems so that they will take action.

Now let us study the rhetorical features of advertisement. Metaphor is a common-found rhetoric in advertisements A metaphor compares two things, which may be quite different, because one has a characteristic that is similar to the other. My ocean. What a simple slogan. This is an advertisement of perfume for women. Ocean is metaphor of women or one's girlfriend. The producer encourages men to buy his girl friend such a perfume. According to Newmark's analysis, five possible procedures using communicative or semantic translation in translating standard have been put forward. (Newmark, 2001) What is his opinion of translating metaphor and simile using communicative and semantic translation will be discussed in the next part.

Sometimes we may find it difficult to understand puns in English, because a pun is usually a humorous use of a word in such a way as to suggest two or more of its meanings or the meaning of another word similar in sound. Puns are often

used in advertisements so that the propaganda of a certain product becomes more implicit and provide a larger space for consumers to imagine. (Nida, 1998) From Sharp minds come Sharp products. One of the original meanings of sharp is wise and acute. Sharp is also a brand of digital products. So here sharp is a pun which means a group of wise and acute people produce products of sharp, so such digital machines are of high quality.

Probably we could find some clues why parallel is among the best choices of propaganda in Chinese. Two or more words, phrases, or clauses that are similar in length and grammatical form appear together, which is the usual structure of parallel. In such a way, advertisements have stronger imposing manner. We could also find the similar effects using parallel in advertisement. Here is an example: more services, more data, more revenue. Less cost, less time, less space, less complex. Lucen can help make your network more profitable. Through parallel, almost all the advantages of Lucen Technologies are shown.

Some advertisement creator may good at applying antithesis to advertisements. "Sweet, Smart& Sassy" this is a short but excellent advertisement of an orange company in Florida.

In language, alliteration refers to the repetition of a particular sound in the first syllables of a series of words or phrases. Health, Humor & Happiness... Gifts we'd love to give.

IV. NEWMARK'S COMMUNICATIVE TRANSLATION AND SEMANTIC TRANSLATION

The main contribution of Peter Newmark is that he analyzed two ways of translation: communicative translation and semantic translation, in a detailed way. Here the definition of these two ways of translation should be mentioned: communicative translation attempts to produce on its readers an effect that obtained on the readers of the original. Semantic translation attempts to render the exact meaning of the original. (Newmark, 2001). Theoretically speaking, they are quite different from each other. Communicative translation focuses on readers, taking explaining the obscurities into consideration and expecting to make the translation smoother, briefer and more understandable. Such translation should respect the culture background of the readers so some foreign element would be transferred where necessary. On the other hand, adopting communicative translation doesn't equal to ignoring the syntactic equivalence. What is more important is that in order to make the translation conform to the form of target language, the translator would be free from the regulations of source language, transferring foreign elements to local expressions while making easier for readers to understand. Here the source language would play a part as material basis that should be respected by the translators. For example, the Chinese translation of "as poor as a church mouse" should be "yi pin ru xi" (as poor as been washed). The figure within this metaphor was replaced so that translation becomes more acceptable to readers.

Semantic translation addresses itself to analyzing the meanings of words and sentences in source language, trying to make the semantic and syntactic structures of translation as close as the source language. It remains within the original culture while not allowing changing any local expressions of the source language. Since semantic translation strives to retain the distinguishing features and special expressions of source language, it shows writer's thought-process in a best way. Thus, semantic translation tends to be more complex, more awkward, more detailed, more concentrated and more specific than the original, to include more meanings in its search for one nuance of meaning. (Newmark, 2001) But what are the other differences between communicative and semantic translation? In communicative translation, the main meanings of the message should be transferred and the main goal of communicative translation is the translation of meanings. Here which way is better is not what we discuss, what we know is that although meanings within these expressions could both be transferred, it is more understandable whether on the respect of cultural background and syntactic structures. We can also draw a conclusion that in communicative translation, translators are loyal to target language norms while in semantic translation, translators are loyal to the author of source texts. On the other hand, the semantic translation has its own character that it attempts to recreate the exact flavor and tone of the original, one of the reasons is that the form and content are more important. Although the translators try to do almost word-for-word translation in semantic translation, a loss of meaning may be inevitable. (Hatim, 2001)

Newmark also stated that different styles of writing are suitable for different kinds of ways of translation. Most non-literal writing, journalism, popular fiction are suitable for communicative translation, while writings such as philosophical, religious, political, scientific, technical or literary need to be translated semantically. (Newmark, 2001) Common sense or the information free from cultural restrictions can be either translated by communicative translation or semantic translation. Translators therefore should emphasize both content and form of information in translation. To handle the materials concerning religion, philosophy, art and science, the two translation methods can basically prompt similar effects because the materials are the knowledge quite familiar to SL readers and TL readers as well.

Although there are differences between communicative and semantic translation and they have their own features, we cannot perceive them separately. The precise concepts of semantic and communicative translation may be well-explained in this part, so were the differences between them.

The concepts of semantic and communicative translation are two main contributions to general translation theory. As people have long believed that language is purely a social phenomenon, they ignored that there exists a close relationship between the structures of grammar and semantic structure and the expression of thoughts.

In Newmark's following study of communicative and semantic translation, some main points have been put forward. The deeper understanding of the two ways of translation is definitely further explained. After presenting the definitions of interlinear and literal translation, he figured out: the basic difference between semantic and literal translation is that

the former respects context, the latter does not. (Newmark, 1981/2001)

V. CASE STUDY OF COMMUNICATIVE TRANSLATION AND SEMANTIC TRANSLATION IN ADVERTISEMENT TRANSLATION

It is believed that rhetoric makes expressions more vivid and impressive, so it is widely used to leave readers deeper impression, make sentences more understandable and persuasive. The functions of rhetoric just meet the requirements of advertisements, so Advertisements have such features. Rhetoric plays a role to bridge the concrete products and the abstract advantages of products. On this respect, a successful advertisements translation of rhetoric is of great importance.

a. Translation of Metaphor Appeared in Advertisements

A metaphor is a literary figure of speech that describes a subject by asserting that it is, on some point of comparison, the same as another otherwise unrelated object, achieving their effects via association, comparison or resemblance. It is more implicit and concise, leaving the reader much space to imagine and think about the real aim of advertisements. The proper translation of it will also add vividness and appeal to the target language. Newmark has put forward five possible procedures or solutions in translating metaphors. With the directions of these five solutions, we need to judge which solution is proper to translate a certain advertisement. (Newmark, 2001)

(1) Sophisticated, sweet-to-drink Pink Lady.

Gaogui jingzhi, ke kou de hong fen jia ren.

This is an advertisement for wine. We know that communicative translation focuses on readers, taking explaining the obscurities into consideration and expecting to make the translation smoother, briefer and more understandable. However, tenor and vehicle within this simile are properly acceptable for target language readers; using the first solution is enough to meet the requirements of producer. It is translated semantically. The translator achieves the equivalence of sentence pattern and respects the author.

(2) EBEL, the architects of time.

Yī bēi ěr shǒu biǎo shí jiān de dì zào zhě

Less words are used but high quality and extraordinary features are presented. We can see that the vehicle in the target language is changed. This solution is the second solution that was put forward by Newmark. The second procedure is applied here, which is to translate with a different image that has the same sense. If we translated this as:

Yī bēi ěr shǒu biǎo shí jiān de jiàn zhù shī

This is treated semantically; Chinese consumers probably cannot understand the goal of this propaganda. Here I am not praising or degrading neither ways of translation. The goal of such analyze is discussing how to make the advertisement translation better. Communicative translation would be proper when we need to transfer the images.

(3) My ocean. (My ocean Club Med Eau de toilette for her)

Wǒ de hǎi yáng

The tenor is girls or women, while the vehicle is ocean. This advertisement gives consumers a feeling that if a boy buys his girlfriend this perfume, this girl is quiet valuable for him, but it seems that a simple translation used semantic translation like this cannot totally meet the requirements of this advertisement.

As for the culture background respect, the vehicle, ocean, can be well understood by target language readers. However, for such a metaphor, the sense—one's beloved woman behind the image—ocean should be fully interpreted that the TL readers can understand the real goal of this advertisement. Such a translation meets the fifth procedures in translating standard. If we translate it communicatively used the fifth solution, the translation will be:

zhì wǒ de hǎi yáng wǒ shēn ài de tā

b. Translation of Pun Appeared in Advertisements

The definition of pun may be described as: a play on words, either on different senses of the same word or on the similar sense or sound of different words. Sometimes we find it difficult to understand puns in English. On the other hand, the advertisement creator are fond of use it to produce a effect of tricky, interesting and impressive. As a consequence, a good translation of puns in English advertisements is indeed necessary and valuable for both producers and consumers.

You will go nuts for the nuts you get in Nux.

Xiǎng yòng páij iān guǒ gāo xìng dé bù dé liǎo

Nux is a brand of nuts. This advertisement is easy to read and impressive. The two "nuts" appeared in this advertisement form a pun. "Go nuts" means "go wild". The following "nuts" means nuts of Nux. But it seems that we cannot create the same effects in translation. It is translated semantically and the double meanings are well explained. Since there exist no culture overlap, the translator needn't add any cultural equivalence. Applying semantic translation in advertisement translation to show puns appeared in ads, we may not get an outstanding effect or the full meanings of puns cannot be presented. Only when syntactic structures in SL are also acceptable in TL can we translate puns in advertisements semantically. Otherwise, communicative translation is recommended.

c. Translation of parallel appeared in advertisements

Two or more words, phrases, or clauses that are similar in length and grammatical form appear together, which is the usual structure of parallel. In such a way, advertisements have stronger imposing manner. We could also find the similar effects using parallel in advertisement. a successful translation of parallel in advertisement will create the same

impressive effects in TL.

VI. CONCLUSION

There is no doubt that advertisements have become one part of our life. They provide information of various products through different media. Not only that, they explain to consumers the usage of products and how to enjoy a service. Probably, they bring more advantages to entrepreneurs. The most obvious one is that through stimulating consumers' desire to buy, they gain profits. With all these informative, marketing and social functions, advertising is one dispensable part in the modern world. However, different types of advertisements not only give rise to failures or misunderstanding in intercultural communication but also pose headaches to translation theorists and translators. Translators usually feel frustrated when encountering the nonequivalence and untranslatable advertisements. Although the problem of limited equivalence and untranslatability do exist, they are much more relative and in a dynamic process. Such translation difficulties can be eased by proper translation strategies and improvement of social environment.

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The Relationship between Gender and Student Engagement, Instructional Strategies, and Classroom Management of Iranian EFL Teachers

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Abstract—Teachers' self-efficacy is of critical significance for both female and male teachers, and it can affect their job life. In spite of the fact that some scholars have investigated self-efficacy, there are no studies regarding teachers' gender and their subscales of self-efficacy (i.e. student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management). Therefore, this study aimed at investigating the relationship between gender and subscales of self-efficacy of Iranian EFL teachers. So, 34 EFL teachers who were teaching in private English language institutes in Karaj were asked to complete Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) questionnaire. After analyzing the data, it was revealed that males and females did not differ as far as classroom management was considered. However, they differed in terms of student engagement and instructional strategies; male teachers were better at student engagement, while female teachers were better at instructional strategies.

Index Terms—gender, subscales of self-efficacy, EFL teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

One reason that causes the progress of an educational system is employing qualified teachers. These teachers possess some characteristics and having high self-efficacy is one of them (Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, & Malone, 2006). Therefore, teachers with high self-efficacy should be employed to promote education.

Self-efficacy is defined as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance that exercise influence over events that affect their lives" (Bandura, 1994, p. 2).

Although some studies have been conducted to explore the relationship between teachers' gender and their self-efficacy (which the findings are controversial), no study was reviewed by the researchers to examine the relationship between teachers' gender and their subscales of self-efficacy (student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management). Hence, it remains unclear that in which subscales of self-efficacy female teachers are stronger, and in which ones male teachers are better. So, unlike most studies which consider implications of teachers' gender on their self-efficacy as a whole, the present study aims at exploring the relationship between gender and subscales of self-efficacy of EFL teachers.

Besides, as it was mentioned above, existing articles regarding the relationship between teachers' gender and their self-efficacy are controversial: Some of them assert that there is no relationship between teachers' gender and their self-efficacy, and some of them believe that there is a relationship: Female teachers have stronger self-efficacy than males. Hence, shortage of a definite answer adds to the importance of the present research.

This study attempts to answer the following question:

Is there a statistically significant relationship between gender and subscales of self-efficacy of Iranian EFL teachers?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Teachers' Self-efficacy

Bandura (1999) explained that self-efficacy operates "by influencing how threats are cognitively processed, by supporting coping actions that alter the threats, by exercising control over perturbing thought patterns and by alleviating aversive affective states" (p. 50).

Teacher self-efficacy is defined as "teacher's belief in his or her capability to organize and execute courses of action required to successfully accomplish a specific teaching task in a particular context" (Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Hoy, 1998, p. 22).

Chacon (2005) believed that in addition to beliefs and personal knowledge, other factors such as “impact exerted by culture and society on the teachers’ expectations, roles, and social relations” (p. 258) are involved in formation of teachers’ self-efficacy.

Friedman and Kass (2002) proposed a novel model of teachers’ self-efficacy called Classroom and School Context (CSC). This model is composed of two dimensions of teachers’ function, namely classroom and school. The first dimension is related to teachers functioning in classroom, working with students and the second dimension is related to teachers functioning outside classroom, at school, interacting with personnel, parents, principal and colleagues. As Vaezi and Fallah (2011) put it, in the second dimension, “.... teacher functions as a member of an *organization* [emphasis added]” (p. 1170). The considerable point of this model is expression of a dimension which is overlooked in many studies and that is *organizational efficacy*. This organizational efficacy, according to Cherniss (1993), influenced teachers.

B. *Effects of Teachers’ Self-efficacy*

Teachers’ performance affects their self-efficacy and self-efficacy influences teachers’ performance too. If a teacher has a successful experience of working with a variety of students, this will increase their confidence, which in turn will enhance their self-efficacy, and if s/he is not successful in their experience with students, their judgment will influence their confidence and self-efficacy, which in turn, will affect the time s/he will persist in teaching (Yost, 2006). Or if a teacher considers themselves unsuccessful in dealing with a particular group of learners, s/he will not spend much energy on teaching and will stop attempting with the appearance of the first obstacle, in spite of the fact that s/he may have the required knowledge and technique to solve the problem (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). So, it can be said that “self-efficacy beliefs can therefore become self-fulfilling prophesies, validating beliefs either of capability or of incapacity” (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007, p. 3).

Teachers with high levels of self-efficacy are more satisfied with their job (Caprara et al., 2006; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2002), expect a lot from themselves, stand firm when they face barriers (Ross & Bruce, 2007), and have more endurance and flexibility (Somech & Zahavy, 2000).

Furthermore, teachers with higher levels of self-efficacy are more confident in their teaching abilities, have more positive attitudes towards teaching, and are “active and assured in their responses to students” (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 9). In addition, Efficacious teachers “persist longer, provide a greater academic focus in the classroom, and exhibit different types of feedback” (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998, p. 9).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

Participants of this study were composed of 34 EFL teachers. Out of these 34 teachers, 22 were females and 12 were males. They were between 24 to 35 years old. These teachers were teaching in private English language institutes in Karaj.

B. *Instrument*

Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) created by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) was utilized in this study. Klassen et al. (2009) maintained that TSES is reliable, and it “... showed convincing evidence of reliability and measurement invariance across the five countries” (p. 67).

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) investigated the validity of Ohio State Teacher Efficacy Scale (OSTES) (another name for TSES) and asserted that “the OSTES could be considered reasonably valid and reliable it is of reasonable length and should prove to be a useful tool for researchers interested in exploring the construct of teacher efficacy” (p. 801).

There were 24 items and three subscales in TSES. These subscales were efficacy in student engagement, efficacy in instructional strategies, and efficacy in classroom management. Eight items were related to each subscale. Items 1, 2, 4, 6, 9, 12, 14, 22 were concerned with student engagement, items 7, 10, 11, 17, 18, 20, 23, 24 were pertained to instructional strategies, and items 3, 5, 8, 13, 15, 16, 19, 21 dealt with classroom management. These 24 items were offered on a 9-point Likert scale, ranging from: 1- nothing, to 9- a great deal (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The reliabilities of the subscales of self-efficacy for the present study follow: 0.81 for student engagement, 0.84 for instructional strategies, and 0.71 for classroom management.

C. *Procedure*

EFL teachers received TSES questionnaire, and they were asked to answer it.

D. *Data Analysis*

A Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was run to answer the research question.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The research question can be converted into the following null hypothesis:

Hypothesis₀: There is no statistically significant difference between male and female EFL teachers in terms of their subscales of self-efficacy.

In order to answer the research question, multivariate analysis of covariance (MANOVA) was run. Before reporting the MANOVA results, first, equality of variance is checked. As it can be seen in the following table (Table I), none of the variables recorded significant values; therefore, the researchers can assume equal variances.

TABLE I
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES FOR GENDER AND SELF-EFFICACY SUBSCALES

	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Student engagement	.423	1	195	.516
Instructional strategies	.470	1	195	.494
Class management	.004	1	195	.952

Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.

a. Design: Intercept + gender

Second, multivariate tests are checked. This set of multivariate tests of significance indicates whether there are statistically significant differences among the groups (gender in the present study) on a linear combinations of the dependent variables, namely student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management or not. The multivariate tests of significance produced are Wilks' Lambda, Pillai's trace, Hotelling's Trace and Roy's Largest Root. All the values of these tests for the independent variable, namely gender, are 29.642, with a significance value of .00. This is less than the cut-off .05; therefore, there is statistically significant difference between male and female teachers in terms of student engagement, instructional strategies, and classroom management.

TABLE II
MULTIVARIATE TESTS FOR GENDER AND SELF-EFFICACY SUBSCALES

MULTIVARIATE TESTS FOR GENDER AND SELF-EFFICACY SUBSCALES							
Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.992	7577.007 ^a	3.000	193.000	.000	.992
	Wilks' Lambda	.008	7577.007 ^a	3.000	193.000	.000	.992
	Hotelling's Trace	117.777	7577.007 ^a	3.000	193.000	.000	.992
	Roy's Largest Root	117.777	7577.007 ^a	3.000	193.000	.000	.992
Gender	Pillai's Trace	.315	29.642 ^a	3.000	193.000	.000	.315
	Wilks' Lambda	.685	29.642 ^a	3.000	193.000	.000	.315
	Hotelling's Trace	.461	29.642 ^a	3.000	193.000	.000	.315
	Roy's Largest Root	.461	29.642 ^a	3.000	193.000	.000	.315

a. Exact statistic

b. Design: intercept + gender

Third, the Tests of Between-Subjects Effects were examined. Because three separate analyses are at work here, researchers are advised to set a higher alpha level to reduce the chance of Type I error, i.e. finding a significant result when there is not really one (cf. Pallant, 2007). Hence, the alpha of .05 is divided by 3, coming up with a new alpha level of .017. The present researchers, then, consider the results significant only if the probability value is less than .017. As it is displayed in the following table (Table III), male and female teachers do not differ as far as classroom management is considered. However, they differ in terms of student engagement, and instructional strategies they employ. Based on the 'partial eta squared' index provided in the table of Tests of Between-Subjects Effects (Table III), .056 of the variance is accounted for by student engagement and instructional strategies factors respectively.

TABLE III
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS FOR GENDER AND SELF-EFFICACY SUBSCALES

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter
Corrected Model	Student eng	362.437 ^a	1	362.437	11.497	.001	.056	11.497
	Instructional str	383.498 ^c	1	383.498	11.575	.001	.056	11.575
	Class manage	43.757 ^d	1	43.757	1.068	.303	.005	1.068
Intercept	Student eng	595181.218	1	595181.218	18880.077	.000	.990	18880.077
	Instructional str	661868.168	1	661868.168	19977.378	.000	.990	19977.378
	Class manage	699097.158	1	699097.158	17067.308	.000	.989	17067.308
Gender	Student eng	362.437	1	362.437	11.497	.001	.056	11.497
	Instructional str	383.498	1	383.498	11.575	.001	.056	11.575
	Class manage	43.757	1	43.757	1.068	.303	.005	1.068
Error	Student eng	6147.239	195	31.524				
	Instructional str	6460.522	195	33.131				
	Class manage	7987.431	195	40.961				
Total	Student eng	668290.000	197					
	Instructional str	767588.000	197					
	Class manage	802829.000	197					
Corrected Total	Student eng	6509.675	196					
	Instructional str	6844.020	196					
	Class manage	8031.188	196					

a. R Squared = .056 (Adjusted R Squared = .051)

b. Computed using alpha = .05

c. R Squared = .056 (Adjusted R Squared = .051)

d. R Squared = .005 (Adjusted R Squared = .000)

As it was mentioned above, male and female teachers differ in terms of student engagement, and instructional strategies they employ. The question is where the difference lies. In order to answer this question, the researchers examined the table of pairwise comparisons (Table IV). According to the Table IV, male teachers are better at student engagement, however female teachers are better at instructional strategies. So, the null hypothesis is rejected.

TABLE IV
PAIRWISE COMPARISONS FOR GENDER AND SELF-EFFICACY SUBSCALES

Dependent Variable	(I) Gender	(J) Gender	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Student eng	Female	Male	-2.885 [*]	.851	.001	-4.563	-1.207
	Male	Female	2.885 [*]	.851	.001	1.207	4.563
Instructional str	Female	Male	2.967 [*]	.872	.001	1.247	4.687
	Male	Female	-2.967 [*]	.872	.001	-4.687	-1.247
Class manage	Female	Male	1.002	.970	.303	-.910	2.915
	Male	Female	-1.002	.970	.303	-2.915	.910

Based on estimated marginal means

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

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study investigated the relationship between gender and subscales of self-efficacy of Iranian EFL teachers. Therefore, difference between male and female teachers in terms of subscales of self-efficacy (student engagement, instruction strategies, and classroom management) was explored and the outcomes showed that males and females do not differ as far as classroom management is considered. However, they differed in terms of student engagement and instructional strategies they employ; male teachers were better at student engagement, while female teachers were better at instructional strategies.

Andersen (2011), Cheung (2006), Coladarci (1992), Coladarci and Breton (1997), Naseri Karimvand (2011), Raudenbush, Rowan, and Cheong (1992), and Ross (1994) found that female teachers have higher self-efficacy than male teachers. Anderson, Greene, and Loewen (1988), Evans and Tribble (1986), Gavora (2011), and Greenwood, Olejnik, and Parkay (1990) found that female teachers have higher personal teaching efficacy than male teachers.

Garvis (2009), Gencer and Cakiroglu (2007), Ghaith and Shaaban (1999), Hashemi and Ghanizadeh (2011), Hoy and Woolfolk (1993), Lee, Dedrick, and Smith (1991), Pajares (2002), Taimalu and Oim (2005), Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2002), Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007), and Wilson and Tan (2004) in their studies demonstrated that there is no relationship between gender and self-efficacy, i.e. males and females do not differ in terms of self-efficacy.

On the one hand, it can be claimed that women are usually more attentive than men. They pay attention to details more than men do, and women are more careful in doing their job. Women are usually more organized than men, and try to do their job as carefully as they can. These are true in the case of teaching as well: Because female teachers are

more attentive, accurate and organized than men, they usually attempt to have the best instruction. They are usually sensitive to teach as effectively as they can and not to skip anything because they pay attention to details.

On the other hand, men usually do not wish to be the only speaker; even they prefer not to talk too much. Maybe it is due to this characteristic that male teachers prefer to engage learners more in teaching and allow them to have role in classroom and in their (learners) learning.

Furthermore, in traditional educational system, when teachers did not have the role of facilitator, a good teacher was a person who did everything needed and left very few things for learners to do. If s/he spoke little, or left a lot of tasks for learners to do, people possibly assumed that s/he was not a good teacher and s/he did not teach. Nowadays, this belief still exists among some learners and their parents. Maybe women because of their caution and fear of dismissal or demotion, follow the traditional educational principles, and do not provide the learners with the chance to be engaged in learning. However, men do the contrary: They engage learners in learning, and allow them to express themselves because men are more dauntless than women.

The findings of the present study may have the following implications for teacher trainers and teachers. Teacher trainers should run special courses for male and female teachers. Since the results of this piece of research indicated that male teachers were not strong in instructional strategies, in courses for male teachers, teacher trainers should try to focus on instructional strategies. They need to work on variant types and models of instructional strategies, and help male teachers to improve their abilities in the realm of instructional strategies. While running courses for female teachers, teacher trainers are required to help female teachers to develop their skills in engaging students. The findings of the present study showed that female teachers are not strong in engaging students, so teacher trainers should explain the necessity and methods of students' engagement to female teachers.

Male and female teachers themselves need to focus on developing the self-efficacy subscales in which they are not strong. Hence, Male teachers should concentrate on enhancing their instructional strategies, and female teachers should try to develop their efficacy in student engagement.

APPENDIX. OSTES QUESTIONNAIRE

Teacher Beliefs		How much can you do?								
Directions: This questionnaire is designed to help us gain a better understanding of the kinds of things that create difficulties for teachers in their school activities. Please indicate your opinion about each of the statements below. Your answers are confidential.		Nothing	Very Little	Some Influence	Quite A Bit	A Great Deal				
1.	How much can you do to get through to the most difficult students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
2.	How much can you do to help your students think critically?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
3.	How much can you do to control disruptive behavior in the classroom?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
4.	How much can you do to motivate students who show low interest in school work?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
5.	To what extent can you make your expectations clear about student behavior?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
6.	How much can you do to get students to believe they can do well in school work?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
7.	How well can you respond to difficult questions from your students ?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
8.	How well can you establish routines to keep activities running smoothly?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
9.	How much can you do to help your students value learning?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
10.	How much can you gauge student comprehension of what you have taught?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
11.	To what extent can you craft good questions for your students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
12.	How much can you do to foster student creativity?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
13.	How much can you do to get children to follow classroom rules?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
14.	How much can you do to improve the understanding of a student who is failing?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
15.	How much can you do to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
16.	How well can you establish a classroom management system with each group of students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
17.	How much can you do to adjust your lessons to the proper level for individual students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
18.	How much can you use a variety of assessment strategies?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
19.	How well can you keep a few problem students from ruining an entire lesson?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
20.	To what extent can you provide an alternative explanation or example when students are confused?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
21.	How well can you respond to defiant students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
22.	How much can you assist families in helping their children do well in school?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
23.	How well can you implement alternative strategies in your classroom?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)
24.	How well can you provide appropriate challenges for very capable students?	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)

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On Foreignization of Cultural Elements in the Translation of Classical Chinese Poetry

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Abstract—Based on the theory of foreignization and domestication, this essay analyzes the translation of cultural elements in classical Chinese poetry (CCP) and advocates that foreignization should be employed as the preferable approach in the translation of the cultural elements with Chinese cultural connotations.

Index Terms—foreignization, cultural elements, classical Chinese poetry

I. CULTURAL TRANSLATION STRATEGIES: DOMESTICATION AND FOREIGNIZATION

Translation is a cross-cultural practice, so how to deal with the cultural elements in literary translation has long been a heated topic for debate. Generally speaking, there are two strategies in dealing with cultural elements: foreignization and domestication. The roots of these two terms can be traced back to the German theologian and philosophers Friedrich Scheiermacher's lecture "On the Different Ways of Translating" in 1813. In this lecture, when he talked about the different methods of translating, he said that there are only two different methods of translation: "either the translator leaves the author in peace, as much as possible, and moves the reader towards him; or he leaves the reader in peace, as much as possible, and moves the author towards him" (Venuti, 2004, p.19-20). In his book *The Translator's Invisibility* in 1995, Lawrence Venuti coined two terms to describe these two methods: domesticating translation and foreignizing translation. The former refers to "the type of translation in which a TT is produced which deliberately breaks target conventions by retaining something of the foreignness of the original." (Shuttleworth. M & Cowie. M, 2004, p.59) The later, however, is "the translation strategy in which a transparent, fluent style is adopted in order to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text for TL readers" (ibid,p.43-44).

A. Nida's Advocacy of Domesticating Translation

Domestication-oriented translation in the West started in Britain in the 17th century. There have been many advocates of domestication in the circle of translation, such as Delhram, John Dryden, and Tytler. By putting forward his "dynamic equivalence" theory, Eugene. Nida, the American translation theorist, made himself the theoretic representative of domestication school.

He defines the ideal of translation as "the reproduction in a receptor language of the closest natural equivalent of the source language message, first in terms of meaning, and second in terms of style". (Nida, 2004, p.210) He puts forward the concept of "Dynamic Equivalence (or Functional Equivalence)" that "aims at complete naturalness of expression and tries to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of his own culture (ibid, p.159). Nida lays much emphasis on the reader's response, so in his opinion, the translator's way of expressing should be completely natural and in the translated text, the original cultural elements should be embedded into the TL reader's culture category.

It is obvious that, the process of achieving "naturalness of expression" involves domesticating translation. In a recent work, Nida states (2004, p.56) "the translator must be a person who draws aside the curtains of linguistic and cultural difference so that people may see clearly the relevance of the original message." So according to him, domestication is not only necessary but also unavoidable and translators must overcome the barrier of the language as well as the culture so as to help the TL readers better understand the SL. Thus, the English expression "to grow like mushrooms" can very well be translated into Chinese as "雨后春笋" because Chinese readers will have the similar associations to those of English readers and thus the dynamic equivalence is achieved. By making such change of cultural images in translation, Nida holds that cultural conflicts can be avoided. Obviously, Nida lays more stress on the retention of meaning than that of cultural essence, which is consistent with his principle of translation, that is, translating is translating meaning.

Domestication has long been the dominant school of translation in the West. Venuti points out that "English translation has taken, ever since the 17th century, 'fluent translation'-domestication, as its dominant stream and it has been continued till the present day." (2004, p.66) Nida and those who advocates domestication have roughly three reasons:

First, the SL and TL have different linguistic and cultural norms; it is not only hazardous but also unrealistic to force one into the pattern of another. A good translation should overcome the linguistic as well as cultural barriers to ensure the readability and understandability of the translated text.

Secondly, the intended reader and his expectation should be the greatest concerns of the translator. The Reception Theory indicates that the comprehension of the text is based not only on reader's linguistic knowledge but also on his

prior knowledge of the world, so the cultural barriers that hamper the reader's understanding of the text should be modified in order to fulfill the function of communication.

Finally, in meeting the needs of cultural contact and intercultural communication, a translator should avoid cultural conflicts that may lead to cultural misunderstanding. A domesticating translation brings about content and forms familiar to the TL readers, thus achieving high degree of effectiveness.

The domesticating translation tends to bring out the communicative aspect of language and translation and is easier for the readers to understand and accept. It has been very powerful and popular for a long period in translation circle. However, the naturalness and easiness of the target text are often achieved at the expense of cultural messages of the source text. The direct result of this kind of translation is more or less a degree of "normalization", where all the otherness of the source language culture is made to disappear. With the development of cultural exchanges, domestication can no longer meet the needs of readers who are eager to know more directly and authentically foreign cultures. Therefore, translators turn to the other strategy-foreignization.

B. Venuti's Advocacy of Foreignization Translation

Foreignization, quite opposite to domestication, is source language culture-oriented in handling the cultural elements in translation. Although there have been lots of scholars who advocates foreignization, such as Friedrich Schleiermacher, Walter Benjamin and Antoine Berman, it is Lawrence Venuti who make the greatest contribution to the development of this strategy.

In western translation history, what prevailed was traditional fluent strategy –domestication, which seeks an illusion of transparent translation. People like Venuti maintain that the illusion of transparency, the effect of fluent strategy, makes the translator invisible and the translated text "natural". After criticizing the dominating domestication method, Venuti advocates foreignized translation in order to "develop a theory and practice of translation that resists dominant target-language cultural values so as to signify the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text" (2004, p.23) He regards the domestication as cultural narcissism and imperialism. And the purpose of foreignization, according to him, is to resist against the ethnocentrism and racism.

Lawrence Venuti, an affirmative advocate of foreignization, is most well known for his concept of "resistant translation", according to which the foreignness of the source-language text should be kept obvious in the target-language text. He overtly states that his purpose is to develop a new type of translation theory and practice, to stop the target-language culture from taking the leading position. He even goes so far as to oppose the smoothness of target-language text.

Foreignization aims to transmit the alien features of the source culture, transplanting the new images and concepts into the target language and culture. Thus the target language will be enriched and reformed. Venuti holds that domesticating translation makes the translator invisible and the dominant cultures usually adopt the domesticating translation strategy to produce coherent reading for the target language readers. On the surface, the translated text reads fluently and naturally but source language culture is effaced. He calls this "cultural imperialism" and advocates that American translators employ the resistant strategy—foreignizing translation to resist cultural hegemonism. He holds that it is the translator's responsibility to show the linguistic and cultural differences in translation rather than efface them.

II. DIFFERENT METHODS OF FOREIGNIZING TRANSLATION

The translator plays an important role in establishing cultural equivalence between the source text and the target text. Whether or how to establish cultural equivalence in translating the cultural elements depends on many elements, among which the cultural flavor of the source text is the most important. In other words, translators should employ foreignization strategy to keep the original cultural messages to a high degree so as to fulfill the task of cross-cultural communication. However, strategy is a general direction or planning. It is different from method and technique. Strategy means a general decision at a higher level, while method and technique are used to mean the specific way of doing or performing something. They are, literal translation, literal translation with cultural compensation, and transliteration, which are obviously under the category of foreignizing translation.

Of course, these translation methods can be combined and in fact are combined, and there is nothing strange for the same translator to use different methods in treating identical potential cultural elements in CCP. Different methods are illustrated through examples of English translation of CCP, which can, if not fully, at least to some degree, show the possibility and effect of foreignizing translation.

A. Literal Translation

Literal translation refers to the translation of the cultural terms according to their literal forms. It is the form of foreignization that is used by translators most frequently. This method is one of the most important means to introduce the SL culture into TL culture because it does little violence to the source language, therefore, the natural flavor of source language culture, i.e. the exotic expressing form or unique foreign cultural images can be retained in the translated versions. "In the case of minor literature that is closely bound to its period and its culture, semantic translation will attempt to preserve its local flavor" (Newmark, 2001, p.45). Here, the so-called "semantic translation"

by Newmark is similar to literal translation to some extent. "In literary translation, the foreignization of cultural elements implies that literal translation (including transliteration) should be the main method." (Zhang Junfeng, 2004, p.2) By using literal translation we can increase the informativeness of the cultural meaning transferred from the SL text to the TL text. In addition, literal translation is the most effective way of enriching TL and its culture.

As cultural elements in CCP are closely bound to the special period and unique Chinese culture, in order to maintain the Chinese cultural features, literal translation should be practiced as much as possible. For example:

- Original: 美人卷珠帘，深坐蹙蛾眉。
但见泪痕湿，不知心恨谁。(李白《怨情》)
- Version 1: A fair girls draws the blind aside.
And sadly sits with drooping head;
I see her burning tear-drops glide
But how not why those tears are shed. (Tr. Herbert A. Giles)
- Version 2: My lady has rolled up the curtains of pearl,
And sits with a frown on her eyebrows apart.
Wet traces of tears can be seen as they curl.
But who knows for whom is the grief in her heart? (Tr. W.J.B.Fletcher)
- Version 3: A lovely woman rolls up the delicate bamboo blind.
She sits deep within, twitching her moth eyebrows.
Who may it be that grieves her heart?
On her face one sees only the wet traces of tears. (Tr. S.Obata)

“蛾眉” is a characteristic image in Chinese culture. It literally refers to the thin, curved and delicate eyebrows; they are regarded as beautiful eyebrows in Chinese. Poets frequently used this image to describe the appearance of women: 六军不发无奈何，宛转蛾眉马前死(白居易《长恨歌》); 却嫌脂粉污颜色，淡扫蛾眉朝至尊。(张祜《集灵台之二》); 禅心一任蛾眉妒，佛说原来是怨是亲。(苏曼殊：《寄调筝人三首之一》) In each line, the phrase “蛾眉” depicts a beautiful young lady in front of us when we read them. It has even become a metonymy of beautiful young lady in Chinese culture. In the original poem, “蹙蛾眉” describes vividly the appearance of the beauty and the sad mood and to a great extent activates the readers’ imagination. It produces two images and gives expression to a high level of artistic conception. In Version 1, Giles just put it into “head”, and according to his version, “蹙蛾眉” was changed into “低垂着头”. This essential image was lost, so was the meaning of the poem changed. In version 2 Fletcher translate “蛾眉” into “a frown on her eyebrows” without preserving the word “moth”, which is crucial in the description of a beauty. Obata is most successful from the aspect of keeping the original cultural flavor. By literal translation of “蛾眉”, he not only retains the artistic image of the original, but also introduces an new expressions to target language readers, leaving them space of imagination.

B. *Literat Translation plus Cultural Compensation*

There are some Chinese cultural elements that are not intelligible to the people of English culture, so complete literal translation is not able to convey the original meaning or even may arouse misunderstandings of the source culture, then some compensations are needed to retain the flavor and exact meaning of the original. “The compensation in translation is to make up the semantic losses caused in the cause of converting the linguistic forms of the original language into those of the target.” (Liu Chongde, 1991, p.131) It is an indispensable method to overcome the difficulties in the translation of literary, especially poetic works. This method is used to make explicit the meanings of culture-specific expressions that puzzle the TL reader. When the cultural background information is necessary for the TL reader to achieve the coherent meaning of the original is not too much, we can often use this cultural compensation. Literal translation together plus some contextual explanation can provide the necessary cultural background of source language so as to help the target reader understand and accept the source cultural information sufficiently. Although the translated versions may seem strange and lengthy at the first sight, but with the passage of time or the frequent use, these cultural terms enter the target culture and become familiar to the target readers, and may be used as common words by target language writers. And in this case, the explanatory notes that are tagged after the literal translation can be removed then. In the translation of CCP, for some cultural elements with particular local color with which the Western readers may have some difficulty in appreciating, this method is particularly suitable. It can faithfully preserve the Chinese culture flavor, and at the same time reduces the degree of misreading or misunderstanding, which can be demonstrated by the following example.

- Original: 庄生晓梦迷蝴蝶，望帝春心托杜鹃。(李商隐《锦瑟》)
- Version 1: Zhuang Zi got mixed up in his dream with a butterfly.
Emperor Wang consigned his amorous heart in spring to the cuckoo. (Tr. James J. Y. Liu)
- Version 2: Puzzles as felt by Zhuang Zhou from his dream of butterfly;
Sadness as aired out by King Wang’s soul in cuckoos cry. (Tr. Zeng Bingheng)

Li Shang-yin was the first and most important symbolist poet in China, who was much admired for his complex, allusive style and wistful, often romantic subject matter. “庄生晓梦迷蝴蝶” in this poem is from Zhuang Zi (《庄子》):

“昔者庄周梦为蝴蝶……不知周之梦为蝴蝶与，蝴蝶之梦为周与？”Zhuang Zi dreamed of a butterfly, but he could not make out whether he had dreamed of the butterfly or the butterfly had dreamed of him. Li Shangyin borrowed this to express his puzzle when he was deep in the recalling of the past: whether he was living in the past at present. The allusion in “望帝春心托杜鹃” is from a Chinese Classic work-《寰宇记》：“蜀王杜宇，号望帝，后因禅位，自亡去，化为子规。”Here “子规” just refers to “杜鹃”，by which the poet expresses his sadness that his grief could only be reposed to the cry of cuckoos.

In Chinese culture, “杜鹃” symbolizes sorrowfulness, whereas in western culture it is associated with happy feelings. In the first version, the translator is not aware of the difference and the method of literal translation is used here. It makes readers know only the surface meaning but not the deep cultural senses they carry. This translation distorts the original and causes the western reader to think that Emperor Wang has a happy love affair. The second version expresses the meaning of the original more faithfully through adding “cry” and makes the readers understand the connotative meaning of this animal image. Thus, the translation achieves the aim of keeping the cultural image without causing misunderstanding and introducing the cultural connotations of cuckoo in Chinese to TL readers.

C. Transliteration

Transliteration is a kind of method, which keeps the pronunciation or spelling of the SL cultural item and the major function of designative meaning in the translated versions. Transliteration is one type of phonological correspondences between SL and TL. It is also a method to borrow some lexical units from SL, so transliteration is sometimes called borrowing. In the case of cultural default only transliteration and borrowing can transfer almost the whole cultural message of the SL text to the TL text. Transliteration cannot only make the translated text concise, but more importantly, it can avoid the cultural default caused by free translation so as to achieve semantic equivalence in SL culture and TL culture. Transliterated words may also add freshness and vitality to target language and enrich its expressions.

This method is often used in translating some proper names, especially names of persons, places or geographical features, or objects, things and phenomenon peculiar to the source language culture that have no correspondences in target language culture. Proper names peculiar to the SL culture can only be transliterated and left intact. Terms of these kinds in CCP are usually considered as untranslatable, but through transliteration, not only can the cultural message be reserved, but also propose the target readers a new insight into Chinese culture. Let's study the translation of the following poem:

Original: 江南好，风景旧曾谙。(白居易《忆江南》)

Version 1: Fair southern shore
With scenes I much adore.(Tr. Chen Gang)

Version 2: How deeply I appreciated
The beauty of Jiangnan!(Tr. Rewi Alley)

Jiangnan is a constantly quoted proper name in Chinese poets' works like:正是江南好风景，落花时节又逢君。(《江南逢李龟年》); 闲梦江南梅熟日，夜船吹笛雨潇潇。(皇甫松《梦江南》); 人人尽说江南好，游人只合江南老。(韦庄的《菩萨蛮 人人尽说江南好》) Through the ages, Jiangnan has been the wealthiest region in China, producing first-rate rice, silk and tea leaves. Jiangnan is famed for its scenic water towns and lakes. These poems give full description of the natural beauty of Jiagnan. Literally, it means the south of the Yangzi River, but its association goes far beyond this literal meaning. It can be associated with prosperity, beautiful spring or nostalgic feelings. This poem written by Bai Juyi is one of the most famous among all the poems about Jiangnan. In Version 1, “江南” was literally translated into “southern shore”, with all the beautiful associations lost. In Version 2, by transliterating it, the translator avoids making the implied connotation explicit but requires readers to spend more efforts finding out the associations. Since this cultural element is very important, the translator considers it justified for readers to familiarize themselves with the background knowledge so as to obtain more about Chinese “Jiangnan” culture. Other proper names like “塞北” (beyond the Great Wall), “辽西” (region to the west of the Liaohe River), “秦淮” (Region around the Qinghuai River) and “扬州” (city of Jiangsu Province), and animal names like “麒麟” (an auspicious legendary animal with a horn and scales all over) are also full of cultural connotations which may arouse imaginations from anyone who knows about ancient Chinese history and geography, which should all be preserved in the translated poem.

Through transliteration a lot of borrowed cultural terms have been gradually adopted by receptor languages, thus enriching the communicative aspect of the receptor culture. The loan words, transferred words or adopted words in all languages are usually introduced through transliteration. Thanks to the adoption of transliteration, we can find lots of Chinese cultural terms in the English vocabulary, such as Yin and Yang, Kungfu, Kowtow, Taiji and Taoism, which have found their way to the English dictionary and therefore become formal vocabulary and part of the western culture. In brief, transliteration is an effective way for retaining the original cultural message and enriching TL culture.

III. DOMESTICATION AS A SUPPLEMENTARY STRATEGY TO FOREIGNIZATION

The language of a nation always expresses its particular culture in the area, and different countries have different cultures. As mentioned above, many Chinese cultural expressions can be directly foreignized into English. But there are still quite a number of them that can't be foreignized, otherwise, the faithful principle will be broken and the original

meaning cannot be kept in the target text, in this case, the only way out is to use domestication as a supplementary strategy. Some poetry contains some cultural elements with strong cultural connotations: and these connotations can hardly be understood if the translator tries to retain the alien cultural terms in the translated version. In this case, if the translator insists on foreignization, it will not only fail to transmit the SL culture to TL but also fail to achieve the communication effects. Therefore, a wise translator, in this case should consider sacrificing some cultural images and focus on the communication of the connotative meaning of the cultural elements.

However, domestication should not be used as the dominant cultural strategy for the translation of cultural elements in CCP. In an age when different cultures confront the tendency of being globalized, the translation of CCP should be more foreignized so as to contribute to the promotion of the communication between different cultures. It is under such conditions that a translator should adopt foreignization wherever possible and employ domestication when necessary in the process of translating cultural elements of CCP into English. In fact, the relation between domestication and foreignization is not contradictory. Advocating one strategy doesn't necessarily mean depreciating the other. To emphasize foreignizing translation is not to exclude domesticating translation since acceptability of the target text should also be taken into consideration. The way out is to keep the cultural connotation of the source text to such a degree that the foreignizing translation can be still acceptable.

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, foreignization is an effective strategy in cultural transfer. It can introduce foreign cultures to the readers to enrich their knowledge and broaden their field of vision. However, it is impossible for a translator to use foreignization only. There are always some elements that are difficult to translate by foreignization. If a translator tries to use foreignization to deal with these elements, he will risk a word-for-word translation, which is called over-foreignization. While a translator mainly adopt a foreignizing method, he is supposed to use domestication where necessary and only in this way can he get a good translation. Translating poetry is a tough and fascinating job. Therefore, the translation of CCP as a broad subject demands urgently more careful and contributive research from more extensive perspectives. The present essay tries to explore the translation of CCP from a cultural perspective in the hope that it will be of some help to the spread of Chinese culture in the world through the translation of CCP, and to a better fulfillment of the duty of a translator as an ambassador of cultural exchange.

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Relationship between Learning Styles and Motivation for Higher Education in EFL Students

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Abstract—This article aimed to examine the relationship between learning styles and motivation for higher education in EFL students. To this end, a total of 90 EFL students from Shahrekord University were selected. The students answered two questionnaires. Students learning styles were determined by one of the questionnaire and students motivation for higher education was identified by the second questionnaire. The data analysis of the first questionnaire revealed that visual learning styles was major learning styles preferences. About the second questionnaire, mostly students have high motivation for higher education. The analysis with respect to the relationship between learning styles, and motivation for higher education revealed significant relationship. It is hoped that the finding add useful information to L2 research on learning styles, and pedagogically speaking, the findings of the study may have implication for students and EFL teachers.

Index Terms—learning styles, motivation, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the most important research effort and educational improvement is the focus on language learners rather than focus on language teaching methodology. Mainstream language teaching doesn't consider teaching method as the most important factor in determining the success or failure of language teaching and learning, any more (Richard & Rodger, 2001).

The case is that students in EFL context have difficulty in learning language. Because materials designers focus top-down skills in 11 and 12 educational materials, so students need tools to compensate the problem (Adams & Bruce, 1980).

Teachers can give the students these tools to learn a language proficiently by giving enough input, practice and metalinguistic awareness. Along with providing suitable tools, Mccarty (1999) says one of the most important initial tasks is the task of knowing students. Teacher is able to guess students need in English even by having little information. Teacher can decide to do some activities and avoid others. Also, student's individual learning styles and preferences, their past experiences in learning language, their linguistic attitudes, their personalities, perhaps even their view on life, are probably all quite different. It is this that teacher must take advantage of for making more precise decision in the process of learning.

Among the above factors which cause individual differences, learning styles are the most important one. According to Kirby (1984) the term learning styles was started to use when researchers tried to find the ways to match teaching methods and instructional materials to the need of each learner. There are different definitions for learning styles, each one focuses on different aspects. For example keffe (1979) defines Learning styles as "cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to learning environment" (p.4). Stewart and Felicetti (1992) define learning styles as those educational conditions under which a student is most likely to learn (p.5).

Dun and Dunn (1979 as cited in Reid ,1987) defines learning styles as "a term that describes the variations among learners in using one or more senses to understand, organize, and retain experience"(p.89), which is the base of this study.

Along with the change in scholar's views, current theories consist of the effect of self-efficacy, social conditions, attributions, classroom factors and provide a better understanding of the roles of goal (pintrich & schunk, 1996). Also numerous studies (clement, Dronyei & Nocls, 1994, olshatin, shohamy, kemp & chatow, 1990; pintrich, Roser, & Degroot, 1994; Wigzell&Al-Ansari; 1993) have found that teaching styles, teacher attitudes, means of assessment, materials, individual VS group work , and other classroom context effects influences not only achievement, but also many aspects of motivation.

Up to now Motivation field and the term itself has been the focus of many studies. One possible definition is "the extent to which certain stimuli, objects, or events affects the occurrence or non-occurrence of the behavior in question" (Usova and Gibson, 1986; cited in Crump, 1996, 5).

Motivation is probably one of the most important factors that educators can consider in order to enhance learning. Multitude theories have been investigated to explain motivation. While each of these theories has considered some aspect of motivation, no single theory seems to adequately explain all human motivation. The fact is that human beings in general and students in particular are complex creatures with complex needs and desires. With regard to students, very little if any learning can occur unless students are motivated on a consistent basis.

Regarding the correlation between motivation and successful Language learning, Dornyei (1998, p.117) asserts that: "Motivation provides the primary impetus to initiate learning foreign language and later the driving force to sustain the long and often tedious learning process". Individuals with the excellent abilities cannot reach long-term purposes, neither are good teaching and suitable curricula enough to guarantee students achievement without adequate motivation. On the other hand, high motivation can compensate for considerable limitation both in one's learning conditions and language aptitude.

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Nowadays, one of the main objectives in foreign language learning area is to enhance awareness about students' personal differences and their possible influence on the learning process and accordingly, on learning results. Besides, because of the effect of many learner variables on the process of language learning (Blair, 1982), the emphasis on the individual differences among learners is indeed relevant in modern language teaching and its related learning environments. The success of second language learning is due not only to cognitive factors but also to affective, personality, motivational, and demographic factors of the learners (Brown, 2000; Carrel et al, 1996), among which personality is of great importance (Carrell et al, 1996). According to Ackerman and Heggestad (1997) individual difference variables such as intelligence, personality, and vocational interests can be used to explain not only variance in academic performance, but also the processes by which traits influence examination outcomes.

Findings of researchers show that people learn more when they are aware of their learning styles (O'Connor, 1997). Moreover, the determination of learner's learning styles helps teachers and educational planners provide students necessary educational support and supplies (Anderson & Elloumi, 2004) because learning styles are influential factors in learners' learning. Studies about learning show that considering learning styles in planning and presenting education can improve learning processes meaningfully (Dwyer, 1998).

Frame work for learning style categorization

According to Reid (1995) there are three major categories for learning styles: cognitive learning styles; sensory learning styles, and personality learning styles.

Cognitive learning styles

Analytic Vs. Global

Analytic learners see only parts and do not see their relationship the whole. They can see the forest for the tree. In learning a language they like concentrating on grammatical rules in detail. They are skillful in analyzing activities but, they are not good at communicative activities. (scarcella & oxford 1992).

Global learners like to have the whole picture of an idea. They are sociable. They are good at communicative activities. In language learning, they like to guess the meaning of a new word, to paraphrase, and they learn best through choral reading, recorded books, story writing, games, or group activities (scarcella & oxford 1992).

Field –independent vs. Field –dependent

There are differences in how people perceive separate items within a surrounding field. Field dependent learner are strongly influenced by the prevailing field, they see the forest. On the other hand field independent learners see items as more or less separate from the field, they see the tree within the forest. (witkin et al, 1977)

Reflective Vs. impulsive

Impulsive learners like to answer the question quickly. They are risk taker and concern need with speaking fluently, so make more mistakes. But reflective Learners need time to think about what they want to say or do. They are cautious and more concerned with accuracy, so make less mistakes. Reflective learners are often day dreaming, like to be quiet and start writing in the last minutes of the time limit (schmeck, 1988).

Sensory learning styles

According to Ried (1995) learning styles are divided into six main areas: visual, tactile, auditory, group, individual and kinesthetic.

Visual: visual learners store and remember fact and concepts that are associated with graphics and images. They prefer reading over listening. They have problem in understanding information which is given in lectures, conversations and oral mood without any visual support. In contrast, auditory learners prefer oral mood, they like sounds and use their more than others. They prefer to learn through lecture, discussion, talking and listening. Also they like to listen to recorded books. Kinesthetic learner prefers to learn by touching thing, through experience and doing rather than listening or reading. They remember actions rather than words. According to scarcella (1990), they like movement and frequent break. They also like to involve all of their body in learning. Teaching to other classmate and using flashcard is enjoyable for them. Tactile learners, like to touch and manipulate during learning so, laboratory could be a good academic situation for them. They prefer personal connections to topic and following directions they have written the selves.

Personality learning styles

Extroverted VS. Introverted

According to Wilt and Heaven (1989) extrovert learners are sociable, talkative, assertive and full of energy. They search social stimulation and opportunities to engage others. They, also have positive attitude towards life. These kinds of individuals are good at leadership behavior. High levels of extraversion can be particularly well suited to jobs that require a great deal of interaction with other people. For example, teaching, marketing, sales, politics and public relations. In contrast, introverts like to be quiet, reserved and less involved in social situation. They seek energy and ideas from internal sources such as brain storming, personal reflection and theoretical exploration.

Before starting and kind of activities, they prefer to think about it, to work alone and enjoy solitary studying. They are good at jobs like writing, computer programming, engineering and accounting.

Intuitive-random VS. Sensing –sequential

According to Leanmont (1997) intuitive learners enjoy dealing with ideas and possibilities and potential outcomes. They like abstract thinking and imagining the future. Also they like innovation and dislike repetition, memorization and routine calculation. Besides, they prefer to guide their own learning.

In contrast, sensing learners enjoy dealing with facts and hands-on (laboratory) work. They like solve problem by considering specific methods and formula and dislike complication, surprise and courses that have no clear connection to the real world. Also, they prefer to receive guidance and specific instruction from the teacher.

Closure-oriented/Judging VS. Open/perceiving

Closure-oriented students are fast decision makers. They like to be structured and organized. They also plan activities schedules very carefully. Besides, they finish their job before deadline and avoid last-minute stresses i.e., they treat assignment seriously.

In contrast, perceiving learner postpone actions and decisions until last minutes to gather more information. They prefer to keep their options open. They work at many things at once in flexible ways. They feel energized by last minute pressures and often do their best work under pressure. (Phillips and Peters, 1999)

Thinking VS. feeling

Thinking learner tends to complete their work in an organized and efficient manner. They are results oriented, preferring doing something rather than talking about it. They need to be active, to be doing, to see tangible results from their work, and to be in control of the task. They think in terms of cause and effects and prefer right or wrong questions to open ended or interpretive ones (Silver and Hanson, 1996). In comparison feeling learners base their work and decisions on immediate feeling. They are in harmony with their own emotion and those of other people. They like group work and generate excitement and enthusiasm in group settings. They show empathy and compassion not only through behaviors, but also through words.

Reid (1987) showed that ESL students had significant variation in their sensory preferences, with people from specific cultures differentially favoring the three different modalities for learning. Students from Asian cultures, for instance, were often highly visual, with Koreans being the most visual. Many studies, including Reid's, found that Hispanic learners were mostly auditory. Reid discovered that Japanese are very non auditory. From a variety of cultures ESL learners were tactile and kinesthetic in their sensory preference.

VAK theory is considered to be one of the classical learning theories in the educational field, it is best known as VAKT, visual (V), auditory (A), kinesthetic (K) and tactile (T) (Mackay, 2007). Dunegan (2008) noted that the first development of VAK was in 1920, by psychologists and teaching specialists such as Fernald, Keller, Orton, Gillingham, Stillman and Montessori. The Federal Aviation Administration (2009) outlined that a VAK learning style is based on the student receiving vision, hearing and touch. Miller (2001) described a VAK learning style as the perceptual, instructional preference model which classifies learners by sensory preferences. The Intel Corporation (2007) reported that this theory has proven to be a popular and simple way to identify different learning styles. Dreeben (2010) suggested that the practical mode of VAK assessment, which includes asking learners about the way they receive information, is a strong reason for using it in the educational field. Byrnes (2010) stated that "the VAK model can be utilized to assist in incorporating different learning techniques into classroom instruction and activities" (p. 4). Mackay (2007) proposed that according to the VAK learning style, most people have a leading learning style that may be aligned with other preferences. A study conducted by Willis and Hodson (1999) using the VAK theory determined that 29% of elementary and high school learners are visual learners, 34% are auditory, and the remaining 37% are kinesthetic learners. Similarly, a study by Lisle (2007) used a VAK learning model in determining the learning style preferences of adults who experience learning difficulties. The study showed that (34%) participants preferred a visual style, which was an equal proportion to those who prefer an auditory style (34%). Of the remaining students, (23%) were kinesthetic learners and (9%) had multimodal learning style preferences. These results concluded in the studies of Hodson (1999) and Lisle (2007) based on VAK theory. The result showed most of the learners preferred visual and auditory learning, and that younger learners prefer kinesthetic more than adult learners.

According to Homayoni and Abdollahi (2003) there was a significant and positive correlation between cognitive styles and the academic achievement of students in English language and Mathematics. Abdollahpour, Kadivar, and Abdollahi, (2005), found that field independent learners had significant surpass in Mathematics and they used metacognitive and cognitive strategies. However, Shams Esfandabadi and Emami-pour (2003) didn't find a significant

difference between learning styles and academic achievement. In their study, female students had verbal and sequential learning style and the male ones had visual and general learning style.

Hlawaty (2008) compared three academic achievement groups (low achievers, high achievers and gifted) and learning styles based on Dunn and Dunn learning style theory. The MANOVA identified significant differences between the three academic achievement groups. Furthermore, the MANOVA result showed significant differences among all three pair-wise combinations of the achievement groups. The study reported that gifted students were less parent and teacher motivated while high and average students were more mobile, and low achievement students were more authority and teacher-oriented. Jackson- Allen and Chirstenberry (1994) conducted a study to compare the learning style preferences of low achieving African – American male students with those who were high achieving. The study selected 131 freshmen and 96 sophomores from grades 9 to 12 at a southern urban high school. The study divided students according to the average marks of students in core academic courses (English, science, history and mathematics). Students with an average below 70 were considered as low achieving and those with an average above 80 were considered as high achieving. A Dunn and Dunn learning styles inventory was conducted to determine students learning style. A t- test was conducted to examine the differences between low and high achieving auditory, visual, tactile, and kinesthetic learning styles. The t-test results showed no statistically significant differences ($p .05$) between the two groups on auditory, visual, tactile, and kinesthetic elements of learning styles whereas motivation, mobility and parent motivated factors showed significant differences at the .1 level. The post hoc analysis indicated that students in low achieving groups were less self-motivated than high achieving groups, Furthermore, low achieving students needed a more active involvement in their learning experiences and they had less desire for academic achievement.

Park (1997) found significant differences among high achieving, middle achieving and low achieving students based on a Reid learning style questionnaire. The researcher used a preference mean of 18 and above = major, 16.50 and above = minor and 16.49 or less = a negative preference. The study found a statistically significant relationship between academic groups and learning styles. Furthermore, he observed that students from high and middle achieving groups preferred an auditory learning style whilst the low achieving group had only a minor preference for auditory learning. For a visual learning style the high and middle achieving group had minor preferences whereas the low achieving group had a negative preference. The low achieving group preferred learning in a group style while the high achieving group had a negative preference for this style. The high achieving group had a major preference for an individual learning style; while the low achieving group had a negative preference for the individual learning style. He concluded that “high achievers appear to have multiple learning styles preferences”.

Research Question:

1. What is the relationship between different learning styles and motivation for higher education?

Research Hypothesis:

- H01. There is no significant relationship between different learning styles and motivation for higher education.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total of 90 Iranian EFL students at Shahrekord University majoring in English Translation participated in this study; based on Oxford Placement Test the students selected for this study were of intermediate level. The number of the females was more than the males students (65 female students and 25 Male students), because there were more female students in the university and the questionnaires were distributed to the whole class.

All the participants were native speakers of Persian and their age ranged between 19-32 years. They were randomly selected then, they were ranked base on oxford placement Test.

B. Instruments

Motivational questionnaire

This questionnaire consists of 32 items concerning students' motivation for higher education designed by Rabie (2011). It is in the form of a five –point likert scale ,ranging from (1)strongly agree to (5)strongly disagree .Rabie (2011)developed this questionnaire on the basis of insights from the related (literature review and the results of a pilot study .In a addition, some items were taken with a few modification from the questionnaire used by Tae (2000). According to Rabie (2011), the content validity of the questionnaire was an assured based on the judgment and a careful and critical examination of the items. Regarding the construct validity of the questionnaire, Rabie (2011) used factor analysis and found the construct and internal validity acceptable .The reliability index for the whole questionnaire were also satisfactory. This test was piloted with some other 40 English students before it was administered to the participants of this study. Its reliability has been proven ($r=0.65$).

Perceptual Learning style Preference Questionnaire

The Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire (PLSPQ) which was developed by Reid (1987) was used in this study. This instrument is a self-reporting questionnaire which was developed on the basis of existing learning style instruments with some changes suggested by US consultants and non-native speaker informants in the field of linguistics. This questionnaire, which was designed and validated for non-native speakers, include five statements on each of the six learning style preferences to be measured: auditory, visual, kinesthetic, tactile, group learning, and

individual learning. The first four categories constitute the perceptual learning style categories and the remaining two make up the social strategy. The students answered on the basis of a five point Likert scale, ranging from strongly agrees to strongly disagree.

C. Procedures

Sophomore EFL students in state University of Shahrekord were taken OPT to check their proficiency level at the beginning of the semester. One week later students were taken learning style test to check the kind of their learning style and motivational questionnaire was used for determining EFL students' motivation for higher education.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

To statistically verify the research hypothesis, the collected data underwent the statistical analysis of variance one-way ANOVA.

The research question of the current study intended to see if there was any significant relationship between learning styles and motivation for higher education in Iranian EFL students. A Pearson correlation was run to investigate the correlation between mentioned variables. Table 1 reports the results.

TABLE 1:
CORRELATION BETWEEN LEARNING STYLES AND MOTIVATION FOR HIGHER EDUCATION IN IRANIAN EFL STUDENTS.

Variable	Correlation	Sig	Number
Learning styles & motivation	0.59	0.000	90
Visual	0.69	0.000	90
Tactile	0.37	0.001	90
Auditory	0.41	0.000	90
Group	0.55	0.03	90
Kinesthetic	0.47	0.000	90
Individual	0.25	0.04	90

As demonstrated in table 4.3 the highest correlation belong to visual learning style, that is students with visual learning style have more motivation for higher education. As the table 1 shows there is a significant relationship (p) between learning styles and motivation for higher education.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The research question of the current study intended to see if there was any significant relationship between learning styles and motivation for higher education in Iranian EFL students. The following null hypothesis was formulated based on the first question of this study:

H01. There is no relationship between different learning style and motivation for higher education.

To answer the question, the analysis results show that, there is a significant relationship between learning styles and motivation for higher education. As the results show, the highest correlation belong to visual learning styles that is, visual learners have more motivation for higher education. Because according to Ried (1995) visual learners prefer reading over other skills, so they could study large volume of books which is necessary for higher education. Therefore based on the obtained results the null hypothesis was rejected.

In this study, the relationship between learning styles and motivation for higher education was investigated. Results of the study showed that Iranian EFL learners participated in this study had high motivation for higher education.

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The Social Interpretation of Language and Meaning

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Abstract—Systemic Functional Linguistics provides a social perspective to language study and views language as a social semiotic resource people use to accomplish their purposes by expressing meanings in context. This paper aims to discuss the semantic aspect from the three metafunctions and the context in which meaning is realized.

Index Terms—functions, context, meaning

I. INTRODUCTION

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) provides a social perspective to language study and regards language as a social semiotic resource. People can use it to accomplish their purposes by expressing meanings in context. SFL is a function-oriented linguistic theory which permits the study of language in social and cultural context, and then it has developed register theory based on the ‘context’ put forward by Malinowski. The social interpretation of language and meaning will be briefly discussed in this paper.

II. SEMANTIC DIVERSIFICATION

People make their own different objectives accomplished by means of language. It is known that people can use language resources to reveal inner and outer experience around the world. Language is an important way to convey what happens around them and inside them. Jakobson, in his famous article, *Linguistics and Poetics*, established a famous framework of language functions which includes six key functions, that is referential, poetic, emotive, conative, phatic and metalingual function. However, Halliday identifies three metafunctions, the ideational, the interpersonal, and the textual. And he once stated “all languages are organized around two main kinds of meaning, the ‘ideational’ or reflective, and the ‘interpersonal’ or active” and “combined with these is a third metafunctional component, the ‘textual’, which breathes relevance into the other two” (Halliday, 1994, p.39). In the functional model of SFL, the ideational, interpersonal and textual functions consist of three orientations to language, which exist simultaneously in every levels of language. The three functions of language are realized with their own subsystems and in turn these subsystems (transitivity, mood, evaluation, thematic structure, information structure, cohesion system) are composed of multi-parameters for linguistic analyses in a particular discourse.

The ideational metafunction is concerned with ideation. Ideation is mainly concerned with content or proposition of message. This kind of metafunction can be further classified into the experiential and the logical types. “Experiential meaning is expressed through the system of transitivity or process type, with the choice of process implicating associated participants roles and configurations” (Eggins, 2004, p.206). Transitivity is the representation in language of processes, the participants and the circumstantial elements associated with them. The meaning of transitivity refers to the language characteristics of the clause which embody the speaker’s or writer’s experience or something else in the world, not the narrower meaning as in “transitive and intransitive verbs”. The term is used in line with ‘mood’ and ‘theme’ which convey respectively textual and interpersonal function. The transitivity system of a language aims to construct people’s experience into the meanings which differ in the following two aspects: the process itself and the nature of the participants involved in it. The interpersonal metafunction is concerned with the interaction between speaker and addressee(s), through which they express their own attitudes and judgments or attempt to influence other’s attitudes and judgments. In other words, the interpersonal meaning is construed with clause as exchange. The clause shows the speech roles in an interaction, in which giving implies receiving whereas demanding has the implication of giving in response. The textual metafunction is concerned with the creation of text, which is mainly about how to get a text characterizing coherence. The theory that specifically deals with the ways of how messages are organized is technically called textual function, which is mainly composed of three subtypes of semantic systems: thematic system, information structure and cohesion system. The thematic organization that concerns with the way of how message is conveyed consists of two functional components: Theme refers to a point of departure for the message and Rheme new information about the point of departure. The definition of Theme as given by Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, p.64) is that it is the element which serves as ‘the starting-point for the message: it is what the clause is going to be about’. In English Theme is easy to be recognized for it often comes first in the clause. Halliday (1994, p.37) categorizes the

remainder of the message, the part in which the Theme is developed, into the Rheme. Rheme combines with Theme to form a clause, which expresses a complete meaning from the textual organization.

Thompson summarizes the three kinds of meaning of metafunction in a simple language as follows: "We use language to talk about our experience of the world, including the worlds in our own minds, to describe events and status and the entities involved in them; we also use language to interact with other people, to establish and maintain relations with them, to influence their behavior, to express our own viewpoint on things in the world, and to elicit or change their; finally, in using language, we organize our messages in ways which indicate how they fit in with the other messages around them and with the wider context in which we are talking or writing" (1996, p.28).

Metafunctions are not to be seen as functions in the sense of 'uses of language', but as functional components of a semiotic system. They are modes of meaning which are present in every use of language. The metafunctional simultaneity is manifested as three simultaneous strands or layers in the structure of the clause, which respectively construes different meanings in the physical world as well as mental world.

III. CONTEXT

SFL views language as a social semiotic resource people use to accomplish their purposes by expressing meanings in context. In the original sense, context refers to the sentences and the texts that came after and before other sentences and texts. But in modern linguistics, the meaning of context has been extended to the nonverbal environment, in which communication takes place and physical activities are going on.

The theory of context is formed with contributions chiefly from B. Malinowski, J.R. Firth, and M.A.K. Halliday. Context is a key conception in SFL, which is classified into two types: 'context of situation' and 'context of culture'. Context of situation was firstly used by Malinowski in the sense of actions that are happening when participants speak, and then developed by Firth who treated situation as a linguistic context. Firth was concerned with the generalized actual, which led him the framework. The framework contains four contextual factors: "the participants in the situation, the action of the participants, other relevant features of the situation, and the effects of the verbal action" (Martin, 1992, p.497). The framework was developed into the concept register. Register is defined as "the configuration of semantic resources that the member of the culture associates with a situation type and is the meaning potential that is accessible in a given social context" (Halliday, 1978, p.111). Register is a useful term to relate the linguistic elements with non-discursive ones. This thesis will use it to discuss the linguistic realization of discursive hegemony, through which the social structure can be uncovered. So register will be explained in the following chapters along with discursive hegemony.

In addition, Martin (1992, p.493) not only has explored the concept 'context' from the perspective of language itself, but also investigated it from the perspective of culture. Seen from the former, context is interpreted as reflecting semantic diversification while seen from the latter, context as a system of social processes. Martin proclaimed that these two explanations of context are based on two communication planes, register (context of situation) and genre (context of culture). He especially emphasized that "register functioning as the expression form of genre, at the same time as language functions as the expression form of register" (1992, p.495). Language, register and genre constitute a contextual model.

Genre is a term widely used in plenty of disciplines, such literary studies as the Bakhtin's works. A genre for Bakhtin is the language used in a particular form of activity, and it is characterized by a particular thematic content, a particular style and a particular compositional structure (Bakhtin 1986). For Martin and Rose, a genre is "a staged, goal-oriented social process" (2003, p.7). Genre, in Fairclough (2003, p. 65), is defined as "the specifically discursive aspect of ways of acting and interaction in the course of social events." From those definitions, 'genre', which orients to social activity and social change, possesses the traces left by social change and the struggle for hegemony. It is worth to mention that there is no established terminology for genres. Eggins recognized a series of different genres in English culture, which include "literary genres, popular fiction genres, popular non-fiction genres, and educational genres" (2004, p.56). And he also claimed there is an extensive range of everyday genres, genres in which we take part in daily life, such as: buying and selling things, seeking and supplying information, telling stories, gossiping, making appointments, exchanging opinions, going to interviews, and chatting with friends (Eggins, 2004, p.56). However, on the basis of different levels of abstraction, Fairclough classified genres into three main types: "pre-genres, disembedded genres, and situated genres" (2003, p.68). In a word, social context is divided into levels of genre and register, which have to be grounded in language. Language, register, and genre form a stratified context plane.

Genre (as context of culture) is realized as register (as context of situation), which is in turn realized as language. Register is organized with respect to field, tenor and mode, reflecting semantic diversity, which refers to metafunctions of language. Besides, variables of register do not have one-one correspondence with three functions of language. In the whole, language acts as the expression form of register while genre is related to social processes which are the sites of social struggle and of social change. "Access to genre, register and language as semiotic resources", according to Martin (1992, p.495), is "mediated through discourse of ethnicity, class, gender and generation, which discourses are in a continual process of negotiation with each other". Therefore it is beneficial to investigate discursive hegemony by means of those three semiotic resources with respect to the dimension of discourse.

IV. THE SOCIAL INTERPRETATION OF LANGUAGE AND MEANING

In the previous section, we have explored the relation between language and context. Language used in social context should be broadly investigated in terms of a social perspective, which mainly deals with language as a social behavior, rather than as knowledge. Taking language as knowledge, which is psychophysiological or cognitive perspective, tends to explore what goes on inside the individual's head. The view attempts to find out the working mechanisms of the human brain in speaking and understanding.

In general, there are two broad orientations in modern linguistics. One is formalist (structuralist, generativist) perspective, which views a central task for linguists characterizing the formal relationships among grammatical elements independent of any semantic or pragmatic factors of these elements. To the classic formalist, language is a closed system which has to be described and explained from within. The other orientation to language study is functionalist perspective, which, however, holds that language should be investigated under the broad framework that includes semantic and pragmatic properties of grammatical elements, personal and social factors in the particular description or explanation of certain words or utterances. The functional approach, which centers on linguistic explanation based on language's function in a larger context, has recently come to associate with Halliday and other functionalists.

SFL views language as a social semiotic resource people use to accomplish their purposes by expressing meanings in context. Systemic theory is a theory of meaning as choice, by which a language, or any other semiotic system, is interpreted as networks of interlocking options (Halliday, 1994, p.40). In any context, there are a lot of meanings that speakers might convey, and a lot of ways that they might use to embody them. Language is seen as a system of systems. The system network is a theory about language as a resource for making meaning. Eggins (2004, p.190) defines the linguistic system in terms of syntagmatic relations and paradigmatic relations.

Thompson has at several points used term 'choice' in discussing meanings. The idea of choice that speaker/writer has multiple ways to express what they want to convey in a given situation has permeated in many works related to SFL (1996, p.8). Language realized in actual utterance by language users is a result of choices among a number of possible ways to express the meanings they want to communicate. Halliday argues that "language is a resource for making, an indefinitely expandable source of meaning potential" (1994, p.16). This view of language as a system has the implication that language is not a well defined system, not the set of all grammatical sentences. It also implies that language exists and therefore must be studied in context. The available choices depend on aspects of the context in which the language is being used. Since language is viewed as semiotic potential, the description of language is a description of choice.

Halliday drew the distinction between the two perspectives to language by using a pair of terminology — 'inter-organism and intra-organism' (1978, p.12). Speaking and understanding language in a context takes the inter-organism perspective. Although the two perspectives form a complementary relation, the thesis takes the social perspective to language for the objective of this thesis. So the following lines will briefly discuss the explanatory linguistic theory for revealing nondiscoursal elements from language itself, which is enlightenment to the current study.

The study of language as social behavior is to account for language choice which is also technologically called 'meaning potential'. Halliday regarded language as "the encoding of a 'behavior potential' into a meaning potential" (1978, p.21). And he respectively used 'can do' and 'can mean' to refer to behavior potential and meaning potential. What we 'can mean' is one expression form of what we 'can do', which is viewed as semiotic system and can be encoded in language. Of course, what we 'can do' has other expression forms, such as non-verbal language, visual image, including such coercive means as police, army, economical policy and so on. But language is still the main expression form of what we 'can do'. Participants in communication can use language to simultaneously perform three functions, which are analyzed at the grammatical level. But in order to get a good understanding the functions of language, we, language users or researchers, should go outside the language, and see language itself as the realization of something beyond, which, in Hallidayan words, refers to what we 'can do' or behavior potential. Therefore, it is of necessity to explore and interpret the meaning of language in social context from the social perspective. The concept of social context is defined as: "a generalized type of situation that is itself significant in terms of the categories and concepts of some social theory. The theory may focus attention on different facets of the social structure: not only on forms of socialization and cultural transmission, but also on role relationships, on the power structure and patterns of social control, on symbolic systems, systems of values, of public knowledge and the like" (Halliday, 1973, p.63).

These quoted words from Halliday provide us with a good window through which we can clearly see the significance of social perspective to language. From the socio-semantic perspective, the interpretation of language in social context in Hallidayan linguistic model is closely related with that of Bernstein's sociology. Bernstein's sociological theory has influenced developments within SFL. Bernstein's interest has been in the role of language in socialization. Language is concerned with something which both influences culture and is in turn influenced by culture, with the second influence apparently stronger than the first. The dialectical relation language and culture can be obviously seen from the words of Bernstein himself: "the form of the social relation or, more generally, the social structure generates distinct linguistic forms or codes and these codes essentially transmit the culture and so constrain behavior" (Halliday, 1978, p.24). A unique feature of Bernstein's illustration is that it suggests how the social structure is represented in linguistic forms or codes, which are carved into two types: elaborated code and restricted code. An idealized interlocutor in conversation or

communication would have equal access to all varieties of code. However, in fact, in the processes of socialization it is not the fact that everyone has the same access all linguistic forms or codes. Every one as a social man has to experience the processes of socialization, such as the progression of children's language from family to school. Analyzing the changes of language spoken by children can effectively show that of social position held by children, even that of social structure. For instance, children from the lower working family are likely to find themselves at a disadvantage when they attend school because they lack of those code system hold by other children. Language is intricately interwoven with social factors, such as class, ideology, power.

Language is concerned with such social factors as context of situation. A particular choice in language system may be appropriate or inappropriate to a given context. The appropriateness or inappropriateness is related with another characteristic of language, which is commonly shared by most systemic linguists. Although individual scholars naturally have different research emphases or application contexts, the common interest is the opinion that language is seen as social semiotic, which means "how people use language with each other in accomplishing everyday social life" (Eggins, 2004, p.3).

It is proper to say that language system is the most sophisticated of all semiotic system, because language system has the feature of duality which is absent in other semiotic systems, such as traffic lights. Through language we, human beings, can perform various social roles, which are determined and constrained by lots of social factors rather than only speech roles of language communication. Unlike formalists who regard language as an independent system, SFL takes language as a social semiotic resource people use to accomplish their purposes by expressing meanings in context. The term 'context' playing a key role in SFL is classified into two types: 'context of situation' and 'context of culture'. Halliday treats the 'situation' as "the theoretical sociolinguistic construct", and a 'particular situational type' as a "semiotic structure". The semiotic structure of a situation type is represented as follows:

The semiotic structure of the situation is formed out of the three sociosemiotic variables of field, tenor and mode. These represent in systematic form the type of activity in which text has significant function (field), the status and role relationships involved (tenor) and the symbolic mode and rhetorical channels that are adopted (Halliday, 1978, p. 122).

According to Halliday, the text is specified and determined by field, tenor and mode, usually called 'three variables of register'. A register is a set of meaning potential in a given social context and is more abstract than the immediate situational factors, such as time and space. Register, which however is less abstract than social structure, mediates between discourse and social structure. In other words, social structure is realized as register, which in turn is realized as discourse. Social structure has its own forms of discursive realization through field, tenor and mode. In this sense, the social factors that have impact on discursive hegemony can be uncovered with the help of register.

Although a large number of scholars have dedicated a lot to the field of text analysis and has proposed many new viewpoints and analytical framework, text analysis has not reached overall agreements on the points of theory and practice of text analysis. Gee (1999, p.5) proposes that "people with different theories about a domain will use different methods for their research." Six approaches to text analysis have been introduced by Shiffrin (1994). SFL, which explores language in use, provides a new linguistic framework for the approaches to text.

As Halliday points out, one of the aims of his construction of systemic functional theory is: "to construct a grammar for purposes of text analysis: one that would make it possible to say sensible and useful things about any text, spoken or written, in modern English" (Halliday, 1994, p.41). He enumerates 21 purposes for which linguistics is likely to be useful. And Huang (2006) also points out that his systemic functional theory is "applicable linguistics", and the existing literature shows that this theory has been applied to studies of texts, both spoken and written in modern languages.

As a functional-semantic approach to language, there are many different purposes for which one may want to analyze a text. SFL has been used as a theoretical framework for analyzing text of many types, from literary works such as novels, plays, poems to non-literary texts such as advertisements and business letters. As an applicable linguistics theory, it has been used in more specific and particular tasks such as the study of the language of textbooks, stylistic analysis of poems. In this thesis, we will use SFL as a linguistic tool to analyze the implicit meanings embedded in discourse with variety of hegemonic factors.

V. CONCLUSION

SFL theory uses language as a social semiotic resource people use to accomplish their purposes by expressing meanings in context. The metafunctional simultaneity is manifested as three simultaneous strands or layers in the structure of the clause, which respectively construes different meanings. That is to say, language is rich and multifaceted. People construe meanings in three aspects at the same time, which embodies the social significance of language.

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Retrospective vs. Prospective Corrective Feedback Impacts on Developing EFL Learners' Writing Ability and Learner Autonomy

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Abstract—Giving corrective feedback has always been a salient feature of the teaching profession including the teachers of EFL writing. The relationship between learner and different types of the feedback he/she receives can be central to fostering autonomy, too. Thus this study aims to compare the Iranian EFL learners' writing ability and their autonomy when receiving two different corrective feedback in writing: Retrospective vs. prospective corrective feedback. For this purpose, forty two Iranian intermediate-level EFL learners aged 16-19 years old were chosen. During ten treatment sessions writings of retrospective group were corrected, lists of frequent errors were then presented to the learners. The frequent errors identified from the writing of retrospective group were highlighted for the prospective group prior to their writings. Their performance measured by a pre-test and post-test revealed that the participants led by the prospective corrective feedback outperformed the retrospective group, but showed no significant promotion in their autonomy in learning.

Index Terms—corrective feedback, learner autonomy, prospective corrective feedback, retrospective corrective feedback

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching writing has been regarded as one of the most complex and difficult tasks for English language learners and teachers. It requires teachers to spend a lot of time on reading and assessing students' writing during the post-writing stage, while there may still be no significant improvement in student's writing skills. Instead of focusing on how to construct a perfect piece of writing, teachers start to believe that corrective feedback is more useful for helping our students to monitor their own mistakes and become independent writers. As Swain (1995) argued about the importance of drawing on second language learners' productive skill for teachers because producing output, not only promotes noticing of linguistic features, but combined with feedback, it also pushes learners' awareness towards the gaps and problem in their interlanguage (IL). Moreover, the character of writing provides learners with more time and opportunity to compare the IL output to the target language (TL) feedback than oral production does. In writing, learners do have time to compare their output with the provided feedback, and as a result are more likely to notice a gap in their IL. Adams (2003), therefore, claims that written production and feedback are of special importance for second language acquisition. A crucial question is what this feedback should like. Corrective feedback is the common type of instructional mechanism used in EFL classroom settings, whereby teacher puts marks on students' errors. Nevertheless, it is controversial if type of feedback contributes L2 learners to enhance their writing ability in general and its accuracy in particular (Kepner, 1991; Truscott, 1999; Ferris, 1999). To further explore of its positive effects in language learning, recent researches have focused on types of feedback. Mac Grath (2002), stated two styles of giving feedback in learner involvement: (1) retrospective feedback, whereby the teacher exploits learners language in the form of lists of frequent errors, which are normally presented back to them after the activity done (e.g. a piece of writing), and used as a stimulus to self-correction or general awareness raising. (2) prospective feedback whereby the errors generated can be useful in predicting any prospective and possible errors of future classes on the same or similar activity.

Corrective feedback

Corrective feedback refers to teacher's input indicating to the learners that their use of the target language is grammatically inaccurate or defective in communication (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). It incorporates the procedures of providing treatment to an error, eliciting a revised student response and supplying "the true correction" (Chaudron, 1988). It enables learners to notice the gap between their interlanguage forms and the target language forms (Panova & Lyster, 2002), makes further hypothesis and prevents errors from further production. Comprising feedback on language form and ranging from comments on the use of vocabulary items to correction over grammar and mechanical errors, corrective feedback can be rendered either explicitly or implicitly or it can be either coded or uncoded while being applied comprehensively or respectively.

Although so many studies have been carried out as to the role of corrective feedback during the recent years, there are still so many questions have been left intact. This what as Lyster and Mori's (2006) Counterbalance Hypothesis raises "How should errors be corrected?" on the ground that educational and discourse contexts of L2 classroom setting imposes pertinent error correction strategy or type on teachers. However, Truscott (1996, 1999, 2007) opposes error correction, arguing that all varieties of correcting L2 learners' error in writing are not only ineffective but also debilitating so they should be quitted. Furthermore, he reiterated that in spite of the learners' tendency to grammar correction, teachers should be reluctant in meeting their desires. Contrary to Truscott, Ferris (1999) argued that grammar correction entails certain positive effects. In spite of extensive research studies some researchers (Kepner, 1991; Chandler, 2003; Bitchener, 2008) hold that it is too immature to talk of a conclusive answer to the problem of the effectiveness of error correction is effective in developing the accuracy feature of L2 writing, which is a rationale behind teachers' responsibility to appreciate the students' willingness to receive feedback for their errors in writing skill.

Learner Autonomy

Trends of educational research in general and language teaching particularly focuses more on an instruction which empowers learner thereby s/he can be an autonomous learner. If, then, can be safely claimed that any measures taken by a language teacher, including giving feedback or correcting errors, showed learner autonomy. In this respect, Little (1991) held that the concepts of autonomous learning has gained momentum recently, such that it is appearing a 'buzz-word' in L2 learning context. Learner autonomy has been so momentum that Wenden (1998) reiterates that it is one of the spin-offs of more communicatively oriented language learning and teaching processes. However, it is too a broad agreement to convince oneself that autonomous learners appreciate the aim of their own learning program, clearly welcome responsibility for their learning, exchange in the context of learning objectives, take initiatives in the processes of planning for and implementing learning activities, and constantly monitor and assess its effectiveness (Holec 1981, Little 1991). Benson (2001) believes that almost all research studies in the area of autonomy is fundamentally based on three hypotheses including : the nature of autonomy and its components , the possibility of escalating autonomy among learners, and the efficiency of certain approaches to enhance it.

Most writing teachers consider feedback, in general, a boring and unrewarding task. Teachers have to adopt feedback methods that encourage students to reconsider, revise, and rework their drafts to make any type of feedback an effective tool in the writing classroom. Majority of the research min the area of correcting writing errors show that learners who receive error feedback from their teachers enhance in their accuracy in the course of time. Contrary to this, it is still blurred the extent to which explicit feedback on error can helpful to their autonomy. The problem is which types of feedback are more effective to develop writing ability and fostering the learners' autonomy in learning. More specific, the problem is first, which type of feedback can be more effective in developing not only the writing ability but also learning autonomy in writing skill. As the instructional setting and discourse context of the classroom will dictate the best error correction type for teachers to use, error correction is an area where research can inform and improve practice. Teacher educators are not sure about the type of strategies effective in this arena. They are of the idea that the process of correcting errors is something complex in the light of a number of competing factors, so they have been reluctant to prescribe the strategies that teachers should use. Furthermore, according to Benson (2001) "in the field of foreign language teaching and learning as the theory and practice of language teaching enters a new century, the importance of helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become one of the more prominent themes (p. 1). He also states "learner autonomy achieved through learner training and strategies, which have been described as methods of developing the skills that learner need for autonomy" (p. 11). An autonomous learner is responsible for making decisions, implementing them and assessing the outcome. To address this issue this study has been investigating whether certain types of corrective feedback namely prospective corrective feedback and retrospective one help L2 students improve the accuracy of their writing and to increase their autonomy. There has been little research done, at least in Iran, to examine and promote this wide range of writing feedback styles and their impacts on EFL learners writing ability and to foster learner's autonomy

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

Forty two Iranian female and male intermediate-level Iranian EFL learners aged 16-19 years old took part in this study. At the time of data collection, most of them had been learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL) for one year. Two classes each including 21 EFL learners identified as experimental groups, both of them received writing instructions, while the other through retrospective feedback while ,the other received prospective feedback based on the errors of other group.

Materials

In order to run this study the researchers used three series of materials including:

1. *The Preliminary English Test (PET)* was employed in two stages both prior to the treatment and after it. The test was administered to the participating groups enjoying same level of language proficiency.
2. *Autonomy Inventory*: In order to investigate the learner autonomy of the subjects, the researcher applied the Inventory designed by Zhang and Li (2004, p.23).

3. *Writing sub-test of the PET* as a measure of writing ability .It was used both prior to and after the experiment; the pre-test and post- test, respectively.

4. *Instructional Materials:* In addition to the tests, the researcher used some instructional materials for experimental group. The course books used in this study were *Paragraph Development: A Guide for Students of English* (1990) by Arnaudet & Barret. The participants were taught the materials during the course.

Procedure

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the effect of two types of feedback on the Iranian EFL learners' writing ability and their autonomy.

At the first stage of this research, language proficiency test (PET), and autonomy inventory were administered to both groups. PET was employed to homogenize the participants regarding their proficiency in English. Those participants who scored one standard deviation above and below the mean were included in this study. Both experimental groups received conventional writing instruction. After 10 educational sessions, the PET and autonomy inventory were administered to both groups again.

III. RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

Reliability Estimation of the PET

The reliability of the Preliminary English Test (PET) as displayed in table 1 below was computed through Cronbach's Alpha reliability formula that shows .889 as an acceptable index.

TABLE 1.
RELIABILITY INDEX OF THE PET SCORES

Test	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
PET	.889	21

Homogeneity Measures

Prior to any decision on the statistical approach, the data was checked in terms of homogeneity and normality assumptions. The descriptive statistics for the two groups are displayed in following tables 2 and 3. According to table 2, the values of skewness and kurtosis are within the range of ± 96 . Then, the data enjoyed normal distribution which is allowed to follow parametric approach and run t-tests.

TABLE 2.
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PET SCORES BY RETROSPECTIVE AND PROSPECTIVE GROUPS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
PETHomogtestRetro	21	60.7143	4.61674	-.687	.501	-.537	.972
PETHomogtestPros	21	60.6190	4.59865	-.752	.501	-.071	.972
Valid N (listwise)	21						

Table 3 shows the results of the independent t-test and the Levene's test for equality of variances.

TABLE 3.
THE LEVENE'S AND INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF THE PET SCORES BY RETROSPECTIVE AND PROSPECTIVE GROUPS USED AS THE HOMOGENEITY TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Homogeneity Test	Equal variances assumed	.077	.783	.067	40	.947	.09524	1.42197
	Equal variances not assumed			.067	39.999	.947	.09524	1.42197

The mean scores for the retrospective and prospective groups were 60.71 and 60.61, respectively. To run a t-test required observation of two assumptions of normality of the scores and homogeneity of variances. Tables 2 and 3 illustrate that the groups enjoyed normally as the ratios of skewness statistic over standard error was within the range of plus and minus 1.96.

Moreover, the groups proved to be homogenous as well. As shown in Table 3, the Levene F of .077 had a probability of .783. Given the fact that the probability associated with the Levene F is higher than the significance level of .05, it then could be claimed that that variances are homogeneous on the post-test of writing section. Furthermore, since the probability of t (.067) had the sig (.947) that is higher than the significance level of .05, it could be concluded that the two groups were homogeneous regarding their language proficiency. Therefore, no statistically significant difference is seen between the mean scores of the participants on the PET, signifying that they were homogenous in terms of their general English language proficiency before the treatments.

Data Analysis for the Writing Section of the PET Used as a Pretest

Table 4 below shows the Levene's test for equality of variances and the result of the independent t-test.

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF THE WRITING SECTION OF THE PET SCORES PRIOR TO THE TREATMENT

		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
Writing Homogtest	Equal variances assumed	.107	.746	.871	40	.389	2.38095	2.73447
	Equal variances not assumed			.871	39.909	.389	2.38095	2.73447

The statistics reveal that the mean scores for both groups (i.e., retrospective & prospective) were 56.19 and 53.80, respectively. Obviously, then there was not any significant difference between them in terms of the mean scores on the writing section because the probability of t (.871) had the sig (.389) that is higher than the significance level of .05. Therefore, it could be concluded that the two groups were homogenous in terms of their writing ability prior to the administration of any treatment. Below are the pie charts for the writing section of the PET test for retrospective and prospective groups.

Addressing the First Research Question

In a bid to address the first research question “Does retrospective corrective feedback have any significant effect on developing EFL learners writing ability?”, paired t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of the participants on the pretest and posttest of the retrospective group on the writing in order to investigate the effect of retrospective feedback on the improvement of the writing ability of retrospective group. Table 5 shows the results of the paired t-test for the PET scores gained by the retrospective group

TABLE 5.
PAIRED T-TEST OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF THE PET SCORES BY RETROSPECTIVE GROUP

Paired Samples Test								
Pair 1		Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	SD	SEM	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference			
					Lower			
RetroWritingPretest -RetroWritingPostest		-7.61905	2.55883	.55838	-8.78381	-6.45428	-13.645	20,000

It is shown in table 5 that the mean scores for the pretest and posttest of retrospective groups were 56.19 and 63.80, respectively. As it can be seen, the probability of t (13.64) had the sig (.000) that is lower than the significance level of .05. Therefore, it could be concluded that the mean scores of the two groups were significantly different. Consequently, our hypothesis that “retrospective error focused feedback doesn’t have any significant effects on developing EFL learners writing ability” is rejected.

Addressing the Second Research Question

The second research question entitled “Does prospective corrective feedback have any significant effect on developing EFL learners writing ability?” was addressed via a paired t-test to compare the mean scores of the participants on the pretest and posttest of retrospective group on the writing in order to investigate the effect of retrospective feedback on the improvement of the writing ability of retrospective group.

The mean scores for the pretest and posttest of prospective group were 53.80 and 77.14, respectively, so the prospective group performed better in posttest than pretest. Similar to the first research question, paired t-test was run to test the second null hypothesis. Table 6 shows the results of the paired t-test for the PET score gained by the prospective group.

TABLE 6.
PAIRED T-TEST OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF THE PET SCORES BY RETROSPECTIVE GROUP

PAIRED T-TEST OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF THE FET SCORES BY RETROSPECTIVE GROUP									
Paired Samples Test									
Pair 1	Paired Differences							Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
				Lower	Upper				
	Mean	SD	SEM			t			
ProsWritingPretest - ProsWritingPostest	-23.33333		2.41523	.52705	-24.43273	-22.23393		-44.272	20.000

As it can be seen, the probability of t (44.27) had the sig (.000) that is lower than the significance level of .05, therefore, it could be concluded that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of the pretest and posttest groups. Consequently, our assumption that “Prospective error focused feedback doesn’t have any significant effects on developing EFL learners writing ability.” is rejected.

Investigation of the Third Research Question

In order to answer the third research question “Does retrospective corrective feedback lead to more achievements in EFL learners writing ability than prospective corrective feedback does?”, an independent t-test was also run to compare the mean scores of posttest of writing in both groups in order to investigate the achievement of retrospective corrective feedback than prospective corrective feedback in writing ability.

The mean scores for the posttest of retrospective and prospective groups were 63.80 and 77.14, respectively, so the prospective group outperformed the retrospective group in posttest of writing. Table 7 shows the results of the Independent t-test of the posttests of writing for both groups, retrospective and prospective.

TABLE 7.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST OF THE POSTTESTS OF WRITING FOR BOTH 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
Retro Prosp	Equal variances assumed	.137	.713	4.740	40	.000	-13.33333	2.81315
Posttest	Equal variances not assumed			4.740	39.804	.000	-13.3333	2.81315

As it can be seen, the probability of t (4.74) had the sig (.000) that is lower than the significance level of .05. Therefore, it could be concluded that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of posttest for the two groups. Consequently, our assumption that “retrospective corrective feedback” does not lead to more achievements in EFL learners writing ability than prospective corrective feedback is accepted meaning that the prospective group performed better and achieved more regarding the treatment and feedback.

Investigation of the Fourth Research Question

In an answer to the fourth research question “Does retrospective corrective feedback lead to more autonomy in EFL learners than prospective corrective feedback does?”, an independent t-test was conducted explore any differences on the mean scores of both groups (i.e., retrospective & prospective) on the posttest of autonomy investigate the progress of autonomy in retrospective group in comparison with prospective group. The mean scores for the posttest of retrospective and prospective groups on the inventory were 69.52 and 66.19, respectively. The Independent t-test for questions 1 to 11 of the inventory for the two groups is shown in table 8 below.

TABLE 8.
INDEPENDENT T-TEST FOR QUESTIONS 1 TO 11 OF THE INVENTORY FOR THE TWO 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
Inventory	Equal variances assumed	.469	.498	1.189	40	.242	3.33333	2.80411
Retro Pros	Equal variances not assumed			1.189	39.989	.242	3.33333	2.80411

It can be seen that the probability of t (1.18) had the sig (.242) that is much higher than the significance level of .05. As a result, no significant difference between the mean scores of the participating groups on their Autonomy Inventory could be recorded, although the retrospective group scored slightly higher than the prospective group. Consequently, our null hypothesis that “retrospective corrective feedback does not lead to more autonomy in EFL learners than prospective corrective feedback.” is not rejected due to probability measure. The next part of the data analysis is concerned with questions 12 to 21 of the autonomy inventory which are descriptively analyzed.

Reliability Statistics of Questions 12-21 for “Retrospective” Group

The reliability statistics for questions 12-21 for “retrospective” group is presented in table 8.

TABLE 8.
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.741	10

As it can be seen in table 8 above, the Cronbach's Alpha statistics for the questions 12-21 is .741 for the retrospective group.

Reliability Statistics of Questions 12-21 for “Prospective” Group

The next part of the data analysis is concerned with questions 12 to 21 of the autonomy inventory which are descriptively analyzed. The reliability statistics for questions 12-21 for prospective group is presented in table 9 below.

TABLE 9.
RELIABILITY STATISTICS

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.709	10

As it can be seen in table 19 above, the Cronbach's Alpha statistics for the questions 12-21 is .709 for the prospective group.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

There's no question that writing is a complex skill in nature, that's why it always absorbs so much attention as one of the four main language skills and needs much practice to be mastered (Rezapanah & Hamidi, 2013). As argued by Abdolmanafi-Rokni, Hamidi and Gorgani (2014), any strategy or methodology which is capable of improving the learners' language proficiency should be put into practice. Corrective feedback is one such strategy which could improve learners' writing ability. Contrary to the numerous studies on the benefits of corrective feedback (e.g. Ellis, 2010; Ferris, 2010; Manchón, in press; Sheen, 2010), researchers in L2 writing SLA domains, have been primarily eager to the question if and how corrective feedback can enhance the learner's autonomy in writing process (Chandler, 2003).

To make any type of feedback an effective tool in the writing classroom, teachers have to adopt feedback methods that encourage students. There has to be a teacher who adopts resources, materials and methods to the learner's need and even abandon all if needed. There are different perspectives in correcting the learner's errors by the teacher, whether to correct or not, whether to correct at the spot or to delay the correction. In most of the classroom, teachers determine what students do and how they do. From the research, it was revealed that giving feedback at the beginning of the class made the teaching program more responsive to learner's progress.

Regarding the first hypothesis, the result revealed that there actually is not a significant difference between pretest and posttest of students who work writing with retrospective corrective feedback. This finding is contrast with the study done by Kepner (1991), Truscott (2007), and Sheppard (1991). Shappard also noted that corrective feedback regressed learners over time.

As to the second research hypothesis the result revealed that there actually is a significant difference between pretest and posttest of students who work writing with retrospective corrective feedback. So it can be concluded that corrective feedback was helpful in developing learner's writing ability. This finding is consistent with a large body of literature on the efficacy of written corrective feedback for helping L2 writers improve the accuracy of their writing. Ohta (2001), Ashwell (2000), Fathman and Whalley (1990). It is also in line with Panova and Lyster (2002), who claimed that corrective feedback enables learners to notice the gap between their inter-language forms and the target language forms, make further hypothesis and prevent errors from further production.

Regarding the third research question, the result revealed that there actually is not a significant difference between those students who work writing with retrospective corrective feedback and those students who work with prospective corrective feedback. Such a finding is not consistent with some studies. For example, Freedman (1987) holds that if learners fail in their writing performance, more feedback is required to help them make correct decisions on their writing process so that they can improve it as we can see, further feedback is not helpful in retrospective group to perform better in writing.

And finally, as to our fourth research hypothesis there was a slight difference between the mean scores of the two groups on the writing section on the surface. Although the researcher received different answers from different groups neither prospective error feedback group nor retrospective error feedback group, did not performed better in this study in order to improve learner autonomy. This finding is consistent with suggestions by researchers that prodding the learner to self correct is effective in prompting acquisition (Lyster, 2004). According to Hedge (2000), teachers are often advised to give the students the opportunities of self-correct and the teacher takes on some responsibility for correction but leaves it up to the student to make the actual correction.

Pedagogically speaking, the results of this study support the assumption that corrective feedback can positively influence on developing EFL learners and giving feedback is practical in writing ability. The results of this study also support similar research done by Ellis (2009). Ellis (2008) believed in theoretical reasons for expecting the focused approach to be more beneficial to accuracy development. In this study, the prospective corrective feedback focused on the frequent errors that the participants of retrospective group made, can play the role of focused corrective feedback and as the findings show the prospective corrective feedback had a positive role in developing learners' writing ability. This finding is in consistent with Schmidt (1994) and Ellis (2005) finding, who concluded that focused corrective feedback has greater potential to impact accuracy development. On the other hand, the retrospective corrective feedback plays the role of unfocused feedback, because the feedback provided by the teacher to the participants were not selective and it was based on all errors that the participants made.

As this research shows, in prospective corrective feedback, learners could benefit from indirect correction feedback. Whereas direct feedback consists of an indication of errors and the corresponding error linguistic form, indirect feedback only indicates that an error has been made. Instead of providing the target form, the teacher may leave the learner to correct his own errors. So we can assume the prospective corrective feedback as a kind of indirect corrective feedback in the classroom, because the teacher just informs participants of some errors before the writing and do not provide the correct form. It is then hoped that learners will take the advantages of indirect feedback since they have to be involved in a more characteristic forms of language processing when they are capable of self-editing their own writings (Ferris 1995; Lalande 1982), so improve much in the light of prospective and retrospective corrective feedback.

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Study on the Effects of Gloss Type on Chinese EFL Learners' Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition*

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Abstract—Gloss is a common practice in reading materials. This study aims to explore the effects of gloss type on Chinese EFL learners' English incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading. The experimental results indicate that: (1) multiple-choice glosses outperformed single glosses in incidental vocabulary gain and retention during reading; (2) compared with single glosses, multi-choice glosses were more conducive to vocabulary production.

Index Terms—incidental vocabulary acquisition, glossing, gloss type

I. INTRODUCTION

Since learning a second language involves the learning of large number of words, EFL teachers and researchers have shown a keen interest in finding out how words can be learned most efficiently (Hulstijn, 1996; Laufer, 2001; Mondria, 2003). In the past decades numerous studies have been conducted to investigate the effects of different tasks on vocabulary acquisition (Watanabe, 1997; Nagata, 1999; Rott, 2005; Makoto, 2006).

The term incidental vocabulary acquisition, which was first put forward in the field of psychology, is subject to different interpretations. Huckin and Coady (1999, p.182) stated that incidental vocabulary learning is “a by product, not the target, of the main cognitive activity, reading”. They defined incidental vocabulary learning according to learners' purpose held during the process of reading, and their view implies that incidental vocabulary learning is the result of uncontrolled learning.

Glossing in reading materials for unknown English words is a very common practice in China, and it is mainly used to aid text comprehension and serve as a way of facilitating incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading as well. Frequently it substitutes for the traditional dictionary with which learners have to switch focus from the texts to dictionaries with the consequent waste of time and effort. That's to say, the practice of glossing in reading materials can compensate for a shortage of contextual information and hence contribute to EFL learners' vocabulary development.

A. The Concept of Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

Foreign language learners' mastery of vocabulary, to a great extent, determines their language proficiency. That's why vocabulary is believed to be the essence of a language. An important question in language learning is how to optimize the gain of new words. In the past decades numerous studies have illustrated that vocabulary can be acquired through reading.

Nation (1990, p.2) claimed that “In indirect vocabulary learning the learners' attention is focused on some other feature, usually the message that is conveyed by a speaker or writer”. And such indirect vocabulary learning is called incidental vocabulary learning. Nation interprets the term from the perspective of learners' attention. It's regarded that incidental learning requires attention to be placed on meaning but allows peripheral attention to be directed at form. Most researchers agree that EFL learners would have to acquire their first few thousand words intentionally since they lack enough proficiency in the target language to just “pick up” the meaning of the new words. However, most vocabulary is acquired incidentally later on in the learning process since it occurs as a result of other activities which are related to reading.

In addition, Laufer and Hulstijn (2001, p.10) stated that “In experiments investigating incidental vocabulary learning, the learners are typically required to perform a task involving the processing of some information without being told in advance that they will be tested afterwards on their recall of that information”. According to them, the absence of notification of a task in advance induces incidental vocabulary learning. Hulstijn (2003) restated that incidental learning occurs, as participants in a psychological experiment are not informed of a test after the experiment beforehand. Both Laufer and Hulstijn emphasize that a lack of an idea of subsequent tasks plays a critical role in identifying incidental vocabulary acquisition.

To sum up, the different interpretations of incidental vocabulary acquisition listed above imply that incidental

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vocabulary learning is a byproduct of activities which are not explicitly directed to vocabulary learning, but to reading comprehension, listening or communication.

B. Definition of Glossing

Glossing is the explanation of the meanings of unknown or unfamiliar words, which functions as a teaching aid (Roby, 1999). It is one form of input modification, which serves as a pedagogical intervention in which language teachers manipulate a target form to help the learners acquire it. Likewise, glossing can be used as modified input to facilitate vocabulary learning because it helps learners cope with insufficient contextual clues by providing additional information such as definition or synonyms of new words in texts. Nation (2001, p.174) stated that “a gloss is a brief definition or synonym, either in L1 or L2, which is provided with the text”, and it is one of the instructional technique for the elaboration of the input through reading. According to online Webster’s dictionary, glosses are defined as “an interpretation, consisting of one or more words, interlinear or marginal; an explanatory note or comment; a running commentary”.

Input modification acts as an important field in second language research. There are various ways of modifying the textual input, and the motivation is based on the assumption that textual input must be comprehensible to facilitate vocabulary gain. Thus glossing is generally utilized to modify the original texts and to increase the comprehensibility of reading materials. Moreover, such increased comprehensibility has been shown to promote language acquisition (Hulstijn, 1996; Pulido, 2004). In this study, gloss types involved are Chinese translations of unknown English words in reading material, presented under the glossing condition of multiple-choice and single-gloss format.

C. Glossing in Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

Incidental vocabulary acquisition is generally regarded as an important way for learners to enlarge vocabulary. And reading is an essential source for incidental vocabulary acquisition to occur. However, incidental vocabulary acquisition is far from perfect. Incidental learning of words via guessing from context has its own limitations. Huckin and Coady (1999, p.189) expressed the similar view that “Guessing is effective only when the context is well understood and almost all of the surrounding words in the text are known, which requires good textual clues and substantial prior vocabulary knowledge on the part of the learner”. Use of glosses, however, offers a possible option of dealing with the problems. Thus providing glossing in texts is an effective way for EFL learners to acquire vocabulary incidentally considering the fact that sometimes it’s difficult for them to figure out the new words accurately. For example, single glosses eliminate the risk of making wrong inferences by providing definite meanings of new words. Multiple-choice glosses direct and channel the inferring process by presenting options from which learners choose the meaning in accordance with the context. Generally, the two types of glosses are considered to be appropriate for learners with less problem-solving skills.

In spite of a long history of glossing providing in reading materials, glossing has not been largely explored until late in the 20th century. To facilitate reading and understanding, L2 texts are often augmented with glosses that have been shown to have a positive effect on vocabulary learning (Nation, 2001). Yoshii (2006) examined the effects of L1 and L2 glosses on incidental vocabulary learning in a multimedia environment. In that study the findings showed that both L1 glosses and L2 glosses were positive for incidental vocabulary learning. The differences between L1 and L2 glosses, however, did not reach statistical significance in the vocabulary definition supply and vocabulary recognition tests. Rott (2005) assessed the effectiveness of gloss types, i.e., multiple-choice glosses and single-translation glosses on incidental vocabulary gain and retention. The participants were 10 English learners of German who were required to read a text with either multiple-choice glosses or single-translation glosses. The findings illustrated that the multiple-choice gloss group outperformed significantly the single-translation group in retaining word knowledge after four weeks of treatment. The small sample in his study and the think-aloud method used in the reading process, however, might affect the research results. In general, there is a mixed result as to the superiority of multiple-choice glosses over single glosses and it’s hardly to get a consensus view.

II. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions

This study tends to investigate the effects of different types of glosses on Chinese EFL learners’ incidental vocabulary acquisition. Thus, it is to address the following questions:

- (1) Which gloss type will be more effective for incidental vocabulary acquisition, multiple-choice or single glosses?
- (2) During the process of incidental vocabulary learning, which gloss type is more conducive to vocabulary production?

B. Method

1. Participants

The participants were 120 college undergraduates from 4 intact classes from School of Foreign Languages, Sichuan University of Arts and Science. According to their reading comprehension scores in CET6 (College English Test-Band 6, one of the most authoritative tests in China), the full score of which is 35 points, those students who scored 25-30 were

chosen as the subjects of this experiment. Eventually 75 of them were selected from 120, and all the subjects were considered as at the same English proficiency level in reading comprehension. Then they were equally and randomly divided into three groups: the single gloss group, the multiple-choice gloss group, and the control group (no gloss group). Each group has 25 subjects respectively.

2. Materials

The reading text from the American magazine *Time* was adapted to the participants' English level. Its readability was 8th-grade level, measured by the Flesch-Kincaid readability scale. The length of it was a 367-word long with 8 new words. That's to say, the coverage of unknown word rate is about 2.2%. Nation (1990) and Laufer (1997) put forward that mastery of 95% known words in a text is necessary for general text comprehension, and Carver (1994) found that difficult reading materials contained around 2% or more unknown words and materials for pleasant reading contained around 1% unknown words. According to these findings, this reading material was a perfect one for this study.

3. Procedure

The experiment lasted about five weeks. In the first week, the participants were identified according to their scores in reading comprehension in College English Test Band-6. Eventually 75 participants were chosen from the total number of 120. In the second week, a pilot study was carried out to identify unknown words and target words. In the third week, a reading comprehension task was conducted in class, which was followed by the immediate vocabulary tests. In the fifth week, the delayed vocabulary tests were administered.

In the immediate tests, the three groups were instructed to read the chosen article in class respectively on the same day. The 8 unknown words were glossed under one of the three conditions: single glosses, multiple-choice glosses and no glosses. To ensure that all the subjects were intent on passage comprehension, not on intentional vocabulary learning, they were instructed to recall the article in Chinese on another blank paper in about 200 words after reading. Eventually the three groups took the immediate vocabulary test as well as making sentence with each target word.

Two weeks later the delayed vocabulary tests were administered. The format of it was identical to that of the immediate vocabulary tests.

4. Scoring and data analysis

The vocabulary test was in the form of target-word translation. The subjects were required to provide the Chinese meanings of the 8 target words. A correct answer was assigned 1 point, and a wrong answer was marked 0 point. Besides, a partially correct answer was given 0.5 point. Then the vocabulary test was scored 8 points in total. The same scoring system was applied in the immediate and delayed vocabulary test except that in sentence making. Based on Parabakht and Wesche's Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (Wesche, 1996), the 0-3 point scale was adopted in sentence-making. 0 represents no response at all or the word is used totally inappropriately; 1 represents semantic appropriateness, but with some serious mistakes in part of speech or grammar; 2 represents appropriate semantics, but some minor mistakes in grammar or spelling; 3 represented semantic appropriateness as well as grammatical accuracy.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results of the Vocabulary Test

Table 3.1 shows the mean scores of the single gloss group, the multiple-choice gloss group and the control group (no gloss) obtained in the immediate and delayed vocabulary tests.

TABLE 3.1
MEAN SCORES OF EACH GROUP OBTAINED IN THE VOCABULARY TESTS

	S group	M group	C group
Immediate vocabulary Test	2.28	2.86	.80
Delayed Vocabulary Test	1.26	1.89	.34

Note: S = Single gloss M = Multiple-choice gloss C = Control group

In the immediate vocabulary test, the mean score of the single gloss group was 2.28, only second to 2.86 of the multiple-choice gloss group. And the mean score of the control group was .84, the lowest among the three groups. In the delayed vocabulary test, the scores of the single gloss group, multiple-choice gloss group and control group were 1.26, 1.89 and .34 respectively.

Independent-samples *t*-tests were used to explore whether multiple-choice glosses and single glosses were significantly different in enhancing lexical gain. The results are shown in Table 3.2.

TABLE 3.2
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TESTS ON THE MEAN SCORES BETWEEN THE SINGLE AND MULTI-CHOICE GLOSS GROUP
IN THE IMMEDIATE AND DELAYED VOCABULARY TESTS

	Df	T	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Sig.
Immediate Vocabulary Test	49	2.44	-.62	.25	.015 *
Delayed Vocabulary Test	49	2.39	-.56	.23	.023 *

Note: **p*<.05

According to table 3.2, there was a significant difference of mean scores between the single gloss group and the multiple-choice gloss group in the immediate vocabulary test (*t*=-2.44, *p*=.015<.05). Meanwhile, it appeared that there

was a significant difference of mean scores between the single gloss group and the multiple-choice gloss group in the delayed vocabulary test as well ($t=-2.39$, $p=.023<.05$). That's to say, multiple-choice glosses generated better learning effects than single glosses on incidental vocabulary learning in both immediate and delayed tests.

B. Results of the Vocabulary Production Test

Lexical knowledge is construed as a continuum consisting of several levels and dimensions of knowledge starting from superficial familiarity with a word to ending with the ability of using the word correctly in free production (Nation 2001; Laufer & Goldstein, 2004). Receptive knowledge is usually defined as the word knowledge needed to understand a word in reading or listening, while productive vocabulary knowledge involves expressing a meaning through speaking or writing and retrieving and producing the appropriate spoken or written word form (Nation, 2001).

TABLE 3.3
MEAN SCORES OF EACH GROUP OBTAINED IN THE VOCABULARY PRODUCTION TESTS

	S group	M group	C group
production test (3 rd week)	10.60	14.46	4.02
production test (5 th week)	6.42	8.20	3.42

In order to determine which gloss type was more conducive to vocabulary production, both multi-choice and single gloss groups' production vocabulary gain were compared. As Table 3.3 shows, in the immediate tests (3rd week), the mean gains for the two groups are 14.46 and 10.60 respectively, and 8.20 and 6.42 in the delayed tests (5th week). As indicated in Table 3.4, the means of the two groups is significantly different in the immediate tests ($t=5.37$, $p=.000<.05$) and in the delayed tests ($t=2.50$, $p=.019<.05$).

TABLE 3.4
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TESTS ON THE MEAN SCORES BETWEEN THE SINGLE
AND MULTI-CHOICE GLOSS GROUP IN THE VOCABULARY PRODUCTION TESTS

Gloss type	number	M	SD	t	Sig (2-tailed)
(3 rd week)	25	10.60	3.92	5.37	.000*
S group	25	14.46	4.83		
M group					
(5 th week)	25	6.42	5.08	2.50	.019*
S group	25	8.20	5.01		
M group					

Note: * $p<.05$

C. Discussion

The goal of this study is to explore if glossing promotes Chinese EFL learners' incidental vocabulary acquisition. If it does, which gloss type will be more effective for incidental vocabulary acquisition, multiple-choice or single glosses? Meanwhile, it aims to investigate the effects of gloss types on vocabulary production in this study. Results showed that glossing did facilitate incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading, and multiple-choice glosses were superior to single glosses in the immediate and delayed vocabulary tests. Compared with single gloss type, multi-choice gloss facilitated the development of productive vocabulary significantly.

The findings can be explained in terms of the Involvement Load Hypothesis (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001). It elaborates on the incidental vocabulary acquisition from the perspective of cognitive psychology. According to it, the gain and retention of new words acquired incidentally depends on the degree of involvement load invested in processing these words. In other words, activities with higher involvement loads yield better vocabulary retention effects. That's to say, the larger the involvement load is, the better the incidental vocabulary learning will be. The involvement load can be measured by three factors: need, search and evaluation. The opportunity for search, which refers to "the attempt to find the meaning of an unknown L2 word or trying to find the L2 word form expressing a concept" (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001, p.14), seems to be clearly different in the three groups in the present study. Evaluation entails a "comparison of a given word with other words, a specific meaning of a word with its other meanings, or combining the word with other words in order to assess whether a word does or does not fit its context" (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001, p.14). Apparently the levels of evaluation also appear to be different under the three glossing condition. Each factor has its degree of prominence, i.e., moderate or strong. In this study, multiple-choice glosses induced an involvement load index of 2 (+need, -search, +evaluation), single glosses generated an involvement index of 1 (+need, -search, -evaluation), while no gloss generated 0 (-need, -search, -evaluation). Thus the unknown words with multi-choice gloss, definitely, were processed more deeply with greater involvement load. Subsequently, better vocabulary retention and production was achieved in multi-choice gloss group compared with the other groups.

The finding in the present study as to multiple-choice glossing is consistent with that gained by Hulstijn (1996), Nagata (1999), Duan & Yan (2004) and Rott (2005). There is, however, something different from Watanabe's (1997) findings. In Watanabe's (1997) study, no statistically significant difference was reached between the single gloss and the multiple-choice gloss conditions. The different findings might be explained by the design of distractors in the multiple-choice glosses in his experiment. In Watanabe's study, the subjects were provided with a partially correct

meaning of the target word as a distractor. This study shows evidence for the efficacy of the Involvement Load Hypothesis from the perspective of glossing. This Hypothesis provides a way for teachers to channel the incidental learning process and to predict which word is more likely to be grasped incidentally by learners. According to the involvement loads specified by the hypothesis, some activities can be designed to facilitate incidental vocabulary acquisition, for example, teachers can develop some after-reading activities with higher involvement loads to foster the learning of the important words.

IV. CONCLUSION

In China, students are faced with the problem of how to enlarge vocabulary efficiently. Glossing new words in reading materials can ease learners' burden of dictionary use, help them read smoothly without much interference of reading process and prevent possible wrong inference or guessing. In order to acquire new words incidentally, first of all, EFL learners need to develop a form-meaning connection. Glossing, which serve as direct word form-meaning connection, is favored by most pedagogical material developers and practitioners as well. Glossing in this study has been proved to lead to higher vocabulary gain and retention than no glosses. Meanwhile the superiority of multiple-choice glosses over single glosses was illustrated as well in the present study. It implies that pedagogical material developers can apply multiple-choice glosses in reading materials in addition to the conventional single glosses. Thus, EFL learners might comprehend new words involving more mental loads and hence gain more knowledge about new words subsequently.

Although carefully designed, the present study is still prone to drawbacks and shortcomings like any other studies. A small sample in this study might affect the validity of the results. Future studies using a larger sample of Chinese EFL Learners with different proficiency levels are expected to provide more reliable results. Besides, this study only examined the effects of texts with gloss types on incidental vocabulary learning, and vocabulary gain was only examined in terms of semantic feature under the glossing condition. Vocabulary knowledge, however, consists of different aspects, such as morphological, orthographic and syntactic features, then it is necessary to explore whether the results of this study can be applied when the other factors of vocabulary knowledge are involved. Hopefully it will attract more attention from EFL teachers, reading material developers and researchers as well.

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Scrutinizing the Appropriateness of the Intermediate ILI English Series in the EFL Context of Iran

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Abstract—Textbook evaluation has been a matter of interest in almost every EFL/ESL context. Since some aspects of the quality of language learning and teaching stem from the instructor's textbook adaptation and use and since different EFL/ESL textbooks target at touching different aspects of pupils' needs, carrying out an assessment of a particular textbook before its adoption and adaptation is of paramount importance. Accordingly, scrutinizing the weaknesses and strengths of the textbooks that are currently being taught in the most popular and the biggest institute of Iran seems to be inevitable. Hence, the aim of this study is to evaluate the *Intermediate ILI (Iran Language Institute) English Series*. To this end, eighty highly experienced male and female teachers from different branches in different cities of Iran were called for cooperation. The teachers ranged from BA holders to PhD candidates. In order to obtain the intended data, a forty item questionnaire developed by David R.A Litz (2000) was given to every instructor. Analyzing the data was done by running Independent samples t-test and basic statistics in SPSS 16 package for windows. The results show that although the series favor some strong points, the majority of the sections of the textbooks suffer a few number of pitfalls. Moreover, the overall evaluation of the series manifests the average level of satisfaction in every component on the part of the teachers. Also, the ideas of male and female instructors were different in "Conclusion", "Subject and Content" and "Language Type" categories.

Index Terms—textbook evaluation, EFL context, ESL context, pragmatic competence, communicative competence, linguistic competence

I. INTRODUCTION

The industry of textbook publication has been mainly the result of the global status of English in the world. A successful ELT course book can sell over a hundred thousand copies a year (Littlejohn, 1992). Textbooks play a crucial role in language teaching and learning realm and they are looked upon as an indispensable vehicle for foreign language learning. As noted by Cotazzi and Jin (1999), textbooks serve many roles in an EFL classroom, namely teacher, map, resource, trainer, authority, and ideology. Gray (2002) holds that ELT publishers present a vision of the world in the texts they produce, and despite being designed explicitly for the teaching of the language, they are carriers of cultural messages. That is why the authors of different textbooks should identify the elements that they believe are essential to a good textbook, and their information should be compiled into their projects. In other words, textbook designers should try to scrutinize learners' and instructors' needs before commencing their job on designing satisfactory and appropriate materials for the students and teachers.

A question that may be raised here is that what if a teacher does not intend to use a textbook in carrying out their profession? It should be noted that the necessity of using textbooks depends on some factors such as teacher's teaching style, resources available to them, and accepted standards of teaching wherever they may be used. Whatever instructors decide in terms of either using a textbook or not, they should bear in mind that no textbook is perfect and therefore, they should have the opinion of assigning supplementary materials based on their specific needs in their specific teaching situations.

Since textbooks markets abound with various appealing materials published by diverse companies, it is all but hard to choose one over the other. So, textbook evaluation is indispensable owing to this profusion. Ellis (1997a) also underscores the need for course book evaluation. Correspondingly, diverse textbook evaluations have been carried out by researchers through checklists and questionnaires application. Thus, scrutinizing the appropriateness of different textbooks seems to be of paramount importance so as to make the exploitation and selection of the most contextually appropriate, advantageous and prolific materials vivid. Cunningsworth (1995) and Ellis (1997b) believe that textbook evaluation helps teachers move beyond impressionistic assessments and helps them to get useful, accurate, systematic, and contextual insights into the overall nature of textbook material. In much the same way, quality textbooks assist learners in acquiring the concepts, skills and different components of language as well as widening their knowledge.

Hence, textbook evaluation is necessary to maintain the quality of the textbooks and to ensure that they function as pupils' main sources of learning suitably.

In the similar fashion, the present paper is an attempt to evaluate one of the series being taught in the nationwide and the most popular institute of Iran, namely Iran Language Institute. To this end, the *Intermediate ILI (Iran Language Institute) English Series* will be the target of evaluation based on the opinions of the professional instructors in many cities in Iran. This study also aims to elucidate the appropriateness and usefulness of the above-mentioned series in terms of meeting students' needs in general and getting a good feedback on the series' approach, instructional philosophy, method and technique which suits the learners and their needs in particular.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. The Importance of Textbooks in EFL Contexts

A textbook can be referred to as a published book especially designed to help language learners to improve their linguistic and communicative abilities (Sheldon 1987). In addition to being a learning instrument, textbooks are also used as a supporting teaching instrument (O'Neil 1982, Ur1996). They are "designed to give cohesion to the language teaching and learning process by providing direction, support and specific language-based activities aimed at offering classroom practice for students" (Mares 2003) and foster effective and quick learning of the language (Cunningsworth 1995). Accordingly, Sohail (2011) maintains that textbooks are inseparable parts of teaching due to the following reasons:

- To help the pupil,
- To help the pupil,
- To help in self-teaching,
- To give the minimum essential Knowledge at one place,
- To provide logical and comprehensive material,
- To ensure uniformity of good standard,
- To provide both confirmation and sustenance,
- To provide a base from which both the teacher and the pupil may start and continue to work.

B. The Need for Textbook Evaluation

A number of studies have suggested that most current global, local ELT textbooks are developed for commercial purposes but are not based on principles of language acquisitions and development recommended by scholars and educators (Tomlinson, 2010). Financial success has become the primary goal of textbook publishing. Instead of contributing positively to student's development in the acquisition of language, many textbooks are in fact leading to learner's failure in acquiring the language and in the worst case, contain serious pedagogical flaws and practical shortcomings (Litz 2000).

According to Tomlinson (2008), the cause of language failure is twofold. The first one is germane to the need of commercial success which is reflected in the textbook moulding based on the liking of teachers, parents and administrators with a heavy focus on teaching of linguistic items instead of creating opportunities for students to acquire the language. The second cause of failure is that instead of focusing on how learners could actually benefit from using the textbook, textbook writers relied on their intuition and produce materials that they think would work best for their intended users. In other words, they are biased towards perceived rather than actual needs of learners.

Hence, choosing the right textbook is becoming more and more important at all levels of ELT. With the effort from textbook writers, ELT researchers and classroom teachers, textbook evaluation and selection have evolved into systematic action. Although most classroom teachers will not be involved in the production of textbooks, all teachers have the responsibility for textbook evaluation, selection and adaption.

In the light of the above, it is very important for us to conduct EFL textbook evaluation so as to ensure EFL textbooks can effectively facilitate the attainment of our teaching objectives (Mukundan 2007).

C. A Review of Textbook Evaluation

There is a plethora of literature on the evaluation and selection of textbooks in EFL settings. These studies mainly revolve around the exploitation of textbook evaluation checklists. Kayapinar (2009), for example, evaluated two packages of textbooks, namely *Opportunities* and *New English File*. He incorporated 134 instructors' survey results and pointed out that there was not an overall positive attitude towards the aforementioned course book packages among teachers. He also maintained that the course books had to be adapted in a way so that they fulfill learners' needs and interest at nationwide scope. He proposed the evaluation of the materials utilized in the teaching process on a regular basis to be kept renewed.

Also, a study has been conducted by Darali (2007) in regard to the inclusion of pragmatic issues. She analyzed *Spectrum* series meticulously and mentioned a variety of language functions that were provided in the series. She reported that although the series had covered different language functions, some of them, such as threatening and promising, which are also significant in everyday conversation, not only were in the form of unintended functions, but also they did not appear as frequently as others.

Another study was carried out by Rastegar (1992) who evaluated and analyzed the dialogs in English textbooks of Guidance and High schools in Iran based on the model by Levinson (1983).

Too, some comparative studies in the textbook evaluation realm have been conducted. Of the most recent ones, one belongs to Vellenga (2004) who made a comparison between ESL and EFL textbooks. She believes that textbooks suffer from dearth of information for learners to acquire pragmatic competence successfully. As she puts it, regarding speech acts in each of the books, there is a focus on explicit mention and metapragmatic description of speech acts such as complaints, apologies, requests, etc.

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Some language instructors hold widely divergent opinions on controversial issues like textbook adoption. Thus, the results of this study would be of great use to those who are, in one way or another, involved in language learning and teaching processes. Also, the findings of this study would reveal the ILI language teachers' attitudes towards *ILI English Series* which would be of great significance to material developers and syllabus designers of *ILI*. Class evaluators and administrators of myriad branches of ILI in Iran would be other groups to benefit from the outcomes of the current study.

IV. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

It has been a matter of controversy among teachers whether *ILI (Iran Language Institute) English Series* are appropriate EFL textbooks in terms of satisfying students' needs or not. Accordingly, since there has been no study to explore *ILI English Series* in the context of Iran, the major thrust of this study is to fully evaluate the *Intermediate* series of the above-mentioned textbooks. It endeavors to find out whether or not the series can meet the students' needs. Also, this study attempts to see if the teachers are satisfied with the series and its feedback. To this end, this study specifically addresses the following questions:

1. What do EFL instructors think of *Intermediate ILI English Series* in terms of its suitability in Iran EFL educational setting?
2. How do teachers rank practical considerations, layout and design, activities, skills, language type, and subject and content of the series?
3. Is there any significant difference between the attitudes of male and female teachers towards the series?

V. METHOD

A. Textbook

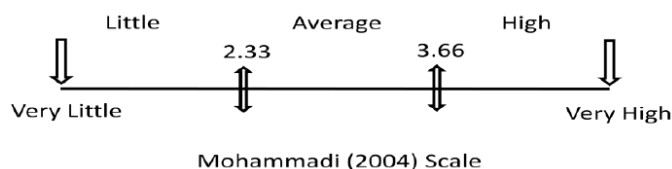
The textbook which this paper aimed to evaluate was *Intermediate ILI English series*. This series which consists of three books is one of the six series being taught in ILI, namely *Basic*, *Elementary*, *Pre Intermediate*, *Intermediate*, *High Intermediate*, and *Advance*. Each book encompasses eight units in each of which all four skills have been taken into account. Moreover, such different types of material as Dialogue, Reading, Listening, Grammar (spoken drills), and Vocabulary are included in each unit respectively. The series, as stated in the blurb, follows an eclectic methodology aiming at meeting diverse expectations of adult language learners through variety of supplementary materials to enhance fluency in Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing. All of the series of books that are being taught in this nationwide institute have been designed and developed by Research and Planning Department of ILI.

B. Procedures for Data Collection

To conduct the study, the Textbook Evaluation Questionnaire developed by David R. A. Litz (2002) was given out to 80 professional EFL teachers ranging from BA holders to PhD candidates in different cities and towns of Iran. The reliability of the questionnaire was calculated as 0.86 through a test-retest method with a two-week interval. The instructors who were called for cooperation were experienced enough to express their attitudes with regard to the strengths and weaknesses of the intended series.

C. Data Analysis

The obtained data were subjected to statistical analyses pertinent to SPSS 16 for windows. Accordingly, the data of the study were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics within the above-mentioned software. Mean and standard deviation were computed in descriptive statistics so as to address the first and second research questions. In this regard, the following Mohammadi scale (2004) was utilized.



Also, an Independent Samples t-test was carried out to discern if there was any significant difference between male and female responses.

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To address the first research question of this paper descriptive statistics of the data was computed. The results of the analysis are illustrated in the Table 1 below. The table shows the mean and standard deviation obtained for each category. As can be seen, the means of all the subsections of the questionnaire range between 2.8 and 3.45 which, according to Mohammadi (2004) scale, indicate that all teachers have an average level of satisfaction with regard to diverse vantage points included in the questionnaire. The first five items of the questionnaire were sub-sections of 'Practical Considerations' part. These items mainly assessed the points of view of the instructors on the reasonability of textbook's price, its accessibility, publishing qualification, textbook package and authors' views on language and methodology. Table 2 shows in detail the teachers' views on these subsections. The mean scores of the items two and four indicate that teachers are highly satisfied with the ease of accessibility and textbook package since it comes in conjugation with a teacher's manual, a workbook, and a CD. However, a closer look at other mean scores reveals that teachers have neutral attitudes towards the rest of the criteria within 'Practical Considerations'.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ALL THE SUBSECTIONS OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Sub-Sections	N	Maximum	Minimum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Practical Considerations	80	2.00	4.60	3.2475	.62135
Layout and Design	80	2.12	5.00	3.4516	.67079
Activities	80	1.00	5.00	2.9821	.89095
Skills	80	1.00	5.00	2.8275	.84838
Language Type	80	1.67	5.00	3.2104	.62796
Subject and Content	80	1.20	5.00	3.1900	.84188
Conclusion	80	1.00	5.00	3.0062	.94465

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR *PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS* SUB-SECTIONS

Questions	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
Q1	80	1	5	2.49	1.125
Q2	80	1	5	3.99	1.049
Q3	80	1	5	2.47	1.242
Q4	80	1	5	4.14	1.064
Q5	80	1	5	3.15	1.008

'Layout and Design' is the second category of the questionnaire. This category comprised eight items measuring the judges' ideas about the clarity of the materials objectives to the teachers and students, teacher's book's provision of guidance on the utmost advantage of the materials, inclusion of testing suggestions and evaluation quizzes, inclusion of glossary, exercises and review sections, organization of the materials and clarity of the design. The overall mean score and standard deviation (SD) for this category were calculated as 3.45 and 0.67 respectively (see Table 1). The overall mean score of 3.45 implies neither high nor low level of satisfaction in this part. Accordingly, Table 3 shows the ideas of the judges with respect to every individual item. Based on the items six, seven, and nine, one can conclude that nearly most of the instructors were of the opinion that the textbook includes a detailed overview of the function, structures and vocabulary that would be taught in each unit. They were also happy with the inclusion of glossary and appropriateness and clarity of the layout and design. For the rest of the items of this category they have an average level of satisfaction.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR *LAYOUT AND DESIGN* SUB-SECTIONS

Questions	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
Q6	80	1	5	3.71	1.093
Q7	80	2	5	3.66	.954
Q8	80	1	5	3.59	1.040
Q9	80	1	5	3.82	1.028
Q10	80	1	5	3.51	1.169
Q11	80	1	5	2.63	1.372
Q12	80	1	5	3.30	1.354
Q13	80	1	5	3.39	.987

The third category utilized in the questionnaire was that of 'Activities'. Seven items were included in this section (see Table 4). These items were aimed at eliciting the raters' responses with respect to whether or not the activities can be supplemented and modified easily, internalization of newly introduced language can be lubricated through the tasks, creative and independent responses can be promoted through the activities, pair and group work is well accentuated, the grammar points and vocabulary items are introduced in authentic and motivating context. These items also addressed

the provision of balanced activities regarding free vs. controlled exercises, tasks that focus on both fluent and accurate production, and activities that encourage sufficient communicative and meaningful practice. The overall mean score of this category is 2.98 and its standard deviation is 0.890 (see Table 1) which indicate that teachers were not fully satisfied with regard to the above-mentioned criteria. In much the similar way, none of the items of this category received high degree of satisfaction on the part of the teachers.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR *ACTIVITIES* SUB-SECTIONS

Questions	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
Q14	80	1	5	2.66	1.201
Q15	80	1	5	2.85	1.284
Q16	80	1	5	3.33	1.167
Q17	80	1	5	2.98	1.190
Q18	80	1	5	2.97	1.201
Q19	80	1	5	3.01	1.085
Q20	80	1	5	3.07	1.077

The fourth section of the questionnaire was germane to 'Skills'. As shown in Table 1 the mean score and the standard deviation of this part are 2.82 and 0.84 respectively which in turn show that teachers had the same opinions towards the presentations of skills in the textbooks. This section focuses on tapping the raters' opinions as to whether the textbooks under study take into account those skills that the teachers and the learners need the most, whether these materials have provided an appropriate balance of the four skills, whether they pay attention to the sub-skills, whether they provide occasions for rehearsing natural pronunciation, and finally, whether the series centers on an integration of the four skills (see Table 5). As regards the results obtained for each sub-section of this part (Table 5), the instructors believe that the textbooks are not fully developed in terms of different aspects of skills.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR *SKILLS* SUB-SECTIONS

Questions	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
Q21	80	1	5	3.26	1.145
Q22	80	1	5	2.76	1.183
Q23	80	1	5	2.50	1.191
Q24	80	1	5	2.48	1.321
Q25	80	1	5	3.14	.990

The fifth category concerned different aspects of 'Language Type' through six different items. These items focused mainly on evaluating the views of the raters on whether a diverse range of registers and accents have been put forth through the presentation of the language in the textbook, whether the functions included typify those that the learners and the teachers will be likely to use, whether exemplifications and explanations of the grammar points are succinct and simple and whether the progression of the vocabulary and the grammar points is appropriate. Moreover, these items assessed the authenticity of the language used in the textbook and the utilization of the language at the right level for the learners. The overall calculation of mean score and standard deviation for this component is 3.21 and 0.62 respectively (see Table 1) which indicate that teachers have neutral attitudes towards this category altogether. However, the findings in Table 6 revealed that raters agreed that the progression of the grammar points and their presentations through examples and explanations have been practiced to a great extend (see Q28 & Q29 in Table 6). On the contrary, teachers were not satisfied with the representations of diverse range of registers and accents (see Q31 in Table 6).

TABLE 6
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR *LANGUAGE TYPE* SUB-SECTIONS

Questions	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
Q26	80	1	5	2.83	1.290
Q27	80	1	5	3.35	1.126
Q28	80	1	5	3.72	.900
Q29	80	1	5	3.89	.842
Q30	80	1	5	3.18	1.016
Q31	80	1	5	2.30	1.072

'Subject and Content' is the sixth component of the questionnaire which comprises five items. These items measure the following sub-components: whether the text book is pertinent to the students' needs, whether the subject and content of the series are generally realistic, whether the content of the text book is engrossing, challenging and motivating enough, whether the subject and content has fulfilled the requirement of variety, and whether the materials are culturally biased.

As displayed in Table 1 the mean score and standard deviation for this category are 3.19 and 0.84 respectively which maintain that raters are semi-satisfied with this section. In addition, the findings of the sub-sections in Table 7 substantiate the above-mentioned interpretation.

TABLE 7
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR *SUBJECT AND CONTENT* SUB-SECTIONS

Questions	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
Q32	80	1	5	3.25	1.073
Q33	80	1	5	3.21	1.122
Q34	80	1	5	2.84	1.316
Q35	80	1	5	3.05	1.231
Q36	80	1	5	3.60	.836

The final component of the questionnaire is that of 'Conclusion'. This section manifests teachers' attitudes towards total view of this series through four items. Also, this section mainly assesses (see Table 8) the views of the raters on the appropriateness of the series in terms of language-learning aims such as Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing skills for all branches of ILI in Iran, the role of the series in raising teachers and students' interest in further English language study, the suitability of the series for small-medium, homogeneous and co-ed classes at ILI, and finally, whether the teachers would choose the textbook again. The overall mean score and standard deviation for this category are 3.00 and 0.94 respectively which shows the average level of satisfaction with this series of books altogether (see Table 1). Moreover, the results obtained for each item of this final component stipulate that raters are of the opinion that this series has not been very well developed so as to meet the needs of the intended audience in the EFL context of Iran.

TABLE 8
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR *CONCLUSION* SUB-SECTIONS

Questions	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std.Deviation
Q37	80	1	5	2.86	1.240
Q38	80	1	5	3.26	1.003
Q39	80	1	5	2.88	1.195
Q40	80	1	5	3.02	1.263

In order to answer the second research question, the categories of the questionnaire were ranked based on the judges' level of satisfaction for each component and its corresponding percentage. Table 9 shows the results obtained from the data.

TABLE 9
PERCENTAGE OF SATISFACTION AND RANKING

Sub-Category	Mean	Percentage	Rank
Layout and Design	3.45	69.03	1
Practical Consideration	3.24	64.95	2
Language Type	3.21	64.20	3
Subject and Content	3.19	63.80	4
Conclusion	3.00	60.12	5
Activities	2.98	59.64	6
Skills	2.82	56.55	7

As the table clarifies (see mean scores) and as it was mentioned before, all the instructors had an average level of satisfaction towards the intended series based on different criteria included in the questionnaire. The percentage of each mean score has been calculated so as to find out the rank of each component. The raters' levels of satisfaction with regard to the categories are placed in rank order from 1 to 7. The results in Table 9 imply that among these categories, the one with which the judges are the happiest, is that of "Layout and Design". That is, in comparison with other categories, raters are more satisfied with glossary, section reviews, testing suggestions, layout and design and textbook organization subcategories. 'Practical Considerations' takes the second place which shows that teachers favored reasonability of the price, accessibility of the textbook and textbook package. 'Language Type', 'Subject and Content', 'Conclusion', and 'Activities' are ranked from 3 to 6 respectively. Of those seven categories, 'Skills' is favored the least which in turn indicates that not much heed has been paid to the integration of the four language skills in general and every one skill separately in particular. Moreover, practices of natural pronunciation do not seem to well suit the needs of the learners.

In order to answer the third research question of the study which is germane to the discrepancy between males and females attitudes towards the intended series, Independent Samples t-test was employed. The results of the analysis are shown in the following tables.

TABLE 10.
GROUP STATISTICS FOR PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Category	Gender	N	Mean	Std.Deviation
Practical Considerations	Male	40	3.20	.605
	Female	40	3.29	.640

TABLE 11
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR RATERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS PRACTICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Layout and Design	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal Variances assumed	.259	.612	-.681	78	.49
Equal Variances not assumed			-.681	77.76	.49

The results of Levene's test for equality of variances show that equal variances are assumed ($\text{Sig}=0.612>0.05$). Also, the results of t-test for equality of means indicate that there is not a significant difference between male and female attitudes towards 'Practical Considerations' category.

TABLE 12
GROUP STATISTICS FOR LAYOUT AND DESIGN

Category	Gender	N	Mean	Std.Deviation
Layout and Design	Male	40	3.46	.625
	Female	40	3.43	.720

TABLE 13
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR RATERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS LAYOUT AND DESIGN

Layout and Design	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal Variances assumed	.689	.409	-.228	78	.820
Equal Variances not assumed			-.228	76.49	.820

In the same way, the results of Levene's test in Table 13 maintain the equality of variances ($\text{Sig}=0.409>0.05$). Accordingly, the results of t-test for equality of means clarify that the discrepancy between males and females' responses about 'Layout and Design' category is statistically insignificant ($\text{Sig}=0.820>0.05$).

TABLE 14
GROUP STATISTICS FOR ACTIVITIES.

Category	Gender	N	Mean	Std.Deviation
Activities	Male	40	2.82	.869
	Female	40	3.14	.894

TABLE 15
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR RATERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ACTIVITIES

Activities	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal Variances assumed	.619	.434	-1.630	78	.107
Equal Variances not assumed			-1.630	77.93	.107

As Table 15 shows, the significance value computed for Levene's test is 0.434 which is larger than 0.05 ($\text{Sig}=0.434>0.05$). This shows that the variances are assumed equal. Moreover, the results of t-test for equality of means indicate that the difference between male and female judges' responses for 'Activities' category is not significant at the level of 0.05 ($\text{Sig}=0.107>0.05$).

TABLE 16
GROUP STATISTICS FOR SKILLS.

Category	Gender	N	Mean	Std.Deviation
Skills	Male	40	2.70	.900
	Female	40	2.95	.783

TABLE 17
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR RATERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS SKILLS

Skills	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal Variances assumed	1.116	.294	-1.351	78	.181
Equal Variances not assumed			-1.351	76.55	.181

Table 17 presents the analysis of data pertinent to the component 'Skills'. Based on the significance value computed for Levene's test, the assumption of equality of variances is retained ($\text{Sig}=0.294>0.05$) and the results of t-test for equality of means prove that female and male teachers seem to have the same view towards the skills utilized in the series.

TABLE 18
GROUP STATISTICS FOR LANGUAGE TYPE.

Category	Gender	N	Mean	Std.Deviation
Language type	Male	40	3.01	.557
	Female	40	3.40	.641

TABLE 19
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR RATERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS LANGUAGE TYPE

Language type	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal Variances assumed	1.259	.265	-2.885	78	.005
Equal Variances not assumed			-2.885	76.49	.005

Table 19 illustrates the results of Levene's test for equality of variances and t-test for equality of means. The amount calculated for the former is 0.265 and for the latter is 0.005 which in turn substantiates that the differences between the responses of male and female instructors are statistically significant with respect to 'Language Type' category ($\text{Sig}=0.005<0.05$).

TABLE 20
GROUP STATISTICS FOR SUBJECT AND CONTENT.

Category	Gender	N	Mean	Std.Deviation
Subject and Content	Male	40	3.00	.859
	Female	40	3.37	.791

TABLE 21
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR RATERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS SUBJECT AND CONTENT

Subject and Content	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal Variances assumed	.236	.628	-2.003	78	.049
Equal Variances not assumed			-2.003	77.46	.049

The results of Levene's test in Table 21 maintain the assumption of equal variances ($\text{Sig}=0.628>0.05$). However, the significance value computed for equality of means expresses different views of raters with regard to the 'Subject and Content' category ($\text{Sig}=0.049<0.05$).

TABLE 22
GROUP STATISTICS FOR CONCLUSION.

Category	Gender	N	Mean	Std.Deviation
Conclusion	Male	40	2.74	.918
	Female	40	3.26	.806

TABLE 23
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR RATERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS CONCLUSION

Conclusion	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means		
	F	Sig	t	df	Sig.(2-tailed)
Equal Variances assumed	.000	.993	-2.57	78	.012
Equal Variances not assumed			-2.57	77.98	.012

The results in Table 23 confirm the equality of variances based on the significance value calculated for Levene's test ($\text{Sig}=0.993>0.05$). In addition, the analysis pertinent to t-test for equality of means proves that the discrepancy between male and female instructors' attitudes towards the 'Conclusion' category is statistically significant ($\text{Sig}=0.01<0.05$).

VII. CONCLUSION

Each textbook designed for the purpose of language teaching and learning, regardless of perusing the same goals, encompasses both strengths and weaknesses and the intended series was no exception. This series appears to be effective in such areas as accessibility, function, structure, vocabulary and layout. However, like other textbooks it suffers from some pitfalls and shortcomings. Since the major goal of a textbook is to assist learners in making competent bilinguals in terms of the four language skills, greater up-to-date emphasis should be given to these areas. Also, each textbook should provide the opportunity for the learners to get the hang of the target language culture which is inextricably linked with the language itself.

Having received the average level of satisfaction by the instructors throughout the country in the majority of the parts of the intended series, this study is hoped to assist the material developers and syllabus designers in giving deep thought to the content of the series so as to boost pupils' pragmatic as well as communicative and grammatical competence.

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- 'L1 and L2 language stores dependency and their connection facilitation through translation'. *Iranian EFL Journal*, 7(6), 296-308.

- 'Does Translation Contribute to Learners' Free Active Vocabulary?'. *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 16 (1)



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Characteristics of Chinese Primary School Students' EFL Learning Strategies

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Abstract—It is beneficial for teachers' effective teaching to be aware of the characteristics of students' learning strategies. This paper employed "Questionnaire of Primary School Students' EFL Learning Strategies" of high reliability and validity and examined Chinese primary school students' EFL learning strategies. 700 students participated in the investigation. Results indicated that the general situation with respect to participants' EFL learning strategies was not optimistic. The most frequently used was cognitive strategy, followed by meta-cognitive strategy, and the least frequently used strategy was social/affective one. In addition, interaction between school, gender and grade was significant, the scores obtained were closely associated with individual school's teaching level, and girls gained more scores than boys.

Index Terms—EFL learning strategies, cognitive strategy, meta-cognitive strategy, social/affective strategy

I. LITERATURE REVIEW

Learning strategies are important for students' effective learning. They can be categorized into common strategies and subject learning strategies. Although there have been many researches that aimed at common learning strategies, results revealed that those common strategies proved to be ineffective for a specific subject learning (Wu, 2000). Hence researchers have begun to focus on subject learning strategies.

Foreign language learning strategies were among the earliest subject learning strategies that drew researchers' attention. At the initial stage, scholars outside China focused on vocabulary memorizing strategies and went into details about the application and effectiveness of specific strategies (Saragi, 1978; Pressley et al., 1998). Chinese researchers investigated the overall situation of EFL lexical memorizing strategies used by Chinese learners (Zhang & Zhang, 2002). For example, Chen (2007), Chen & Zhang (2001) examined Chinese children's vocabulary strategies and found that participants used various memorizing strategies but seldom used the strategies of high levels. Yao (2000), Yao, Wu & Pang (2000) discovered the characteristics of vocabulary strategies employed by Chinese high school students of different grades and learning levels. In addition, the effectiveness of EFL vocabulary strategies were also confirmed or verified. For example, Gong's (2003) result revealed that learning strategies exerted an influence upon beginners' L2 lexical memory representation and processing. By means of comparison between good and poor learners, Ding (2006) found that good learners were more inclined to employ effective strategies of high levels. Simultaneously other researchers expanded their researches on EFL learning strategies to other areas such as reading and writing (Chen, 1994; Goh, 1998).

The overall situation of EFL learning strategies is similar to that of EFL vocabulary researches in a great sense. Through investigation of high school students and adults and comparison between good and poor students in terms of EFL learning strategies, some researchers found the positive relationship between English achievements and use of strategies (Ellen, 1981; Wen & Wang, 2004). In addition, several Chinese teachers from primary and high schools summarized effective EFL learning and teaching strategies from their teaching experience and empirical studies (Zhou, 2006; Zhang, 2008).

From the above literature review, it can be concluded that in China researches with regard to English learning strategies lack an overall knowledge of current primary school students' EFL learning strategies. Most of Chinese researches on learning strategies are limited to cognitive and meta-cognitive ones, neglect resource management strategy and affective one (Gong, 2003). Due to the features of English, among the various strategies affective ones prove to be a set of complicated psychological factors and easily affected by individual affection during language learning (Stern, 1883). Krashen's "affective filter hypothesis" with respect to L2 acquisition, Bloom's "emotional goal classification system" and Weiner's "emotional motivation attribution theory" all verified the inseparable relationship between cognition and affection. The main function of English is social communication. At present most of the researches on primary school EFL learning strategies neglect the two important factors of affective and social strategies. Hence special attention ought to be given to this field.

As for the measurement instruments, on most occasions researchers employed the STLL questionnaire worked out by Oxford (Chen, 2007; Li, 2005). Based upon questionnaires by Oxford, Ellis and O'Malley, some people also compiled questionnaires by themselves (Yao, Wu & Pang, 2000). The point was that these questionnaires merely involved vocabulary learning strategies. Questionnaires by Oxford, Ellis and O'Malley had a history of about twenty years and did not intend to aim at primary school students. In addition, for L2 learners, the first difficulty they meet might be L1

transfer. As far as young learners are concerned, negative transfer L1 to L2 may reveal its own characteristics (Lynne, 2001). Most of L2 strategy questionnaires outside China are complied with English as L1 and other languages as foreign languages, thus do not suit Chinese primary school students. Accordingly there is an urgent need to work out EFL learning strategy questionnaires with Chinese as L1 and English as L2 or foreign language, which aim at Chinese primary school students and are capable of revealing participants' characteristics of EFL learning strategies.

II. METHODS

A. Participants

This research employed random sampling, chose 700 students from seven primary schools in Xiaogan, Hubei province, PRC. 689 (98.4%) questionnaires were returned and 677 (96.7%) were valid. Among the participants 358 were males and 319 were females, 182 were from grade four, 275 from grade five and 220 were from grade six. The researcher randomly chose 100 of them to retest, gave out 100 questionnaires which were all returned and valid. Among the 100 students 47 were males and 53 females.

B. Instruments

Based upon the strategy classification theory proposed by McKeachie (1981), O'Malley & Chamot (1990) as well as the relevant questionnaires complied by Oxford (1993), Ellis (1994), O'Malley & Chamot (1990), the researcher worked out the "Questionnaire of Primary School Students' EFL Learning Strategies". Firstly, the researcher determined the pre-test questionnaire after a series of discussions and interviews with experienced teachers. Secondly, she made an explorative factor analysis of the pre-test result, had the questionnaire retested, made confirmatory factor analysis, verified the validity and reliability (internal consistency reliability) of the questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of three parts, testing three categories and six kinds of learning strategies. Among them there were 14 items of meta-cognitive strategies, 15 items of cognitive ones, including practice strategy, compensation and memory strategies. There were 13 items of social/affective strategies, including active hint strategy, active longing and social supporting strategies. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were respectively 0.96, 0.93, 0.89 and 0.86 for the general questionnaire, meta-cognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and affective/social strategy, and the retest reliability coefficients were 0.89, 0.82, 0.82 and 0.73 for the general questionnaire and each of its components, indicating that the questionnaire had fine homogeneity and stability.

The researcher investigated 52 senior primary school teachers and had the questionnaire validity tested by experts, whose degree of agreement was from 60% to 100%, and 60% or above agreed to 38 of the items (90.48%), revealing that expert validity was fine. With English achievement as criterion, the correlation coefficient with respect to the strategy questionnaire was 0.58. Research by Meeus & Dekovic indicated that the correlation between standardized achievement test and school achievement was usually of intermediate or medium level (about 0.5-0.6), which meant that the criterion-related validity of the questionnaire was also fine (Meeus & Dekovic, 1995).

The researcher tested the construct validity of the questionnaire by means of confirmatory factor analysis. Result showed that the fitting index χ^2/df was 2.13, fitting index for each component (GFI, NFI, IFI and CFI) ranged from 0.86 to 0.92, both approximately 1. The RMSEA value was $0.044 < 0.05$, indicating that both of the expert validity and construct validity for "Questionnaire of Primary School English Learning Strategies" (QPSELS) were fine.

The QPSELS used five-point Likert scale with one point meaning "never", two point "seldom", three point "sometimes", four points "often" and five points "always". The higher scores the participants got, the more frequently they used the relevant strategies.

III. RESULTS

A. Chinese Primary School Students' Use of EFL Learning Strategies

The mean scores ranged from 3 (sometimes) to 4 (often), indicating that the participants' use of EFL learning strategies were not optimistic. The mean scores for the rest components of the questionnaire and its sub-dimensions ranged from 2.63 to 3.66. For the details, see table 1.

TABLE 1
CHINESE PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' USE OF EFL LEARNING STRATEGIES (N=677)

CHINESE PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' USE OF LIFE LEARNING STRATEGIES (N=677)						
	Total Scores	Meta-cognitive Strategy	Cognitive Strategy	Affective/Social Strategy		
M	3.40	3.49	3.60	3.18		
SD	0.76	0.88	0.78	0.77		
Cognitive Strategy			Affective/Social Strategy			
	Practice	Compensation	Memory	Active Hint	Active Longing	Social Support
M	3.61	3.64	3.57	3.65	3.66	2.63
SD	0.86	0.94	0.86	0.96	0.95	0.89

It can be seen from table 1 that among the three categories of strategies, the most frequently used was cognitive

strategy, followed by meta-cognitive strategy, and affective/social strategy was the least frequently used. One-way ANOVA analysis indicated that the differences between them proved to be significant ($F=49.34$; $P<0.001$). Post-hoc test revealed that the scores of cognitive strategy were significantly higher than those of meta-cognitive strategy ($p<0.05$), which was apparently higher than affective/social strategy ($p<0.001$). As far as standard deviation was concerned, meta-cognitive strategy was higher than the other two strategies, indicating that there were big individual differences between participants for the use of meta-cognitive strategy.

As for the sub-scales of cognitive and affective-social strategies and their sub-dimensions, the mean scores ranged from 3.5 to 4 except social supporting strategy which had a mean score of 2.58, at the level of below the average, indicating that Chinese primary school students did lack social strategy in their EFL learning. Of the cognitive strategies, they obtained the highest scores for compensation strategy, followed by practice strategy and memory strategy. Of the social/affective strategies, active hint and longing strategies were better than social supporting one.

B. Analysis of the Variables That Affected Primary School Students' EFL Learning Strategies

Taking gender (male and female), schools (good, medium poor) and grades (grade 4, grade 5 and grade 6) as independent variables, and total scores of strategies as dependent variables, multiple factors analysis of variance was made. It was found that the main effect of schools and gender was exceedingly significant ($F=28.17$, 17.19 ; $p<0.001$), good schools gained significantly more scores than medium schools which obviously got more than poor schools. In addition, female students gained much more than male ones. The interactive effect for school \times grade, school \times grade \times gender was significant ($F=4.00$, 2.61 ; $p<0.01$, $p<0.05$). And the other interactive effects were not significant ($p>0.05$).

The researcher made further analysis of the interactive effect between grade and gender. For male students at good schools, starting from grade 4, scores for strategies were much higher than other schools; differences between grades were not significant, although there were gaps between high and low scores ($F=1.75$, $p>0.05$). At medium schools, differences between grades were significant ($F=8.64$, $p<0.001$). Grade 4 obtained 2.96, grade 5 got 3.13, and grade 6 gained 3.59 which was significant higher than grade 4 and 5; there were no significant differences between grade 4 and 5. At poor schools, although there were gaps between high and low scores, there were no significant differences between grades ($F=1.58$, $p>0.05$). In addition, as far as grade 4 was concerned, there were significant differences between schools with regard to the total scores ($F=8.17$, $p<0.01$); good schools got 3.76, medium schools 2.96 and poor schools 2.90; the total scores for good schools were significantly higher than those of medium and poor schools with no significant differences between medium schools and poor ones. For grade 5, there were no significant differences between schools concerning the total scores ($F=1.94$, $p>0.05$). For grade 6 there were significant differences between schools in total scores ($F=9.12$, $p<0.001$) with good schools 3.46, medium schools 3.59 and poor schools 2.75. Good schools and medium schools were higher than poor schools but there were no significant differences between good schools and medium ones.

For female students at good schools, starting scores for strategies were higher than other schools; there were significant differences between grades in total scores ($F=4.22$, $p<0.05$); grade 4 obtained 3.86, grade 5 got 3.61 and for grade 6 it was 3.94; grade 6 was significantly higher than grade 5, and there were no significant differences between grade 4 and grade 6 ($p>0.05$). At medium and poor schools, there were no differences between the three grades ($F=2.80$, $p>0.05$; $F=0.22$, $p>0.05$). For grade 4, there were significant differences between schools with respect to scores for strategies ($F=3.73$, $p<0.05$) with good schools 3.86, medium schools 3.46 and poor schools 3.23; scores for good schools were significantly higher than those of medium and poor schools and there were no significant differences between medium and poor schools. For grade 5, there were significant differences between schools in scores for strategy use ($F=7.16$, $p<0.01$) with good schools 3.61, medium schools 3.76 and poor ones 3.05; scores of good and medium schools were significantly higher than those of poor ones but there were no significant differences between good and medium schools. For grade 6, there were significant differences between schools ($F=10.05$, $p<0.001$) with good schools 3.94, medium schools 3.55 and poor ones 3.09; scores of good schools were significantly higher than poor ones and there were no significant differences between medium and poor schools in terms of strategy use.

Independent-sample t test was made with gender as independent variable (see table 2) and result indicated that there were significant differences between male students and female ones with respect to the total scores of EFL learning strategies and three sub-scales with females much better than males.

Taking teaching level (good, medium and poor) as independent variable, one-way ANOVA analysis was made (see the result in table 3). It can be seen that from school of comparatively lower teaching level to that of higher level, primary school students' total scores of English learning strategies and scores with regard to each of the sub-scales and dimensions gradually increased and there were significant differences between scores of sub-scales ($p<0.001$). Post-hoc LSD test indicated that good schools were significantly higher than medium ones which was higher than the poor ones in term of the total scores of English learning strategies and all the sub-scales ($p<0.001$, $p<0.01$). Nevertheless, for the affective/social strategies, good and medium schools were also at comparatively low level.

TABLE 2
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE AND THE THREE SUB-SCALES (M±SD)

Gender	Total Scores for Strategy Questionnaire	Meta-cognitive Strategies	Cognitive Strategies	Affective/Social Strategies
Male (358)	3.24±0.76	3.27±0.88	3.42±0.79	3.00±0.76
Female (319)	3.65±0.70	3.74±0.82	3.81±0.70	3.38±0.73
t	7.31***	7.15***	6.74***	6.56***

TABLE 3
DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SCHOOLS OF DIFFERENT LEVELS
WITH RESPECT TO CHINESE PRIMARY SCHOOL STUDENTS' EFL LEARNING STRATEGIES (M±SD)

Strategies	Good Schools (279)	Medium Schools (299)	Poor Schools (99)	F
Total Scores of Strategy Questionnaire	3.65±0.72	3.37±0.74	3.01±0.71	26.61***
Meta-cognitive Strategy	3.74±0.82	3.44±0.87	2.93±0.81	35.02***
Cognitive Strategy	3.85±0.74	3.50±0.76	3.24±0.72	29.58***
Affective/social Strategy	3.33±0.74	3.15±0.75	2.84±0.77	15.76***

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Chinese Primary School Students' Insufficient Use of EFL Learning Strategies

From the above results it can be clearly seen that participants' use of EFL learning strategies were not optimistic and that there was much room for improvement. The results of this research revealed that the total scores of strategies, meta-cognitive strategy, cognitive strategy and affective-social strategies all ranged from "yes, sometimes" to "yes, in most cases", and even between "no, in most cases" and "yes, sometimes". In short, Chinese primary school students' use of EFL learning strategies proved to be not optimistic. On the one hand, as students began to have initial access to English at primary school, the learning and use of EFL strategies were also at the initial stage, there were not many students who could use the relevant strategies by themselves. On the other hand, it was one of the reasons that Chinese EFL teachers neglected strategy teaching on many occasions. The evolution process of strategies turned out to be slow and unbalanced without necessary guidance (David, 2005), in particular for primary school students, since they were incapable of making full use of the strategies at will so as to improve their learning efficiency. Teachers' clear and explicit strategy direction would be of great help to students' use of strategies (Liu, 1997). Nevertheless, in China the teaching objective of many teachers' lies in the fact that students are supposed to keep ahead in various tests so that teachers are always eager to teach students language and test skills, neglecting strategy teaching. In addition, some EFL teachers still emphasize learning by rote, believing that English words should be recited, which indicates that teachers apparently lack the awareness of teaching students EFL learning strategies. Since the 1980s, Chinese people began to become crazy about English, various methods have emerged since then but whether they are scientific and effective have not been verified. Even English teachers may be doubtful and confused about them, it is therefore hard for them to teach students effective learning methods. Hence teachers are not only to pay special attention to ensuring EFL learning strategy teaching, but also to teach them in a scientific and effective way. Simultaneously, in China primary school English learning is at the initial stage, and beginners of English are supposed to be taught EFL learning strategies and form good habits of learning, which will exert significant effect upon their future learning of English.

Among all the strategies, participants used cognitive strategies most frequently and affective/social strategies least frequently. Seen from the scores for sub-scales, cognitive strategies got significantly higher scores than meta-cognitive ones ($p < 0.05$) which was significantly much higher than affective/social strategies ($p < 0.001$). Among the sub-dimensions of cognitive strategies, compensation strategy obtained the highest score, followed by practice strategy and memory strategy got the lowest score. Memory is one of the important parts at the initial stage of EFL learning. The comparatively low score for this strategy revealed that Chinese primary school students failed to memorize English knowledge in an effective way and that there is urgent need to develop and train students' EFL memory strategy. Chen (2007) found that when memorizing English words, Chinese children seldom used meta-cognitive strategies and depended upon cognitive strategies most of the time, which coincided with the result of this research. Primary school students were so young, they were at the initial stage of English learning, and their general development of meta-cognition is immature. At the same time, most of the teachers often neglect students' development of meta-cognitive abilities. Cognition is closely associated with meta-cognitive strategies whose prediction of achievement is significantly stronger than that of cognitive strategies. L2 teachers are supposed to make every effort to be aware of learners' cognitive regulations in their practice teaching, and teach students cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies in everyday teaching, remove the traditional cramming method so as to achieve the objective of empowering them to fish since "give a man a fish and you feed him for a day; teach a man to fish and you feed him for a lifetime (Tang, 2005). Grade 4 to 6 at primary school is the crucial stage for the transition of concrete thinking to abstract one (Lin, 2009). Accordingly teachers should lay more emphasis on the development of students' meta-cognitive abilities in EFL teaching.

Of the three strategies, the most pessimistic were affective/social ones with merely 3.16 points. As for the

sub-dimensions, active hint obtained the highest score, followed by active longing and social support at last with 2.58 points only, indicating that Chinese primary school students still had a long way to go in interpersonal communication in English and making full use of social resources to promote their EFL learning. In addition, in this dimension even good schools were at comparatively low level with regard to strategy use. Primary school EFL learning is easily affected by personal affective factors which even affects language learning the same as the cognitive factor (Stern, 1983). The affective filter hypothesis for L2 learning proposed by Dulay & Burt and also Krashen suggested that foreign language learners might be affected by affective filter so as to produce different learning results. Situational learning theory believes that learning is not a set of isolated abstract knowledge and that learners obtain knowledge and experience by means of participating in the social practice activities. Language as a tool of communication is doomed to being associated with specific situations. If students simply learn English knowledge solitarily and fail to combine theory with practice, there will be great gap between language contexts at the initial learning stage and future practice or transfer situation so that transfer will be completely impossible (Yao, 2000; Yao, Wu and Pang, 2000), which might also account for why Chinese students used to learn “dumb English” and “deaf English”.

There may be two reasons for the lack of affective/social strategies. Firstly, there is a lack of communication opportunities. It is emphasized that in children's L2 teaching, interpersonal communicative intelligence activities can not be completed/finished by themselves and they need to learn language knowledge through cooperation with others. At present in China primary school English classroom overuses teaching or training methods, lacks interactive and communicative activities. Besides, students can not rapidly learn to communicate and lack opportunities of learning to communicate, interact with each other and look for social support (Zhang & Zhou, 2012), which has led to the lack of affective/social strategies. Secondly, for quite a long period of time Chinese students have received examination-oriented education which more or less makes them lose interest in learning. Hence it turns out to be impossible for them to make use of affective hints to increase their learning interest and motivation. Active hint and longing strategies mean to intentionally increase the self intrinsic learning motivation and interest with positive affections. Due to the limitations of age, thinking pattern and social experience, it is difficult for primary school students to form active emotional orientation by themselves and accordingly need positive guidance from teachers and parents who are supposed to make use of active hint and longing strategies to promote the occurrence of positive affections. Simultaneously, language itself has the social properties. Primary school students are imaginative, active and lively. Accordingly in primary school English teaching, teachers should adhere to the characteristics of “from life and used for life” and combine EFL teaching with students' daily life so as to make teaching activities full of vitality. Sun and Dong (2001) found that it proved to be practical for children to learn English vocabulary with the help of multimedia cartoon movie context, which would apparently provide basis for situation teaching and the improvement of students' social communication. Teachers have to guide students to appropriately make use of social resources, increase opportunities of having contact with English and avoid “giving up eating for fear of choking”.

B. Differences between Schools, Genders and Grades in Term of EFL Learning Strategies

In this investigation, school level was an important factor that affected primary school students' use of EFL learning strategies. There were significant differences between schools in total scores, sub-scales and various dimensions with regard to EFL learning strategies. The higher the level, the better the students' use of EFL learning strategies. At primary school stage, school education might produce influential effect upon strategy development, which implies that school environments are of significant importance and that a favourable atmosphere will be of tremendous help to EFL learning. Besides, gender factor was also one of the important components that affected primary school students' EFL learning strategies. Female students were better than males in terms of total scores of strategies, sub-scales and their dimensions. As for the impact of genders upon learning strategies, there were various results due to different subjects and ages. Some researches found no significant differences between genders with respect to primary mathematic strategies (Liu, Huang, 2005), others found that females did better than males (Si, 2002). In addition, result revealed that females did better than males in junior high school Chinese learning strategy (Liu, 2006). English is a subject that need more memorizing and female students prove to be more patient and interested and have accumulated more strategies, which might be the important reason why female students in general did better than males in English achievement.

In addition, schools, grades and genders may also exert comprehensive influence upon the use of primary school EFL strategies. Students from schools of different levels revealed different characteristics in their learning strategies. Generally speaking, students from good schools had a higher starting point but fluctuated during the development process; students from medium schools did worse than those from good schools but had the greatest potential; students from poor schools had low levels of strategy but there was much room for improvement.

Good schools had the highest starting point in their scores of strategies but fluctuated during the development process. Grade 4 students from good schools obtained higher scores than those from medium and poor schools. As for grade 5 and 6 students, both males and females, there were no obvious differences between students from good schools and those from medium ones in their use of strategies; females got comparatively low scores when they were in grade 5, but there were no differences between grades for males. Comparatively speaking, good schools laid more emphasis on strategy teaching and students accordingly could learn more EFL strategies. In addition, grade 4 students were beginners of English, strategies for them had apparent characteristics of extrinsic obtainment, which might cause

students to over-evaluate their own levels of strategies. After a year of learning when they were grade 5, some frequently used strategies began to be integrated and internalized, and some of the students simply could not persist in the learnt strategies or began to reveal their own drawbacks of strategy use. On these occasions good schools gradually lost their superiority in EFL learning strategies. Accordingly good schools have to pay attention to strategy teaching from beginning to the end and make every effort to avoid the drawbacks of strategy use. Females from good schools obtained comparatively higher scores for strategy use, but they should be cautious about the possible appearance of bottleneck and persist in strategy practice. On the other hand, male students have to strengthen strategy learning and increase their strategies as their English knowledge increases.

At medium schools, development of strategies proved to be slower than good ones, but students' total levels of strategies increased as grade increased, hence had great potential. There were no significant differences between good schools and medium ones at grade 5 and 6. Males' strategies developed rapidly at this stage but there were no obvious differences between grades for females, which indicated that for students from medium schools, as their English knowledge increased, their strategies also increased, mainly due to the rapid development of male students' strategies. At grade 5 and 6, as examination for the admission of junior high school drew near, medium school teachers were eager to improve students' English achievement, laid emphasis on English knowledge teaching but neglected teaching students EFL learning strategies. On this occasion females students were more easily affected by teachers. Compared with male students, female ones were more inclined to field-dependence and more easily affected by environments while male students were more inclined to field-independence (Li, 2000), and continued to increase their strategies in EFL learning. Hence at grade 6 at medium schools, teachers have to pay special attention to strategy teaching for female students and inspire them to discover effective strategies by themselves so as to lay a solid foundation for future study.

As for poor schools, their general strategy levels were not optimistic, and there were no obvious differences between the three grades in terms of strategy scores. As for the starting point of strategy, at grade 4 there were no gender difference between poor schools and medium schools. As grade increased, there gradually appeared differences between poor schools and medium schools, indicating impact of school environments on students' learning strategies. Therefore even at poor schools, if teachers are well aware of the importance of strategies and teach EFL learning strategies in the classroom, they are still capable of arousing students' consciousness and interest in English and EFL learning strategies so that students may keep ahead with those from medium schools.

V. CONCLUSION

From the above discussion, the following conclusions can be arrived at:

(1) Chinese primary school students' use of EFL learning strategies was not optimistic, ranging from "sometimes it is" to "in most cases it is", even from "in most cases it is not" to "sometimes it is". Among the three categories of strategies, the use of cognitive strategies proved to be the best or the most frequently, followed by meta-cognitive ones and affective/social strategies were at the bottom, in particular the social supporting strategy which need urgent improvement.

(2) The main effects of gender and school were significant. Female students were superior to males in terms of EFL Learning strategies; scores of strategies were closely associated with the teaching level of schools; scores of affective/social strategies were comparatively low for all the participants.

(3) Interactive effects of gender, grade and school were significant. In other words, good schools had highest starting points but fluctuated during the development of the strategies; there were no obvious differences between grades for males while female students got low scores for strategies at grade 5; medium schools were lagged behind in their strategy development, but they had greatest potential; male students began to rapidly increase their strategies at grade 5, but there were no significant differences between grades for female students; students' from poor schools used EFL learning strategies much less frequently but their starting points were not that low. Schools of this category are supposed to strengthen teachers and students' awareness of strategies and strategy teaching, there is much room for the improvement of such schools.

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Language Teaching and Task Based Approach

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Abstract—During recent years, some notions about tasks have been considered as the major part of analysis in different teaching approaches and teachers are being more interested in the use of task-based approach both in foreign and in second language teaching. The word 'task' refers to some special activities that are carried out in the classroom. These activities are performed by putting an emphasis on meaning. In this approach Grammatical Competence and communicative competence are extremely emphasised, that is being able to adjust with grammatical norms and being able to convey ideas. Consequently, grammatical competence in this approach is made by 'internal self-regulating processes' and it helps to convey the meaning in 'appropriate conditions'. The main goal of this article is to introduce and discuss some major principles of task-based language teaching and indicates how teachers can apply them in their curriculum.

Index Terms—task, grammatical competence, communicative competence, task-based language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Task-based language teaching is derived from Dewey's attitude about the crucial role of experience for an effective learning. It considers the functional role of language in real tasks as the major goal for students to communicate at the class for an ideal learning. Unlike traditional form-based approaches, task-based involves the specification of a sequence of interactive tasks to be performed in the target language rather than a sequence of language items. Language teaching has been affected by many changes for the last few decades. Many methods have been introduced. Teachers experienced Audio lingual Method, Total Physical Response (TPR), Natural Approach, and many other methods. It is generally believed that there is no single method that can meet the students' needs.

The major differences between task based and traditional approaches are shown in the following table:

TABLE 1:
 DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TASK BASED AND OTHER APPROACHES

Task based Approach	Traditional approaches
Focus on form is unintentional	Focus on form is deliberate
Communicative tasks are centred.	Communicative tasks are not mainly considered
New language is confronted unintentional during tasks.	New language is intentionally taught.
There is little or no focus on specific language forms	There is remarkable focus on specific language forms.
Lessons are mainly learner-centred.	Lessons are mainly teacher-led.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Past studies have shown that English language proficiency has an influence on English as a foreign language (EFL) students' academic performance at the university level (e.g., Songy, 2007; Stoyanoff, 1997). Unlike direct approach or traditional approach, the communicative approach is regarded as an indirect approach to L2 instruction (Celce-Murcia, Dornyei, & Terrell, 1997) and is also considered as a learner-cantered approach (Nunan, 1988). Task based originated from communicative language teaching (CLT). Hymes' view about communicative competence created a more critical view at language and highlighted the students' needs to provide opportunities to use language in the classroom. But there were two criticisms against it. In CLT Instead of assigning a syllabus that involves grammar and lexis, the 'communicative syllabus' was specified for those notions and functions to identify the learners' semantic and pragmatic needs and to meet their needs as efficiently as possible.

Therefore, Instead of learning some grammatical structures such as 'simple present tense' or 'infinitive' the syllabuses began by some items like 'making requests' or 'talking about present'. Although the communicative syllabus stated to determine notions and functions, it in fact determined linguistic realisations of those notions and functions.

Furthermore, CLT was methodological. That is, there was a stress on language use in the classroom, which was considered as a type of practice for language use in the real world. But in fact, the communicative approach that was used in the classroom was a 'weak form' of the approach. Since, there was still an interest to see the study of language form before language use. Actually tasks were applied to help 'free' production at the end of a controlled form-based teaching cycle. The tendency to learn was still made by the specification of a new structure or pattern. Language use was seen as subordinate to the study of language form. In contrast to CLT, Task based approach, looks at language use accompanied by the tasks that are located in the centre for both syllabus planning and methodology.

Allwright (1984) was among the first people who argued about the effectiveness of tasks as an input to learning that asked for the need of language instruction and focused on the need for language use. But the best recorded application

of a task-based approach is found in Prabhu's procedural syllabus (Prabhu 1987). Procedural syllabus programs were made on the Bangalore Madras project by Prabhu in 1979-1984, which was apparently the first endeavour in a real task-based syllabus. It's worthwhile to mention here that "The Bangalore Project", as it is known in the literature, was the start point in task-based learning popularity. It was developed after some dissatisfactory trends toward structural teaching in English as a Foreign Language, then Prabhu found that it's time to change teaching methodology. Before Prabhu, English was taught by a method called S-O-S (Structural Oral Situational). Much attention was paid to apply the S-O-S methodology. It was considered as a desirable methodology for ten years. But in 1975, when S-O-S was a prominent methodology, some criticisms were raised. Critics claimed that students were neither able to use the language outside the class, nor to get enough grammatical accuracy or situational appropriateness in their language, by the S-O-S pedagogy. Prabhu conducted a project in schools in India where learners were given a series of problems and information gap activities that they were asked to solve them under teacher's supervision. Prabhu claimed that a focus on language form prevents language learning. He believed that Language development is achieved by the outcome of natural processes. Assessments on Prabhu's project showed that learners were more successful in this way than other counterparts who were taught in a more traditional ways.

Long and Crookes (1992) defined task based syllabuses in three categories: (1) procedural syllabuses, (2) process syllabuses and (3) task-based language teaching. Ellis (2002) added another category that is known as "humanistic teaching". Ellis defined humanistic teaching as "humanistic principles of education emphasized the achievement of students' full potential for growth by acknowledging the importance of the affective dimension in learning as well as the cognitive" (2002, p.31). Long & Crookes defined process syllabus as "a social and problem-solving orientation, with explicit provision for the expression of individual learning styles and preferences" (Long & Crookes, 1992, p.38). Another approach that was similar to Prabhu's was proposed by Breen (1987) and Candlin (1987) in their support to a process syllabus. Breen and Candlin agreed with Prabhu. They also based the syllabus design and classroom methodology on the use of language rather than as a language item. The process syllabus is different from the procedural syllabus in two ways:

- The teacher's role is not one sided as an organiser, but he can consult learners and help them understand their own learning plan.
- In Prabhu's procedural approach students were operating with the process syllabus, they focused on language forms explicitly.

Long and Crookes (1992) criticised the procedural and process syllabuses in three parts:

- (1) The syllabuses do not offer any procedures for task selection based on a need's analysis.
 - (2) They do not offer any criteria for task sequencing.
 - (3) They do not permit a systematic focus on form, although the process syllabus may focus on form in response to learner initiative.
- Long and Crookes claimed that classroom or pedagogical tasks must be systematically related to communicative tasks that the learners will perform outside the classroom. Communicative needs should be determined and expressed by meanings and outcomes. These meanings and outcomes must be in relation with pedagogical tasks. However, the problem of task sequencing is more difficult. Few formal researches are conducted into task based approach in classrooms. R. Ellis (2000) illustrated the effects of some of the factors in examining task use from a 'sociocultural perspective'. He focused on the way that participants 'co-constructed the activity' they were involved in. In one of the few task based classroom studies Skehan and Foster (1998) attended to the influence of learners' ability to plan a task before performing, and to the effective role of teacher's guidance upon that planning. They did a research in three classes to record different types of task under different conditions; at last, the results of interactions were compared. In their findings many interesting and unexpected results were observed, but generally those learners who had planning time could produce a better and longer discourse than those had no planning time, generally they indicated a stronger engagement with the task itself.

III. DEFINITIONS OF "TASK"

Task is defined in different ways. Long (1985) defines it as "a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus, examples of tasks include painting a fence, dressing a child, filling out a form, buying a pair of shoes. In other words, by 'task' is meant the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play, and in between" (p.89). Nunan (2004) made a distinction between target tasks, and pedagogical tasks. According to him, target tasks refer to language use in the world beyond the classroom. Pedagogical tasks on the other hand refer to language use that occurs in the classroom. The word 'task' has broader meaning. It sometimes refers to 'metacommunicative tasks', or other exercises by focusing on language form, where learners use language or make generalisations about it. As a result, these definitions are non-technical and non-linguistic. Furthermore, some of the examples that are provided may not include language use at all (e.g. Draw something without talking). Therefore, each task can be part of a larger sequence of tasks, for example, the task of class activities for a teacher may be a part of the task to give 'final score'. Pedagogical task in Breen's view is defined as "any structured language learning endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and a range of outcomes for those who undertake the task. 'Task' is therefore assumed to refer to a range of work plans which have the overall purposes of facilitating language learning – from the simple and brief exercise type, to more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem-solving or simulations and decision-making. (Breen, 1987, p. 23)

But even this definition is not accurate since according to it everything that the learner does in the classroom is considered as a task. Then Willis (1996) gave another definition about it as "...where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome". Here the notion of meaning is subsumed in 'outcome'. Language in a communicative task is seen as bringing about an outcome through the exchange of meanings. (p. 173).

IV. TASK BASED FEATURES

Major characteristics of task based approach are outlined as:

- ✓ Task as a reflection of real world activity
- ✓ Task as the syllabus unit
- ✓ Task as a learner -centred base
- ✓ Task as an ideal for second language acquisition condition
- ✓ Task as an instrument to specify the parts to be concentrated in the next activities

The first characteristic, Task as a reflection of real world activity, is similar for all models of this approach. According to Breen (1987) tasks are defined as social and problem solving interaction. The second feature, Task as the syllabus unit, is more difficult than the first one, since new syllabuses do not involve a single method to identify the subject of any course but usually include several ways to deal with different features of the course. The third feature, Task as a learner -centred base, is regarded as a general characteristic for this approach by Breen and Nunan. Nunan supported increased learner-centred base. His views were relevant to task based approach. The fourth point, Task as an ideal for second language acquisition condition, was the base of Long and Crookes's model to task based approach. They claimed that this model is based on a second language acquisition project, on a classroom-oriented research, and on the bases of syllabus and course design. The last feature, Task as an instrument to specify the parts to be concentrated in the next activities, directly indicates the role for tasks in a cycle. However, different ways to select the type of tasks have been offered. Long outlined four steps for developing a task-based syllabus:

1. Set a need analysis program to get target tasks.
2. Sort out the target tasks into separate task types.
3. Base on the task type, set pedagogical tasks.
4. Choose pedagogical tasks and put them in order to form a task syllabus.

V. TASK-BASED APPROACH IN TEACHING

One evident outcome of this approach is the exchange of information in spoken or written language. Therefore teachers can ask learners to exchange and perform instructions, or to solve a problem, or to tell the story for their partners. In all of these activities we are looking for one goal which is making students independent of the language to achieve that goal. One of the major features of task based approach is that learners who perform a task are free to use any kind of language to achieve their outcome, in other words language forms are not determined in advance. Learners never take note of language inputs to produce them. As soon as they decide to apply language for purposeful communications, they try to find appropriate input to make new meanings. In fact, they are not willing to reproduce a series of language forms in target norms. Their purpose is to create a meaning system by which they will be able to operate rapidly and efficiently in real time. As a result in order to achieve this goal they will apply and expand language forms that they have been recently faced with, but they will also adopt some sorts of strategies that lead them to ignore grammatical nuance points and to make forms which are not prohibited by the target norms. Therefore, the purpose of a communicative task is to motivate learners to create a meaning system. But different learners use different strategies and different language forms to fulfill the goal. The design of a task-based oriented course includes paying attention to the steps or components of a lesson that has a task in its principals. Different designs have offered. However all of them have three phases in common which are illustrated in table 3. These phases are represented in a task-based lesson chronologically.

TABLE 3:
A FRAMEWORK FOR DESIGNING TASK-BASED LESSONS

Phase	Examples of options
A. Pre-task	* Setting out the activity * Planning time * Doing a similar task
B. During task	* Time pressure * Number of participants
C. Post-task	* Learner report * Consciousness-raising * Repeat task

As can be seen from the table 3, the first phase is called 'pre-task' that concerns with different activities that both teachers and students undertake before they start the task, the activities like giving students time to plan for the performance of the task. In the second phase, that is called 'during task' phase, the focus is on the task itself and it

provides different pedagogical options, like identifying students' needs to perform during a specific time. The last phase is called 'post-task' and it includes procedures to follow-up the given task. In task based teaching 'during task' is the only compulsory phase. So, items that are selected from the 'pre-task' or 'post-task' phases are optional.

VI. WILLIS'S TASK BASED FRAMEWORK

The application of tasks in the classroom makes variety. Willis, J. (1996) outlined the 'task cycle' with more profound details that is more practical with a real natural classroom. He said three phases are concerned:

- a) Pre-task phase: Various activities were suggested by Willis for teachers to undertake the 'presentation stage'.
- b) The task cycle: He described task cycle as task, planning and report. Students are expected to produce natural language, enhance fluency and confidence. Willis and Skehan emphasised on grammatical accuracy during the time tasks are being performed because during task performance the learners consider meaning and neglect grammatical correctness.
- c) Language focus: It insists on some specific language features. As focus on meaning should be prominent, now it's time for 'language focus activities'. By language activities we mean semantics, lexis, morphology, syntax and phonetics/phonology. Figure 1 shows Willis's task based framework graphically.

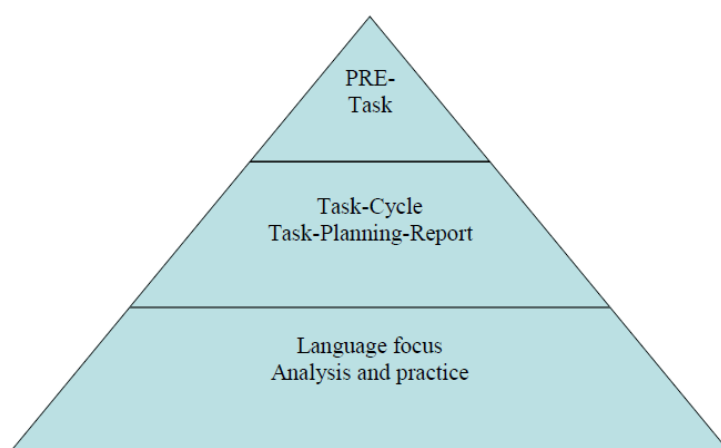


Fig. 1: Willis's framework in task based approach

A. The Pre-task Phase

The aim of the pre-task phase is to make students aware to carry out the task in ways that will enhance learning. This stage is regarded as an entry to the topic and task. It can consist of presenting useful words and phrases, brainstorming activities or listening to native speakers who are doing the tasks. Dornyei (2001) insisted on the importance of introducing a task in a way that encourages learners. He also emphasised on the value of explaining the purpose of the task. He also suggested that task preparation should include strategies that are in accordance with students' interests to perform the task.

Skehan (1998) pointed out that in pre task phase, a teacher has two options: To focus on the general meaning of the task or to focus on linguistic alternative. These two variables can be considered by one of these ways; (1) Advocate learners to perform tasks like their performance in during-task stage, (2) Ask learners to maintain a framework to perform the task, (3) Involve students in doing non-task activities to make them familiar how to perform the task (4) Make plan for the main task performance

B. The Task Cycle

This cycle includes three basic phases (Task, Planning, report) and one optional phase.

1. Task

Students start performing a communication task, by the background language they have already learned. The task is an aim-centred activity that enables the students to achieve a real outcome. According to Willis's category, we have six types of task:

- 1). Listing
- 2). Ordering and sorting
- 3). Comparing
- 4). Problem solving
- 5). Sharing personal experiences
- 6). Creative tasks

Other activities like and practice activities are not considered as tasks. For each task a specific purpose is devoted that must be attained in a specific period of time. Students can select different language types to get into the goal of the task. Concentration of the task is on meaning rather than form. The teacher carefully controls the task and never corrects errors. For closed tasks there are specific goals and language forms are predictable to some extent, whereas for open tasks there are less specific goals and language forms are less predictable. For this stage, the teacher controls and encourages students to communicate in the target language. As mentioned before, the teacher does not correct errors but helps students to elaborate what they want to say. The emphasis is on automaticity and fluency.

2. Planning

After the task is finished, learners give a report on the outcome. Then attention is paid to organisation and accuracy. The teacher makes students aware of any errors they made in this stage and helps them for correction.

3. Report

All groups are asked to report a summary to the class. The other students listen in order to compare their findings or to do a research. At this stage, the teacher can paraphrase but not correct the language.

4. Optional post task listening

At this phase students can listen to native speakers who have done the same task and compare the language. Motivation is created by the need to attain the objectives of the task and to report back on it. If success is achieved, motivation will be increased. A kind of motivation can make by listening to native speakers who have done the task, because in accomplishing the task, students will find the gaps in their language, and will listen to a native speaker to hear how they express themselves. Learners attend to language features and reflect them, recycle the task, look through the text to find new items, and try to rehearse correct pronunciation.

C. Language Focus

This phase is achieved by two sections: Analysis and practice

1. Analysis

Students concentrate on forms and they ask some questions about language characteristics.

2. Practice

Based on the analysis results, teachers identify some activities. In this framework methodology provides conditions for language learning. The conditions are made by exposure to real language; there are some opportunities to use language in real conditions.

As far as form is concerned, Willis focused on post-task report, which could be a written task such as writing a report or a spoken one that students can focus on accuracy. This framework was very effective.

VII. COMPONENTS OF A TASK

As can be seen in figure 2, tasks include some types of 'input' which can be verbal (dialogue) or nonverbal (pictures) accompanied by an activity that is originated by the input. This activity forms the learners' need. All tasks have both goals and roles for teachers and students. Therefore, a task can be defined as a piece of meaning- centred work that makes learners comprehend, produce and communicate in the target language. Figure 2 illustrates the components of task by Nunan graphically.

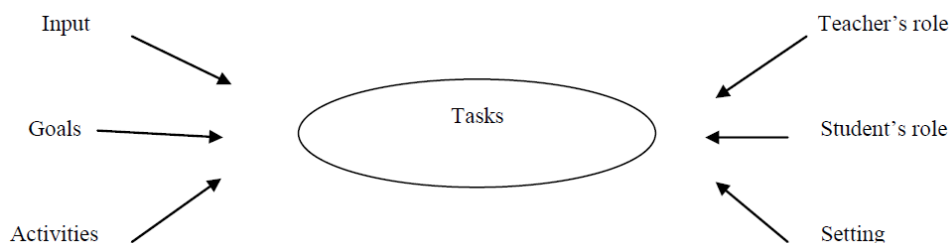


Fig. 2: Components of a Task (Nunan, 1989)

VIII. CONCLUSION

The more task base approach is studied the more necessity for sequencing of activities is observed. The controversial topic is to present a sequencing theme without any prevention in the learner's linguistic knowledge and his ability to get himself involved in the learning process. Therefore; teachers can apply a variety of communicative language teaching methodologies that consist of the best ways of teaching. In addition, the merged approach also includes a range of theories.

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The Originality of English Newspaper Titles

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Abstract—This paper argues that English newspaper titles must be original to apply to a growing number of readers. Here the most important approaches to write original English newspaper titles are introduced to illustrate that how charming and appealing the English language in newspaper titles will be if it is used creatively.

Index Terms—originality, titles, English newspaper, flexibility, borrowing words, buzzwords

I. INTRODUCTION

Titles of a newspaper are the most important part of a newspaper because people depends on whether the newspaper is worth reading or not by looking at the titles (Fanjian Hua, 2008) and people only read those that appeal to them. The success of a newspaper depends largely on the originality of the titles that must be concise, attractive, imaginative, impressive and creative. If titles of newspaper English are very common even boring, perhaps nobody would like to read the newspaper. Therefore the English language of the titles of a newspaper of English plays the most vital part in the newspaper. Here I dwell on how titles of newspaper English are original.

II. DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

The originality of titles of newspaper English goes as follows.

A. Coinage

Coinage refers to the inventing of a word or phrase. Sometimes some words or phrases can be coined in order to make the titles give the impression of being concise, vivid and imaginative. For example.

1. **Three wants and three want-nots** (Chen Yuming, 2013)

The title here is the one in China Daily by Chen Yuming on March 14, 2013 that emphasizes our President Xi's views on China's foreign policy that seeks peace, development and cooperation instead of conflict, poverty and confrontation. Here the coinage of the words of the title avoids the lengthy to express the specific foreign policy and impresses people very much.

2. **Biden: Obama gave me 'every s- -t job in the world'** (S.A. Miller, 2014)

Here is the title by S.A. Miller in New York Post on February 27, 2014 that Vice President Joe Biden complained that he was given every s- -t job but still wasn't fully trusted by President Obama. The title reveals that the revelations about Biden's tortured relationship with Obama. Here the coinage of the word s- -t means the vice president was not satisfied with the president since the latter gave him **s- -t job (every unsavory job)**.

3. **The do-it-yourself pension plan** – Money Clip (Today Reuters, 2013)

Workers are offered pensions by fewer companies but they still need income after retirement. Here the **do-it-yourself pension plan** is the four ways to **turn your portfolio into a pension plan**.

B. Abbreviation

The initials of the words are used to arouse the curiosity of readers to guess the meaning of the abbreviation. On the other hand, abbreviation can avoid the lengthy phrase. For example.

1. Dzhokhar Tsarnaev charged with using **WMD** (Sari Horwitz, Jenna Johnson and Kathy Lally, 2013)

The Washington Post Published the title Dzhokhar Tsarnaev charged with using **WMD** to show that the suspect in the Boston Marathon bombings was charged with using a "**weapon of mass destruction**".

2. **NYC** proposing raising age for tobacco purchase (ASSOCIATED PRES, 2013)

Here the abbreviation **NYC** stands for **New York City Council**.

3. Beijing planning new airport in **S** suburbs (Xinhua, 2013)

Here **S** suburbs represents **southern** suburbs.

4. **COFCO** sows seeds of further overseas growth (Ding Qingfen and Bao Chang, 2012)

COFCO here stands for **China National Cereals, Oils and Foodstuffs Corp.**

5. China adds more **QFII** A-share accounts (Xinhua, 2014)

QFII is the abbreviation of **Qualified Foreign Institutional Investors**.

C. The Flexibility of Parts of Speech of the Words

Household words are chosen to appear in the titles of newspaper English in order to be easily understood by readers,

so these words are used very flexibly to attract people's attention. For example.

1. Adjectives used as verbs

1.1 China's January inflation **slows** to 2% (BEIJING, 2013)

The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) stated that China's inflation in January decreased to 2%.

1.2 Vancouver housing price slide prompts owners to pull homes off market (Garry Marr, 2012)

The prices of homes fall down. And the owners sell the houses at lower prices.

1.3 Travel peak **nears** end (chinadaily.com.cn, 2013)

Travel peak is about to end.

1.4 Avian flu **quiets** song in bird market (Shan Juan and He Na in Beijing, and Wang Hongyi in Shanghai, 2013)

In bird market live fowl is banned to sell because of bird flu.

1.5 China's World Cup hopes **dimmed** after home loss to Iraq (SHENZHEN, 2011)

Here dimmed refers to the fact that China's qualifying hopes for the 2014 Brazil World Cup **became remote** after a key home 1-0 loss to Iraq on Tuesday.

1.6 Carnival **cools nerves?** (Amy Tennery, 2014)

As the festivities begin, **there's hope for some rest in the Venezuelan unrest.**

1.7 China's vehicles exports **topped** the one-million mark for the first time in 2012 (LI FANGFANG, 2013)

Car exports from China **surpassed** one million for the first time in 2012.

2. Nouns as verbs.

2.1 Auto maker **eyes** Europe. (South America)

Auto maker looks well to Europe.

2.2 Could Earth's Population **Peak** in 2050? (Henry Grabar, 2013)

Could the population on the earth become the largest in 2050?

2.3 E. coli-Produced Diesel Could **Power** Cars (Jason Koebler, 2013)

Coli-produced diesel could provide power for cars.

2.4 Beauty queen will **charm** the masses — of snakes (Molly Hennessy-Fiske, 2013)

Here Los Angeles Times published the title to show that the most beautiful woman will attract the audiences who watch the rattlesnakes show.

2.5 Snooty Hamptons club **rage** over proposed new members (New York Post, 2013)

The members of Snooty Hamptons club **are furious** over the new members proposed.

2.6 China to **cap** pollutant emissions in 6 industries (Xinhua, 2013)

Here cap means to limit the top of pollutant emissions.

2.7 New leaders **target** environment (He Na, Wu Wencong and Tang Yue 2013)

New leaders set the target to protect environment.

2.8 African competition **heats** up (Li Jiabao, 2013)

Here Africa competes not only with western countries but also with their fellow Chinese.

2.9 Latest government curbs **hammer** property stocks

Latest government curbs on real estate make the stock markets fall sharply.

2.10 FDI increase **ends** 8-month run of declines (Li Jiabao, 2013)

FDI increase **finishes** 8-month run of declines

2.11 Premier **maps out** tasks for cabinet

The Premier makes out the blueprints for the tasks for the cabinet.

2.12 Electric car consortium **inks** bus deal with Poland (Li Fangfang, 2013)

Chinese electric car consortium has **signed agreements** with Poland to help develop an electric bus network.

2.13 China's banks **finance** more small companies (Xinhua, 2013)

Banks in China **gave more loans to** small and micro-sized enterprises.

2.14 Shale gas to **spark** equipment boom (DU JUAN, 2013)

The development of shale gas can **bring opportunities** for business to the related industry to manufacture equipment.

2.15 US **backs** Syrian opposition move to open talks with Assad.

US supports Syrian opposition move to open talks with Assad.

2.16 CSRC to **ease** regulations for QDII applicants (Wu Yiyao, 2013)

The CSRC **lowers the requirements** for applicants for QDII.

2.17 Children **toy with new forms of leisure** (Shen Jingting, Chen Limin and Gao Yuan, 2013)

Nowadays school children use an iPad or a computer or a mobile phone to play net games as a new form of leisure instead of traditional toys.

2.18 Todd English snapped **partying** in hot tub with topless babes (Stephanie Smith, 2014)

An English man hugged three half-naked women at a hotel **party**, which is pictured.

3. Adverbs as verbs

3.1 China's farm produces prices **down** (Xinhua, 2013)

Farm produce prices in China **have gone down**.

3.2 Japan **ups** stakes in islands dispute (ZHOU WA, 2013)

Japan elevates the territorial dispute with China on Diaoyu Islands.

3.3 China's January exports **up** 25%, imports up 28.8% (Xinhua, 2013)

China's foreign trade in January **increases by** 25% in exports and 28.8% in imports.

3.4 CNOOC's 2012 profits **down** 9.3% (Xinhua, 2013)

China's largest offshore oil producer, the China National Offshore Oil Corporation Limited **decreased by** 9.3 percent.

3.5 Student who **outed** Belle Knox has \$1K-a-month porn habit (Jeane MacIntosh, 2014)

The student who **triumphed over** Belle Knox has \$1K-a-month porn habit.

4. Adjectives as nouns

4.1 Iraq allowed to play **friendlies** at home, says FIFA (ZURICH Agencies, 2013)

Iraq is to be permitted to **play friendly matches** at home.

4.2 **Rich** find spirit of generous giving

It is very generous of **China's rich people** to donate large sum of money to the charity.

4.3 **Chronically ill** facing high drugs costs under U.S. health law (David Morgan, 2014)

The chronically ill patients are facing high drugs under U.S. health law.

4.3 Shanghai car plate auction hits **new highs** (SHI YINGYING, 2013)

The cost of a car license plate has reached highest.

4.4 Median sale price of homes in Washington, D.C., hits **record high** (Kathy Orton, 2013)

Here Washington Post published the title to show that the median price of a home in Washington, D.C. **reached highest** in history.

5. Verbs as adjectives

Crackdown on **pretend Kobe beef** (Wang Zhenghua, 2013)

The law is to strictly ban the imports of **beef produced in areas affected by mad cow disease**.

6. Adjectives used as adverbs

China's farm produce prices rise **slower** (Xinhua, 2013)

Farm produce prices **rose more slowly** in China.

7. Nouns used as attributives

7.1 **Paid sick day protection** gains steam across the U.S. (Claire Zillman, 2014)

To protect workers from going to work sick, people claim the workers get paid on sick days when they ask for leave.

7.2 U.S. expands access to healthy foods for **low-income women and children** (Katie McDonough, 2014)

The United States of America expands access to healthy foods for women and children who have low incomes.

7.3 **A nuclear weapons strategy** that's stuck in the past (Rachel Maddow, 2014)

A strategy for nuclear weapons was stuck in the past.

7.4 Basquiat sale goes on despite **'fakes' suit** (Mara Siegler, 2014)

In spite of claiming of fakes, Jean-Michel Basquiat sale continues without any huge obstacles.

D. Omission

To emphasize the vitals and save time and space, some minors can be omitted. For example.

1. The omission of modifying words

1.1 **Women-only adverts** are illegal, Muslim schools told (Ruth Gledhill Religion Correspondent of The Times, 2014)

Here women-only adverts means **adverts that the schools want only female staff**.

1.2 **Queens teacher's** cellphone code 'for sex' with student (Jamie Schram, 2013)

Here **Queens teacher** refers to **Teacher Daniel Reilly yesterday outside Queens court**.

2. Omission of prepositions

1.1 Top Chefs **Talk Healthy Eating** (U.S. News Staff, 2013)

Top chefs Mike Isabella, Spike Mendelsohn and Art Smith **argue over important health and food issues**

3. Omission of articles

3.1 Making government more efficient and innovative will be **key target**

Making government more efficient and innovative will be **the key target**.

3.2 Woman and museum both fight for stolen Renoir found at **flea market** (Iran shapira, 2013)

The woman and the museum both fight for stolen Renoir found at the **flea market**.

3.3 No surprise if North Korea fights **missile**

It is no surprise if North Korea fights **a nuclear missile war**

4. Omission of linking verbs

4.1 Rehtaeh Parsons Suicide: Justice Minister **Revisiting** Alleged Rape Case

Rehtaeh Parsons Suicide: Justice Minister **Is Revisiting** Alleged Rape Case

4.2 Chinese investors **confident** in stock market

Chinese investors **are confident** in stock market

4.3 Air pollution **'more frightening than SARS virus'** (Li Wenfang, 2013)

Air pollution is **more frightening than SARS** because no one can escape it.

4.4 Li **winning** world recognition (Sun Xiaochen, 2013)

Li has been **winning** world recognition

4.5 Train tickets **in short supply** (Wang Xiaodong, 2013)

Train tickets **are in short supply**.

5. Omission of nouns

5.1 **18** suffer food poisoning in Central China (Xinhua, 2013)

Eighteen people suffered food poisoning in Central China.

5.2 Man's lifelong affection for his wife moves **millions** on the Web

Man's lifelong affection for his wife moves millions of people.

5.3 **20,000** support Mont. teacher fired for pregnancy (John S. Adams, 2014)

Catholic school fired unmarried woman after Helena diocese received anonymous letter. Over **20,000 people** throughout the USA protested the decision to dismiss a middle school teacher who is unmarried but pregnant. They supported and took pity on her.

6. Omission of subjects, predicates and prepositions

6.1 **Opportunities, not threats** (Wu Jiao, Zhao Shengnan and Qin Zhongwei, 2013)

China's development creates opportunities instead of threats, President Xi Jinping said on Saturday.

6.2 **Increased salary expectations** (Gao Yuan, 2013)

Job-hoppers can expect income increase of 15 to 20%

6.3 **Enough already!** More snow to sock NYC (Natalie O'Neill, 2014)

There's snow end to this weather! March will roar into New York and drop up to 10 inches of snow starting Sunday night and into Monday.

From the third sentence we can see that enough already here means **there has been already enough snow or it has already snowed enough** now.

6.4 **Today Crimea, tomorrow... us?** (William Cook, 2014)

The title here means **If today Russia invades Crimea, will it invade us tomorrow ?**

E. Rhetoric

Rhetoric is used in the titles of newspaper English to give the impression of vividness and imagination. Pun, metaphor, metonymy, and especially personification are widely used in titles of newspaper English. For example.

1. Lone female student leaves 29 broken hearts (Chinadaily, 2013)

The only female student who majors in mining at a university in Wuhan has applied for a transfer, and all the other 29 male classmates asked her to stay. Here the word leaves is **a pun meaning that the lone female student says good-bye to her classmates and her departure makes her 29 classmates heart-broken.** (pun)

2. Islands are root of tension (ZHANG YUNBI, 2013)

The Diaoyu Islands are the origin of tension in the relationship between China and Japan. Here **the origin of the tension is compared to root.** (metaphor)

3. Who rocked the best CPAC speech: Christie, Cruz, Ryan or Trump? (Robin Abcarian, 2014)

At the Annual Conservative Political Action Conference in National Harbor, Md., on Thursday, New Jersey Gov. Chris Christie came to woo conservative activists on the first day of the three-day event. Some opened their speeches with jokes; others got right down to business. Here rocked is used to mean "delivered the speech as good as possible as they performed a rock'n'd roll" (metaphor)

4 potential killers lurk as bull market hits 5 (Adam Shell, 2014)

Wall Street bull is only sixth bull in post-war era to reach its fifth birthday. Despite skeptics saying it couldn't last, bull's 177% gain ranks fifth all-time. Investors are on the lookout for warning flags that could spell an end to the rally by **4 potential risks.** (metaphor)

4 The inside story of how the White House learned to love the minimum wage (Zachary Goldfarb, 2014)

President Obama now favors a \$10.10 an hour minimum wage, but his advisers initially worried about going that high. Here the White House is used to refer to the US president. (metonymy)

5. Health-care law uncertainty grips Old Town Alexandria cafe — and other small businesses (J.D. Harrison, 2013)

The uncertainty of health-care law limits the development and prosperity of the old town Alexandria café and other small business. The Washington Post published the title to use grip to personify the result by the uncertainty of health-care law. (personification)

6. Bird flu fears see stocks hit lowest level in 2013 (Xie Yu in Shanghai, 2013)

Because of the scare of the bird flu, Chinese stocks reached the lowest points in 2013. (personification)

7. US job figures set alarm bells ringing (personification)

8. Ukraine kicks up its heels in China (Chen Nan, 2013)

Ukrainian musicians, dancers and artists will show all kinds of performances to Chinese audiences to celebrate the 20th anniversary of Sino-Ukrainian diplomatic relations. (personification)

9. Investment breathes life into developing economies (Cecily Liu, 2013)

Those farmers (in Tanzania) couldn't afford any mechanism in the past because western equipment was too expensive but they now buy Chinese tractors. (personification)

10. Brush captures enduring love (Xu Junqian in Shanghai, 2013)

The old retired military man who is 91 shows his 18 hand-painted albums of drawings of his wife in the past four years to the audiences to express his warm and sincere love to her. (personification)

11. Beijing blanketed by spring snow

Beijing was covered with heavy white spring snow. (personification)

12. New securities regulator **installed amid haze and hope** (Xinhua, 2013) New securities regulator brings both hope and disappointment to the investors. (personification)

13. Malaria Climbs Mountains as the Climate Warms (By Bryan Walsh, 2014)

Climate change will **expand the range of mosquitoes that transmit malaria**. (personification)

14. The world's busiest deceased leader (Nick Miroff, 2014)

Venezuela president Hugo Chávez died a year ago. Now the people are busiest with activities to commemorate the anniversary of his death. (personification)

15. Hotter than Ibiza: Sun-kissed Britain set to enjoy a warm weekend as spring arrives with a blaze of clour (Kieran Corcoran, 2014)

Areas in southern England set for warmest temperatures this year - with 18C predicted for London. (personification)

16. Smart pedestrian crossings for London in pioneering new scheme (Matthew Beard, Transport Editor of London Evening Standard, 2014)

Traffic lights will be re-phased to give priority to pedestrians at busy junctions and enable crowds to clear to avoid people spilling onto the street. (personification)

17. Drivers hit as flood shuts road (Catriona Stewart, Columnist/reporter, 2014)

DRIVERS were hit by early morning delays after flooding closed a road in the north of Glasgow. (personification)

F. Borrowing Words

Words of foreign language have come into the English language. The United States of America is a melting pot, so is the English language. Foreign cultures have to some degree melted into America with the further communications with countries all over the world. Therefore the English language is getting richer and richer, more and more energetic. For example.

1. Judo (London, 2012)

Judo is a sport in which two people fight with hands and try to throw each other to the ground. It is originated in Japan and has become a popular sport that can be contested in Olympic game.

2. Shrine offers sanctuary to Abe's politics as PM kowtows to right-wingers (Xinhua, 2014)

The People's Daily, the flagship newspaper of the Communist Party of China, on Saturday carried a commentary accusing Japanese Prime Minister Shinzo Abe of using the Yasukuni Shrine as a spiritual sanctuary for his right-wing politics.

3. Gaokao gets accepted by overseas universities (Jin Zhu and Li Xiang, 2014)

Gaokao is **the national college entrance exam** in China. If a middle school student wants to go to college or university, he or she has to pass the exam. And now more and more overseas universities accept the exam's scores.

4. Zhangjiagang recruits volunteers as chengguan (chinadaily, 2014)

Zhangjiagang Urban Management Bureau is recruiting volunteers to be **urban management officers** in the city in Jiangsu province and will found the urban management volunteer association to call on citizens to join in urban management work to build a better home.

5. Yunnan groups participate in Singapore River Hongbao gala (Guo Anfei and Li Yingqing, 2014)

Hongbao is a Chinese Spring Festival tradition that a piece of red paper wrapped with money in it as a gift.

6. Honda names first foreigner, female to top management (Agencies, 2014)

Honda is famous Japan's motor brand. The cars produced in Motor Company have been sold well all over the world. Now the company appoints the first female foreigner to be a member of the top management.

G. Buzzwords

With the growing popularity of the internet, people tend to use the words that frequently appear in the net. This kind of words is very common and popular but sometimes they are inlaid with new meanings. For example

1. Woman gets an IOU as a wedding gift (Hou Liqiang, 2014)

A woman referred to as Xiao Yu in Hangzhou, Zhejiang province, recently received a red envelope containing an IOU note from one of her five university roommates.

Here IOU means I Owe You. The word is used to intensify the meaning that the man is very grateful for the love the woman has offered him.

2. Hot girls at Geneva Motor Show 2014 (Hao Yan, 2014)

Here the hot of hot girls perhaps comes from hot topics. But the word hot here has a new meaning that is to describe **the show girl who is most beautiful and fashionable**.

3. Beijing's Credibility Deficit (The Wall Street Journal, 2014)

In modern society money is everything, so people like to talk about thing related to money and some words connected with money have become more widely used. Deficit in the past was only used to refer to the amount of money that is too small or smaller than something else. China is targeting growth of about 7.5% in 2014, unchanged from last year as the government tempers expectations for an economy transitioning to a more sustainable model. Here Beijing's Credibility **Deficit** means **whether the targeting growth of 7.5% can be achieved or not is still doubted**.

4. Belle Knox: How the porn star student from Duke University became **bigger** than Justin Bieber (Jenn Selby, Author Biography, 2014)

Here bigger is not used to refer to somebody whose composition is bigger than others but to mean that the porn star student is **more successful and well-known and more searched for and clicked in the internet**.

III. CONCLUSION

Titles of English newspapers play an extremely important role in sales and popularity of the newspaper. If the newspaper is to be the best and the most competitive seller, its titles must be original to be popular with people of all walks of life whether they be female or male, young or old, black or white. How to use the English language skillfully and appropriately in the titles of the newspaper to appeal to readers is a kind of art, the mastery of which will help contribute greatly to the success of the newspaper.

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To What Extent the Meaning of Different Types of Ironies in *King Lear* is Translated and Transferred into Persian by Beh Azin (2012) and Peyman (2002)

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Abstract—Translation has always been a way of communication among different cultures and plays a key role in transferring ideas, information, social and cultural aspects of the source language into target languages and its impact on various aspects of human life is undeniable. There are various theories, strategies, methods, and different types of translation in order to achieve an appropriate translation product. The aim of this study was to know how different types of ironies in Shakespeare's *King Lear* are translated into Persian and which ironies remain untranslated. In order to achieve this aim, different types of irony have been chosen as the unit of translation. The corpus of the study as mentioned above, is a tragic play entitled, *King Lear*, written by William Shakespeare and its Persian translations by Beh Azin and Peyman.

Index Terms—translation, culture, irony, *King Lear*

I. INTRODUCTION

Translation has always been a way of communication among different cultures and plays a key role in transferring ideas, information, social and cultural aspects of the source language into target languages and its impact on various aspects of human life is undeniable.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. What is Translation?

Dostert (1955, p. 124) says translation is “the transference of meaning from one patterned set of symbols occurring in a given culture... into another set of patterned symbols in another culture...” In Larson's (1984, p. 431) view in the process of translation all meaning is culturally conditioned and the response to a given text is also culturally conditioned. Each society

B. What is Culture?

Goodenough (1964, p.167) believes that “A society's culture consists of whatever it is one has to know or believes in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members, and to do so in any role that they accept anyone of themselves.”

C. What is Irony?

There are different definitions for “Irony” and different scholars have worked on the concept of irony from different points of view. Therefore, giving an exact and comprehensive definition of irony is not a straightforward activity. Some of these definitions are as follow;

Muecke (1969, p.7) believes that the concept of irony is vague, unstable and multiform. The word ‘irony’ does not now mean only what it meant in earlier centuries, it does not mean in one country what it meant in another, nor to one scholar what it may meant to another.

Based on the classical definition of irony, Cutler (1974, p.117), in her article “On Saying What You Mean without Meaning What You Say,” considers that an ironic utterance expresses a conveyed meaning which is the “opposite,” “converse” or “reverse” of its literal meaning. She also states that the speaker produces this kind of utterance “by superimposing a certain intonation contour which signals to his hearers that the utterance is intended to be ironic.”

Irony is, in Linda Hutcheon's words, “the mode of the unsaid, the unheard, [and] the unseen” (1994, p.9).

Corbett & Connors (1999, p. 379) categorizing irony as a trope means that irony is a form of figurative language that includes “a deviation from the ordinary and principal signification” of an utterance.

D. The Elements of Irony

In his entry on irony, Abrams (1985, pp. 97-100) defines nine categories and subcategories of irony--verbal, structural, stable and unstable, Socratic, dramatic, tragic, cosmic, and Romantic--along with comments upon several related terms (sarcasm, invective, and so on).

Cutler (1974, p. 119) makes a distinction between "spontaneous" and "provoked" irony. In the former, "the speaker is expressing 'what he/she means' with no reference to previous context or conversation". The utterances belonging to the spontaneous category must be approbatory in the literal reading. On the other hand, in a "provoked irony", the speaker "repeats back to his audience something which the audience has previously said or held, with the ironic intonation indicating that the previous claim has turned out to be wrong". Cutler states that a "provoked irony" also meets the "Approbation Condition."

E. Three Types of Irony

Irony is a literary term underlying different definitions and various categories by scholars from Socrates era up to nowadays. Among the types of irony, this paper will focus on three of them: verbal irony, dramatic irony which is the most predominant in Shakespeare's *King Lear* according to the present research, and irony of situation, as described below.

a. Verbal Irony:

Abrams (1985, p. 97) argued that verbal irony (which was traditionally classified as one of the tropes) is a statement in which the meaning that a speaker implies differs sharply from the meaning that is ostensibly expressed. The ironic statement usually involves the explicit expression of one attitude or evaluation, but with indications in the overall speech-situation that the speaker intends a very different, and often opposite, attitude or evaluation.

b. Dramatic Irony:

In Abrams' (1985, p. 99) view dramatic irony involves a situation in a play or narrative in which the audience or reader shares with the author knowledge of present or future circumstances of which a character is ignorant; in that situation, the character unknowingly acts in a way we recognize to be grossly inappropriate to the actual circumstances, or expects the opposite of what we know that fate holds in store, or says something that anticipates the actual outcome, but not at all in the way that the character intends.

c. Situational Irony:

Irony of situation is a discrepancy between the expected result and actual results. It deals with the unexpected and the incoherent situations. This situational irony is embedded in an environment where the universe seems to be against you, in other words, when the unexpected happens. (Izaias, 2011)

III. METHODOLOGY

By considering the kind of research, the present study utilizes the descriptive nature and qualitative type, comparing Shakespeare's *King Lear* (20th century, 1998, Collins Edition) ironies to its Persian translations by Beh Azin (2012) and Peyman (2002).

For this purpose and doing it properly, the researcher was interested in and familiar to '*King Lear* play' and studying it over and over to find the different types of irony as a word, a phrase, a sentence, a whole scene or act and generally everything that convey the ironic sense in the play and then decided to do the work in the way that she can determine which ironies are translated by the two selected translators and to see whether the translations have been able to convey the ironic meaning of those different types or not. Or to find missing ironies in target texts or mistranslation of them to the extent in which the source text meanings are not conveyed as the writer intended to do. It should be mentioned that this play has been translated into Persian by many of Persian translators.

The researcher had studied the play from the very beginning and whenever she find an irony of each type as previously said, will compare it to its translation in both selected versions to find out whether they are translated adaptably or mistranslated or even denied in the process of translation.

1. Procedure and Data Analysis

In the present study, since the aim of research is to deal with the source text ironies and their equivalence in target text, the unit of translation is considered to be different types of irony in both the original work of "*King Lear*" and its equivalent in Persian translations from Beh Azin (2012) and Peyman (2002).

The aim of the procedure is to see whether the ironies of the original text are translated into Persian due to cultural differences between source text and target text by the two translators.

Further, it will be investigated whether there is any deletion or addition of ironies of "*King Lear*" in both translations. In order to do that, there will be accurate explanations of some kinds of ironies which are not directly mentioned and should be inferring from the situation or chain of events in the play. There would be also tables to provide useful information for the readers. Each table will followed by a comment on types of ironies and an analysis of two types of translations to show the ability of the two Persian translators namely, Beh Azin and Peyman in conveying ironies from the source text as much as possible according to translation types they applied. This procedure of data analysis is shown in the following attached sample. The frequency and percentage will be shown in a diagram.

At the end, a conclusion is drawn based on the purpose of the study.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Here we will provide a small number of examples, taken from Shakespeare's *King Lear* to illustrate the translation of irony into Persian more operationally. The following examples will be discussed, mainly on the basis of three types (verbal irony, dramatic irony, and situational irony) category.

Source text:

Lear.

Meantime we shall express our darker purpose. (p.11)

لیر اینک، بر آنیم که نیت نهفته مان را آشکار کنیم. (به آذین ص.10)

لیر-هم اکنون می خواهیم مقاصد نهانی تر خویش را ابراز کنیم. (پیمان ص.93)

Here the word "darker" is used ironically. On the surface, it means "hidden" and "unspoken". However, Lear's "hidden" purpose is actually "dark", i.e. horrible and gloomy, since it will lead to his downfall and death. The audience, unlike Lear himself, knows about the "darkness" that will follow Lear's decision to divide his kingdom. Shakespeare conveys his dramatic irony through a verbal irony. In none of the two translations the irony involved in word "darker" has been transferred. They both change the literal meaning of "darker" in order to create a more natural Persian equivalent.

Source text:

[Enter Edgar]

Pat!- he comes, like the catastrophe of the old comedy: my cue is villainous melancholy, with a sigh like Tom o' Bedlam, (p.29)

(ادگار وارد می شود)

درست به موقع می آید، مانند حادثه ناگهانی در پایان بندی نمایش های قدیم. حالتی که به خود می گیرم باید نشانگر اندوهی جانگزا باشد با آهی ... (ص.24 جگرسوز. (به آذین

(ادگار وارد می شود)

هم اکنون او بسان بلایی در یک کمدی نیمه تمام وارد می شود: دنباله سخن من باید افسردگی شدیدی توأم با آهی همچون آن درپوزه دیوانه خانه باشد، (ص.115) (پیمان

In this sample;

- The word catastrophe signifies the conclusion of a play, referring to predictable comedies which resolve the dramatic conflict in the nick of time. Ironically, at the end of the play, Edgar enters upon Edmund as a catastrophe and puts an end to his villainous acts. The Audience knows this, but Edmund does not.

- Tom o' Bedlam had been a madman from Bethlehem (Bedlam) Hospital, this ironically shows Edgar will later take on this disguise and singing to himself could be a sign of this madness. Despite difference in wording, both Beh Azin and Peyman convey the irony involved in the English text in the same way.

Source text:

Fool.

Shalt see thy other daughter will use thee kindly; for though she's as like This as a crab's like an apple, yet I can tell what I can tell. (p.50)

دلّک -خواهی دید، آن دختر دیگرت با تو به مهربانی رفتار خواهد کرد؛ چون، هرچند به این یکی همان قدر شبیه است که سیب جنگلی به سیب خوراکی، ولی من آنچه را که می توانم بگویم باید بگویم. (به آذین ص.42)

دلّک- خواهی دید که دختر دیگرت نیز با تو به مهربانی رفتار خواهد کرد زیرا اگر چه او با این یکی آنچنانکه یک سیب معمولی با یک سیب صحرایی شباهت دارد همانند است با وجود این من از بیان آنچه قدرت تشخیص را دارم عاجز نمی مانم. (پیمان ص.139)

Fool by using "this" compares Regan to her sister Goneril; although the two sisters don't look alike, they will "taste" alike.

Kindly has two meanings here; 1) with compassion; 2) according to her kind. Her kind is the same as her sister's and it is metal (steel). It means that Regan will treat you just as hardly as Goneril.

Only Peyman conveys the Irony. He has added the word "نیز" and conveys the double meaning in the word "kindly".

Source text:

Lear.

Beloved Regan,

Thy sister's naught: O Regan, she hath tied Sharp-tooth'd unkindness, like a vulture, here,--[Points to his heart.] I can scarce speak to thee; thou'lt not believe With how deprav'd a quality--O Regan! (p.75)

لیر ریگان عزیزم، خواهرت به مفت نمی ارزد. آخ، ریگان، او مانند کرکس دندان های تیز نامهربانی اش را به اینجا فرو کرد. [به قلب خود اشاره می کند.] به زحمت توان گفتش را دارم. باور نخواهی کرد با چه خصلت و خوی تباهی... آخ، ریگان! (به آذین ص.62)

لیر- ریگان محبوب، خواهرت پوچ و بی ارزش است. او، ریگان، او بی مهری تیزدندان را به مانند لاشخوری اینجا به طعمه خواری بسته است (اشاره به قلبش می کند) من به دشواری می توانم با تو سخن بگویم باور نمی کنی که با چه وضع و رفتار فاسدی، او، ریگان! (پیمان ص.168)

It is ironic that the King has referred Goneril's cruel treatment of him to Regan. He should know that Regan is much crueller than Goneril. Also, he is unaware that Goneril has informed Regan of what had passed between her and Lear and has asked Regan to do the same. The audience knows what the king doesn't. Beh Azin's translation is too literal and slavish. For example, he translates the phrase "thou'lt not believe" as future tense, which is not common in Persian. Peyman's text is more smooth and natural. Since the irony is not verbal, both recreate it.

Source text:

Regan

O, sir, you are old;

Nature in you stands on the very verge Of her confine: you should be rul'd and led By some discretion, that discerns your state Better than you yourself. Therefore, I pray you, That to our sister you do make return; Say you have wrong'd her, sir. (p.76)

ریگان سرورم، شما پیرید؛ عمرتان درست در لبه مرز طبیعی اش قرار دارد. شما باید به دست شخصی بصیر که وضع تان را بهتر از خودتان بدانند رهبری و اداره شوید. از این رو، خواهش می کنم از شما که نزد خواهرم برگردید؛ بگویید که در حقش رفتاری ناروا داشته اید.

(به آذین ص.63)

ریگان- قربان، شما سالخورده گشته اید. زندگی شما به انتها حد خود رسیده است؛ بر شماست که خویشن را تحت ارشاد و دستورهای شخصی بصیر و خردمند که وضع شما را بهتر از خودتان دریابد قرار دهید. بنابراین از شما خواهش می کنم که نزد خواهرم بازگردید و به او بگویید که نسبت به او مرتکب اشتباه شده اید. (پیمان صص.169-168)

Regan, apparently out of pity, tells her father that Goneril knows his "state" better. The word state also means "government". Therefore, it is an ironic way of telling the King they are better rulers, and that he should be happy to be governed by his daughters. In Beh Azin, all the meanings surrounding the word "state" are present (رهبری و اداره), therefore the irony is there. In Peyman the irony is lost. However, Peyman's language seems like an original text.

Source text:

Cornwall

I set him there, sir: but his own disorders Deserv'd much less advancement. (p.79)

کورنوال من خودم دستور دادم، سرورم. بی انضباطی اش سزاوار خیلی بدتر از این بود. (به آذین ص.65)

امیر کرنوال- من او را بخو زدم آقا، ولی نافرمانیهای او مستحق تنبیهی چنین شریف نبود. (پیمان ص.171)

Cornwall tells the King that Kent's rudeness "deserved much less advancement" (promotion). It is sarcastic, since Kent has not been promoted, he has been punished. Both Beh Azin and Peyman make changes to the ST to make better sense. However since they have mistranslated the word "advancement", the irony is lost in both.

Source text:

Gloucester

Because I would not see thy cruel nails Pluck out his poor old eyes; (p.110)

گلاوستر برای این که نمی خواستم ببینم ناخن های بی رحمت چشمان پیر بنوا را در می آورد، (به آذین ص.96)

امیر گلاوستر- برای اینکه نمی خواستم ببینم که چنگال ظلم و جور شما چشمان پیرمرد را درآورد. (پیمان ص.213)

- Cosmic irony: Regan captures Gloucester before he leaves for Dover to join Lear. When she asks him about the reason, Gloucester says that he is doing so because he doesn't want to see Regan pluck out the old man's eyes (i.e. Lear's eyes). His wish is fulfilled but ironically. He will not see anything, because he himself will be blinded.

- Irony of situation: Gloucester, who doesn't want to see Lear be blinded, will see Ragan and Cornwall blind himself.

In Beh Azin the translation is exact and the irony is there. In Peyman the word "Persian" has been replaces by only one of its meanings (rich), therefore the irony is lost. Since Persian also connotes "a far and alien land" and points to the "distance" between Lear and Edgar.

Source text:

Gloucester

O my follies! Then Edgar was abus'd.--Kind gods, forgive me that, and prosper him! (p.113)

گلاوستر وای بر من از حماقت هایم! پس، رفتارم با ادگار خطا بود. ای خدایان مهربان، از من این را درگذرید، او را برکت دهید!

(به آذین ص.98)

امیر گلاوستر- تف بر اشتباهاتم، پس با ادگار بدرفتاری شده- خدایان مهربان خطای مرا ببخشید و او را کامیاب و پیروز گردانید.

(پیمان ص.216)

Soon after being blinded, Gloucester finds out the truth about Edmund and Edgar. It is ironic that he could not see the truth when he had two healthy eyes, but sees the truth when he loses his eyes. In Beh Azin the TT follows the rules of Farsi, but in Peyman the TT unnatural and unsmooth. However, since the irony is situational, not verbal, both transfer the irony.

Source text:

Edgar

Know, my name is lost;

By treason's tooth bare-gnawn and canker-bit.

Yet am I noble as the adversary I come to cope. (p.163)

ادگار دانسته باش، نامم گم شده؛ دندان های خیانت آن را خاییده و خوره وار خورده. با این همه، من مانند حریفی که به جنگش آمده ام اصیل زاده ام.

(به آذین ص.141)

ادگار- بدانید که نام من از میان رفته و دندان خیانتکار کرم نا بکار جامه اسم و رسم مرا جویده و عریانم ساخته است و با وجود این به اندازه دشمنی که برای مبارزه او آمده ام شریفم. (پیمان ص.277)

Before starting his combat with Edmund, Edgar is asked by the Herald to introduce himself to the viewers. In response, Edgar says that he has lost his name (title), but he is as noble as the one he is challenging (Edmund).

-Irony of situation: It is ironic that Edgar, the legitimate heir to his father's title, should resort to Edmund's title and compare himself to him.

- Verbal irony: Edmund sarcastically says 'I am "noble as the adversary," since Edmund is not noble.

Beh Azin makes slight changes to the surface structure, but his meaning is more exact and his language is more natural. Both transfer the irony.

V. CONCLUSION

Beh Azin and Peyman and the Ironies

Beh Azin and Peyman have translated *King Lear* differently. The main difference between the two translations is in the units of translation they have chosen for different parts of the text. In most instances Beh Azin has chosen smaller units. He has tried to transfer all semantic and structural units and he has followed the surface structural of the TT in many places. It is usually possible to draw a one to one correspondence between the English words and their Persian equivalents in Beh Azin's translations. Accordingly Beh Azin's language is, in many places, so visibly a translation. He is usually unable to provide the ease and naturalness required for a dialogue and stage. Consequently, he is sometimes unable to recreate the emotional quality of the speeches and the tone of the speaker is eclipsed by ambiguity or artificiality of the language. Since the strength of the irony (especially in dramatic, cosmic and situational ironies) depends on the emotional quality of the speech and the tone of the speaker, the ironies in Beh Azin are sometimes weaker in quality. Although he is able to impart the irony in most of the instances, his ironies are lackluster. Beh Azin's emphasis on the meaning of distinct words makes him fit for verbal ironies (see samples 30 and 41).

The unit of translation is usually larger in Peyman. He tends to transfer not words but sentences and sometimes a whole dialogue. He usually disregards the exact dictionary meanings of the words and tries to create equivalent meanings and effects through manipulation of the structure. In many places his dialogues are either shorter or longer than the original and it is almost impossible to draw a one to one correspondence between the English words and the Persian ones. In many places his text looks like an original Persian text and the reader can enunciate parts of it with the ease and naturalness of a fluent Persian text. In other words, instead of translating the words literally, Peyman has tried to discover the exact effect of the speech acts in the context of their cultural and linguistic milieu and to create equivalent Persian speech acts. The act of translating the speech acts has resulted in radical changes in the dictionary meaning of the English words. Peyman's approach to translation is not usually fit for verbal ironies and other figures of speech (for example pun or equivocation) in which double or multiple meaning are worked out. Peyman's translation is fit for cosmic, dramatic and situational ironies where the tone of the speaker and the emotional effects of the speech act are effective. Thus, in cases where both Beh Azin and Peyman are able to transfer a non-verbal irony, the ironies in Peyman are usually stronger and more easily recognized by the reader. Peyman's emphasis on the emotional effect of the speech act makes the dialogues more dramatic and emotional, while Beh Azin's artificial language reduces the dramatic and emotional effect to a great degree.

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The Application of Autonomous Learning to Fostering Cross-cultural Communication Competence*

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Abstract—The significance of autonomous learning has been proved theoretically and practically both at home and abroad in recent years. We have also been putting great emphasis on the learner's autonomy in our college English teaching in order to encourage the students to actively participate in the learning process, but due to various reasons, the cultivation of cross-cultural competence, which has become a critical teaching objective has not been paid due attention during not only classroom lecturing but also after-class activities. Based on the questionnaire survey among the author's students on the status quo of cross-cultural teaching and learning, this paper proposes ways of autonomous learning that the students may adopt to improve their cross-cultural communication competence and the teacher's role as well.

Index Terms—autonomous learning, cross-cultural communication, College English teaching

Communication is the ultimate aim of language teaching, so we should attach unprecedentedly greater importance to the role of the learner or the communicator, which demands us to re-locate the roles of the teacher and student during the process of foreign language teaching in order to fully mobilize the student's enthusiasm and initiatives to get totally involved to shift our classroom teaching from a teacher-centered mode to a student-centered one to achieve the teaching goal mainly depending on learner's autonomy. From the long run, what is more significant is that the cultivation of autonomous learning can lay a sound and solid foundation for their post-school education and lifelong learning.

I. AUTONOMOUS LEARNING

Nowadays we have different ways of learning such as "self-education", "self-access", "self-instruction", "distance learning" and etc, all of which indicate the way that one takes to learn, yet different from the above the term autonomous learning, which is now a buzzword in the foreign language teaching field, mainly focuses on the ability or capacity that somebody has to control over or take charge of individual's learning.

Holec introduced the concept of "autonomous learning" in *Autonomy and Foreign Language Learning* in 1981, and he defined it from five aspects: (1) determining objectives, (2) defining content and progressions, (3) selecting methods and techniques to be used, (4) monitoring procedure of acquisition and (5) evaluating what has happened. According to Benson & Voller (1997), it should cover five elements when talking about autonomous learning: (1) for situations in which learners study entirely on their own, (2) for a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning, (3) for an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education, (4) for the exercise of learner's responsibility for their own learning and (5) for the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

After that, a great deal has been done to define what autonomous learning is. Dickinson (1987) argues "situation in which the learner is totally responsible for all of the decisions concerned with his/her learning and the implementation of these decisions". Some domestic scholars also conduct their research and give their understanding of this term. For example, Cheng Xiaotang defines it in the following way: (1) it is an intrinsic mechanism comprehensively formed by learner's attitude, aptitude and learning strategy, (2) it is the free choice of learner's objective, learning content, and learning methodology and material, and (3) it is a learning mode tailored to learner's need, in the mean time, directed and affected by the entire teaching objectives and teacher's guidance.

Although an accurate and widely accepted definition of autonomous learning has not been concluded by far, the common core components can be drawn from above: (1) generate one's own learning goal, (2) set one's own learning plan, (3) choose one's own learning methodology, (4) monitor one's own learning process, (5) self-evaluate one's own learning progression and (6) adjust one's learning strategy according to the evaluation. Autonomous learning is the way how one learns with a special concern of whether the learning is driven, controlled, assessed and managed by oneself. To be specific, if a student's learning motivation is self-driven, learning contents, materials and strategies are self-chosen, learning process is self-regulated, learning outcome is self-evaluated, we can say his/her learning is autonomous. Otherwise, if a students' learning motivation, learning contents, materials, strategies and etc. are mainly

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depending on other's guidance and regulation, then his/her learning is passive and non-autonomous.

II. CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION

Language is the carrier of and verbal expression of one certain culture and culture is the specific set of beliefs, ideas, customs and norms of a community with a distinct language, which means all the ways in which a group of people act, dress, think, feel and etc.

Cross-cultural communication, also frequently referred to as intercultural communication describes the ability to successfully form, foster, and improve relationships with members of a culture different from one's own. It is based on knowledge of many factors, such as the other culture's values, perceptions, manners, social structure, and decision-making practices, and an understanding of how members of the group communicate--verbally, non-verbally, in person, in writing, and in various business and social contexts, to name but a few. At the same time, cross-cultural communication is a field of study that looks at how people from differing cultural backgrounds communicate, in similar and different ways among themselves, and how they endeavor to communicate across cultures. In fact, simply speaking, it is the communication happened between a native speaker and a non-native speaker of a certain language, and from a broader sense, it can be the communication between speakers who have cultural differences no matter whether they are fellow countrymen or not. So we should always bear in mind of the cultural differences when communicating with non-native speakers for in the context of cross-cultural communication misunderstanding often happens resulted from ambiguous understanding of the target culture, and sometimes it may cause failure in communication because people from different cultural backgrounds are always encoding and decoding information differently based on their previously acquired communication patterns, increasing the chances of misunderstanding and failure.

But the reality is that with the globalization cross-cultural communication, which is becoming more and more popular and an inevitable exercise still remains a big challenge for many people. In order to meet the needs of the society, the cultivation of cross-cultural communication has been listed as one of the teaching objectives in *College English Curriculum Requirements 2007*, which stated "College English teaching should be a comprehensive teaching system of teaching mode and methodology, which is guided by foreign language teaching theories and takes English language knowledge, application techniques, cross-cultural communication competence and learning strategies as its main contents."

But what is cross-cultural communication competence? It is the ability or capacity of communicating with others who have cultural differences from you. According to Spitzberg, there are three issues that can be taken as the components of cross-culture communication competence: motivation, communication knowledge and skills. Motivation is defined as the process that initiates and guides goal-oriented behaviors which involves the biological, emotional, social and cognitive forces that activate behavior, or it can be simply used to describe why a person does something. So here, the motivation is the willingness to conduct cross-cultural communication. Spitzberg and Cupach (1984) propose that communication competence has two criteria: appropriateness and effectiveness. "Appropriateness" refers to whether the behaviors can be accepted or considered as proper in the target culture, and "effectiveness" refers to whether the communicators achieve their desired communicating result or to what degree they do that.

III. STATUS QUO OF CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION LEARNING

In order to get overall and objective understandings of the cross-cultural communication learning situation of non-English majors in our university, the author carries out a questionnaire survey among randomly selected 76 students of majors of civil engineering, applied physics, computing science and 70 of them return their questionnaire and feedback. The survey covers three parts: personal information, status quo of cross-cultural communication learning and application of cross-cultural communication knowledge.

The result shows that all the students think language and culture has a very close relationship and culture teaching will do good to their English language learning. 45.7% of the respondents assume that they do not have much knowledge of cross-cultural communication and much of their acquisition is something about geography and historical knowledge of those major English-speaking countries such as the USA, the UK, Canada and etc. 52.9% of them admit that their English teacher sometimes carries out culture teaching but much is done at the leading-in stage. 57.1% of them say English movies and the Internet are the two major resources of their cross-culture communication knowledge.

When it comes to the willingness of cross-cultural communication, only 21.4% of the respondents say that they feel relaxed and easy when communicating with foreigners while 65.7% of them say that they are nervous or very nervous and hardly can express themselves clearly and accurately. The main obstacles resulting in their unsuccessful communication mainly include their difficulty in understanding of the idioms, their small vocabulary and their nonstandard pronunciation.

In the application of cross-cultural communication knowledge, most of the students can understand the general etiquette, but it is hard for them to explain the reason behind the misunderstanding occurring in cross-cultural communication. For example, a Chinese girl Xiaorui and an American girl Anny are good friends who help each other a lot both in and after school. But Anny never invites Xiaorui to come to her home in spite of their passing by her home many times. Xiaorui asks Anny for help when the family makes a move, but it seems that Anny is impatient when

Xiaomei makes a phone call to her. This confuses Xiaorui, for in her mind, being good friends they should help each other. Many respondents argue that Anny does not take Xiaorui as her friend at all. In fact, the main reason is that we have different conception about friendship. To us, being good friends means we should help each other anytime, anywhere when possible, even at any price. On the contrary, western people attach great importance to privacy demanding making an appointment in advance no matter how close friends or relatives they are. These kinds of misunderstanding caused by cultural difference are very common in cross-cultural communication.

IV. AUTONOMOUS LEARNING STRATEGIES TO IMPROVE CROSS-CULTURAL COMMUNICATION COMPETENCE

1. Teacher's role

To implement autonomous learning does not simply diminish teacher's responsibilities; Wright (1987) thinks that the teachers' roles are multiple in autonomous learning situations. Transmitting language knowledge is the primary responsibility that a teacher should fulfill, but what is more critical to the teacher during the process of autonomous learning is to play more roles as facilitators, coordinators, organizers and assessors, which means during the process the teachers are supposed to identify the clear teaching goals of the course to the students, help the students to set their own goals, choose the learning content and strategy, select learning materials and evaluate their learning outcome. These kinds of intervention from the teacher can be classified as positive guidance. And there is other type of intervention which can be interpreted as prohibitive intervention which means the intervention from the teacher under some circumstances when the teacher finds there are some serious problems which may cause great barrier to his/her autonomous learning that the student is not aware of or is not willing to correct. For example, when the teacher finds one student does not pay full attention to his/her study and often cuts class, the teacher may take some proper actions like leaving appropriate level of difficulty assignment to him/her to bring him/her back on track. But comparatively speaking, this positive guidance should be the more preferable help that the teacher should offer especially at an early stage when the students feel at a loss not knowing what exactly should be done to implement autonomous learning.

To facilitate the students' autonomous learning, some adjustments also should be made to our existing way of course evaluation. Now, we mainly take the method of summative evaluation in our college English teaching at the end of each semester, which usually happens in a limited time and relies on scores to evaluate the students' learning outcome. In order to reduce the anxiety and nervousness caused by summative evaluation and guide the students to concentrate on the learning process rather the exam itself, formative evaluation should be adopted. This is a key step guiding the students to foster their autonomous learning.

The shift from a teacher-centered mode to a student-centered mode is not only a change of name but calls on more dedication from the teacher in order to encourage the students to take more control over their learning by themselves to play the most and best of their initiatives rather than sit in the classroom to listen to the teacher and take notes passively, which is always the situation we are experiencing every day.

2. Strategies for the students

Wenden (1998) concludes seven roles of autonomous learners in aspect of language learning: 1). Autonomous learners have insights into their learning styles and strategies; 2). Autonomous learners take an active approach to the learning task at hand; 3). Autonomous learners are willing to take risks, i.e. to communicate in the target language at all costs; 4). Autonomous learners are good guessers; 5). Autonomous learners attend to form as well as content, that is, place importance on accuracy as well as appropriateness; 6). Autonomous learners develop the target language into a separate reference system and are willing to revise and reject hypotheses and rules that do not apply; 7). Autonomous learners have a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language.

These are the typical and shared characteristics among the autonomous learners, and when it comes to the college students who implement this approach to improve their cross-cultural communication competence, the following suggestions may be taken into consideration.

1) Maintain strong learning motivations

In fact, whether having strong learning motivations is an important factor in determining a student's learning is autonomous or not; that is, if lacking intrinsic learning motivations, a student will not really take responsibilities for his/her learning. Only by generating strong motivations can a student consciously identify his/her learning needs, select his/her learning strategies and finally learn to learn. Pintrich argues that there are three types of motivational beliefs: (1) self-efficacy beliefs (that is, judgment of one's capabilities to do the academic tasks), (2) task value beliefs (that is, beliefs about the importance of, interest in, and value of the task), and (3) goal orientations (that is, whether the focus is on mastery and learning of the task, grades or extrinsic reasons for doing the task, or relative ability in relation to social comparisons with other students).

Self-efficacy is one's confidence of capability of doing something. In practice, a student should have confidence in accomplishing the teaching goals of our cross-cultural communication course through his/her own hard work, the teacher's guidance and peer support. Students of high self-efficacy are more likely to have better academic performance than those of comparatively low self-efficacy for the better planning, monitoring, assessing and adjusting.

Eccles (1983) has proposed the three components of task value: the individual's perception of the importance of the task, their personal interest in the task, and their perception of the utility value of the task for future goals. When it comes to the cross-cultural communication competence, the student should have a full and adequate understanding of

the importance of cross-cultural competence as a qualified citizen of the times of globalization. From a utilitarian perspective, the cross-cultural competence can be useful for them immediately (e.g., it can help them to freely communicate with the foreign teachers and students) or in the future (e.g., being competent in cross-cultural communication may help them to find a better job).

2) Set individual goals according to one's own situation

At this stage, the first thing for the teacher to do is to clearly explain the teaching goals of the course to the students, for the explicit teaching goals can set a sound foundation for the students to select their own goals and content. As is known, most of the students are driven to learn by their parents and the teachers before they enter college, and the result of this long term situation is that many of the students cannot effectively manage their learning depending on themselves, which attaches great importance to the teacher's guidance to change their learning concept, take charge of their learning and eventually achieve autonomous learning. So, based on the teaching goals of the course, the teacher should help the students to identify their individual learning expectations through discussion, questionnaire, quiz and other possible ways.

Then the students should set their individual learning goals after each one has an objective understanding of his/her own level. But here the learning goals can be divided into two categories: long-term goals and short-term goals. Long-term goals refer to those that can only be achieved or accomplished after a comparatively long time of effort such as semester goals, curriculum goals and academic goals, while short-term goals are those that are set up for some specific time or unit. When setting the long-term goals or the short-term goals, the students should be reminded of the level of goal difficulty, that is, the goals should be moderate or somewhat challenging which means in order to achieve the goals he or she has to take some effort. If the student can accomplish the goals without too much effort, the goals fall into being so easy that the driving force of autonomous learning will not last for a longer time, and thus autonomous learning cannot be implemented. On the other hand, if the goals are obviously beyond a specific student's ability and too difficult to achieve, it would be impossible for the student to stick to the goals for a long time, because his/her effort turns out to be in vain no matter how hard he/she works. And this can be clearly shown in the following figure.

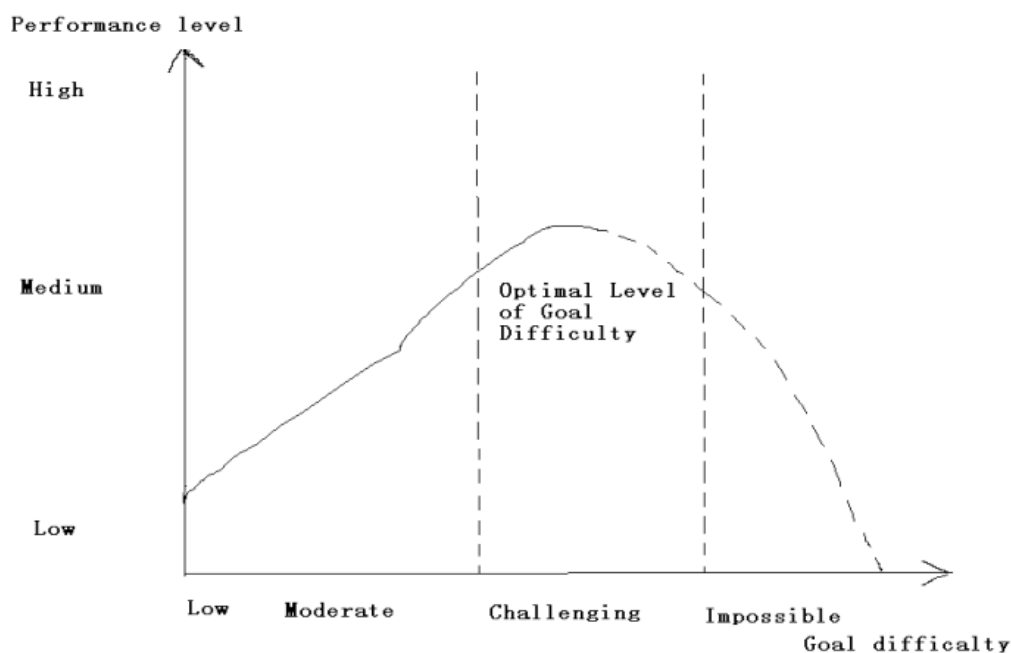


Figure 1 Effect of Goal Difficulty on Performance

3) Select preferred learning strategies

Learning strategies refer to those ideas or actions that help us to acquire new information or knowledge based on our acquired knowledge which can be displayed in different forms such as outlining, note-taking, summarizing, paraphrasing and etc. Weinstein (1987) concludes all the strategies into 5 categories that can be used in fostering autonomous learning: rehearsal strategies, elaborating strategies, organization strategies, comprehension monitoring strategies, and affective strategies.

In terms of individual's learning methods, it should be determined by comprehensive factors such as one's learning level, learning goals, and learning content as well, which means it is unimaginable to figure out a fixed and universal learning method favorable for each one, and at the same time, it is impossible for anyone to stick to one category of strategy from beginning to the end. Different components of cross-cultural communication competence call for different learning strategies: for the part of knowledge, it should be acquired mainly through learning either by reading, writing or reciting and etc; for the part of skill, it only can be acquired through practice; for the part of motivation, it should be

maintained and promoted through practice which means the situation when one puts his knowledge into practice and get the result he/she has imagined will help one keep high motivation.

4) Assess learning by oneself

In the long practice of assessment in our education from primary school to college, the full responsibility of assessing the students' learning and outcome mainly goes to the teacher which leaves almost no chance for the students to be involved in the assessment, and among the assessment tools, test with scores is the most widely used one which results in a side-effect of the situation of most students' and their parents' focus only on the score itself and paying insufficient attention to the teacher's feedback either orally or written. Different from our traditional method, self-assessment is a critical procedure during the process of autonomous learning which requires the students themselves to be more involved and play a more significant role in assessing their learning and outcome by implementing appropriate methodologies and using the learning goals that they have set before against which to decide whether their learning has achieved certain goals or not. The most significant point of self-assessment lies in not the constant reminding the students of taking control of their own learning but providing the students with the platform of meeting with the different, diverse and characterized learning needs of different individuals.

The most reliable and practical ways that can be taken are setting up one's own portfolios and self-examination. Setting up one's portfolios means one should consciously collect all the possible records such as documents, videos, pictures and information and etc. that have been used or taken during a period of time. These longitudinally collected documents can provide a clear and vivid picture of how much progress one has made and by reviewing these records one can clearly be aware of where he/she is and how much effort he/she should take to accomplish the set goals. This can be more effective when it is applied to improve one's communication skills, while self-examination is more suitable in acquiring the knowledge of cross-cultural communication. The mastery of language knowledge, foreign customs and taboos and so on can be better and easily measured by examination.

5) Modify existing learning strategies according to the self-assessment

The ultimate goal of assessment is to find out whether the existing learning strategies work well. In order to better serve the learning goals, the students should seriously take the result, feedback and information gathered from the self-assessment, and must be ready to make any modification to the existing strategies if needed. After the modification, one cycle of the learning process is formed and it repeats again.

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The Comparison of Language Learning Strategies and Reading Comprehension of Iranian EFL Students Taking Web-based and Face-to-face Instruction

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Abstract—This study investigated language learning strategies used by EFL web-based learners and face-to-face learners. It also examined the difference between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students who were exposed to web-based and face-to-face instruction. The participants of the study were 200 Iranian EFL university students. They were randomly assigned into two groups, 100 students in one group taking web-based instruction and 100 students in the other group taking face-to-face instruction. The students took a 50-item translated version of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning and a test of reading comprehension. This scale and the reading comprehension test were given as the pre-test and post-test to all students. During the treatment, summarization-strategy training was used to promote the learning process. The result of an independent samples t-tests revealed that there was no significant difference between the two groups of learners regarding their preferences for language learning strategies. Moreover, the result of a paired samples t-test indicated that there was significant difference between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students who were exposed to face-to-face instruction. However, there was no significant difference between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students who were exposed to web-based instruction.

Index Terms—language learning strategies, reading comprehension test, web-based instruction, face-to-face instruction

I. INTRODUCTION

During the past several years, computers and new technologies have become widespread in society. Accordingly, the number of people using computers and computer software daily for recreational, educational, and vocational purposes has increased, and knowing how to use computers has become a basic and indispensable skill. Perhaps one area of society that is noticeably influenced by computer technology is education, specifically in educational systems, students need to be computer literate in order to achieve success in a technologically-advanced society (Seyyedrezaie, Ghapanchi, & Seyyedrezaie, 2013).

For understanding the effect of technology on education, formal education should be taken into account. In the formal education, there are some factors including systematic instruction, teaching, and training by professional teachers. In such known traditional form of education, teachers apply many different techniques for their teaching. Recently, online education is gaining popularity as an effective medium. "Online learning which is sometimes called WBI uses the attributes and resources of the World Wide Web to create a meaningful learning environment where learning is fostered and supported" (Khan, 1997, p. 6). Web-based instruction is a home-based learning and often emphasizes the value of distance learning and communication among the learners and their peers. The ways learners learn, remember, and process information has become the main concern of researchers in recent years. Most of the recent studies claim that technology is an increasingly influential factor which changes the face of the education (Khan, 1997; Lam, 2009). The teachers of e-learning seek guidance on pedagogical aspects of teaching, learner-focused and learning activities, and learning contexts which are provided with electronic technologies (Beethman, 2003).

In the case of language learning strategies, Littlewood (1996) holds the view that, because there are a lot of information to be acquired in a course of study, learners usually apply some language learning strategies consciously or even unconsciously in order to perform the tasks and process the new input. The application of language learning strategies is an indispensable part of a language learner's development. "The term strategies in second language learning sense, has come to be applied to the conscious moves by second language speakers intended to be useful either in learning or using second language" (Cohen, 1998, p.1). Oxford and Nyikos (1989) mention that selection of suitable

language learning strategies makes learners to take responsibility for their own learning by increasing learner autonomy, independence, and necessary attributes for life-long learning.

Moreover, there are some basic factors including learners' goals, language proficiency, level of motivation, personality traits, and general learning styles which affect the selection and use of language learning strategies (Wenden & Rubin, 1987; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Regarding all the existing factors which influence language learning strategy use, it is considered that the educational system under which the learners develop L2 communicative abilities affects the choice and use of learning strategies.

In the investigation of the role of strategies, one of the areas that has attracted much of the attention of researchers is reading skill. Learners tend to apply a variety of strategies while reading in order to understand the text.

Some might consider summarization as a kind of reading strategies would be an effective strategy to smooth the progress of the cognitive process of comprehension. Summarization is an effective learning strategy that can give students a hand to construct and retain enough summary of important points of text (Kintsch & van Dijk, 1978, cited in Pakzadian, 2012).

In this respect, the purpose of the present study is to investigate whether there is any significant difference between post-test scores of web-based learners and face-to-face learners with regard to their preferences for language learning strategies, as well as whether there is any significant difference between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students who were exposed to web-based and face-to-face instruction.

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the following research questions were addressed.

1. Is there any significant difference between post-test scores of web-based learners and face-to-face learners with regard to their preferences for language learning strategies?

2. Is there any significant difference between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students who were exposed to web-based and face-to-face instruction?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Web-based and face to face instruction

Delivery of the education has changed throughout the history. Nowadays, there are two main delivery methods: face-to-face instruction and web-based instruction (Lam, 2009). In the industrial era, the main delivery method for instruction has been face-to-face (Lam, 2009). Olson and Wisner (2002) stated that in the traditional face-to-face method, the instructor can devote time to the learners, learners can interact with other learners and with the instructor, and immediate feedback is plausible. On the other hand, web-based instruction (WBI) is becoming a desirable training option in both industry and higher education. The term web-based education traces back to distance and virtual learning. Sampson (2003, cited in Adegbile & Oyekanmi, 2009) declared that today, the term distance education is mostly used to describe courses where most of the interactions between teachers and students take place electronically through audio, video, chat, e-mail, videoconferences or internet platforms. According to Clark (1994, cited in Luthans, Avey, Patera, 2008), the mere application of Web-based instruction has no real value with regard to learning outcomes. Nevertheless, it has been proposed that students' performance improvements are the result of the advantages of WBI for school and faculty (Goldstein & Ford, 2002; Welsh, Wanberg, Brown, & Simmering, 2003, cited in Aguinis & Kraiger, 2009). The structure of a strategic reading instruction component of English for professional purposes course in a technology-enhanced environment was analyzed by Dreyer and Nel (2003). According to their study, the subjects who were trained on reading strategies in the technology-enhanced environment got higher scores on three reading comprehension measures than did the subjects in the control group.

The results of Biggs, Simpson, and Walker (2006, cited in Senn, 2008)'s study revealed that online students receive lower instructor support and student interactions in an online instruction. On the other hand, Lock (2006) found out that cooperative work made online learners more successful and motivated than when they worked individually.

Reading and language learning strategies

In the process of learning, learning strategies play a prominent role. The appropriate use of learning strategies can result in increased foreign/second language proficiency. Applying certain strategies in language learning including reading skill is important because they are tools for active and self-directed involvement. Appropriate learning strategies lead to improvement of proficiency and self-confidence which become prerequisites for communicative competence as the main goal of language learning.

Reading strategies are complemented by language learning strategies. Several authors have provided definitions and taxonomies for learning strategies (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990, cited in Asgari & Mustapha, 2011). Oxford (1990) defined leaning strategies as "steps taken by students to enhance their own learning [which] are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence" (p. 1). Even if the reading comprehension course does not aim at developing such communicative competence, the use of language learning strategies as declared by Oxford (1990) helps improve students' self-confidence and these reading strategies approach assist the learner to apply a learning strategy to solve problems when trying to understand a text. The learner relies on textual elements and his/her background knowledge to interact with the text.

Effect of Summarization strategies on Comprehension

Summary writing is a mixture of reading and writing. Writing a summary of a text can help learners connect main points of ideas, process thoughts, rephrase and restructure them in their own words (Perin, 2002, cited in Pakzadian, 2012). Graham and Hebert (2011) investigated the reciprocal relationship between writing and reading to see whether writing activities have an impact on reading activities. They declared that having students write about what they have read simply will improve their reading abilities.

In many studies, teaching students how to use summarization strategies are considered to have significant impact on their comprehension (Doctorow, Wittrock, & Marks, 1978; Wittrock & Alesandrini, 1990). Wittrock and his colleagues concluded that the process of summarizing helps readers make relations among concepts of a text and relate these concepts to prior knowledge. Other studies suggest that summarization can help readers to pay attention to main information and therefore improve comprehension (Anderson & Armbruster, 1984; Pearson & Fielding, 1991). Others have noticed that summarization improves comprehension by promoting self testing during reading and apply strategies to remedy comprehension failures (Palinscar & Brown, 1984; Paris & Lindauer, 1982).

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of the present study were 200 Iranian freshman male (94) and female (106) EFL students chosen out of 225 students based on their Preliminary English Test (PET) language proficiency test scores. The EFL students were from four Islamic Azad universities. The participants belonged to both genders and aged from 18 to 24 years old. They were all freshman students since they had to have passed the reading courses 1 and 2. The reason for this was to ensure that they had enough knowledge and background for understanding different types of reading comprehension texts. Also, they had different computer experiences. For example, some students had considerable experience using computers and software applications making presentations, and writing reports. It should be noted that most of their courses were held in traditional classrooms. But they had experienced some courses which included blended learning in the way that they were supposed to submit their assignments to their professors via email. Moreover, most of them did not have any experience of web-based instruction. But some of them had participated in some web-based classes which were not for teaching a foreign language. In this study, the participants were randomly assigned into two groups. There were 100 students in one group benefiting from web-based instruction and 100 students in the other group benefiting from face-to-face instruction. To reduce learners' anxiety and maximize learning, one face-to-face orientation was conducted for the online learners before the first session.

B. Instrumentation

The instruments that were utilized in this study were the Preliminary English Test (PET), a translated version of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), and a test of reading comprehension.

a. Preliminary English Test (PET)

The present study was conducted with 200 EFL university students chosen out of 225 students based on their language proficiency test scores. A 67-item standard PET test, released by Cambridge ESOL exam (copy right 2004), was administered to evaluate the participants' general English proficiency level. The proficiency test PET (Preliminary English Test, 2004) is a second level Cambridge ESOL exam for the intermediate level learners. The test includes three sections because the researcher could not conduct the speaking section due to practicality issues.

b. Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

A translated version of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) adopted from Hasanpour (1999) was used to access the frequency with which language learners use each learning strategy. SILL consists of 50 likert-type items including 6 subscales.

c. The Reading Comprehension Test

The test of reading comprehension was composed of 3 passages titled "woman in ancient societies, crime, and history of religion," followed by multiple-choice format reading comprehension tests (Tahririan, 1996). Each passage contains almost 100 words. Also they were designed for intermediate level learners.

d. The Reading Comprehension Text

Five passages entitled "computer games, colors, looking for being in shape, a mysterious triangle, and luck," were selected from Live Reading developed by Yazdani Moghaddam, Seyyedrezaie, Rajabi, and Barani (2008) on the basis of the students' current level of mastery of the English language and their presumed interest. Each passage contained almost 150 words followed by matching and multiple-choice items.

C. Pilot Study

A number of 30 students with similar characteristics to that of the target sample were used for piloting the tests.

It took about 30 minutes for either test to finish. The Cronbach's alpha for reliability of the tests in the pilot study was estimated. The results indicated the reliability of 0.78 for reading comprehension test. This indicated that the instruments enjoyed high reliability estimate and were therefore appropriate for the purpose of the study. Based on the results of pilot study, some items of the test were modified to avoid confusion on the part of test takers. The piloting section indicated that the time necessary for taking the test was 30 minutes.

D. Procedure

In order to answer the research questions, the following procedure was pursued.

The reliability of the Preliminary English Test (PET) was already piloted by Seyyedrezaie, Ghapanchi, and Seyyedrezaie (2013). The result indicated that it had a reliability of .91. In order to have a homogeneous group of participants, this version of the Preliminary English Test (PET) was administered to all the 225 freshman students. And only those students whose scores were between one standard deviation above and below the mean of the normal distribution curve were chosen for the study. As a consequence, 200 learners were included as the participants in the study.

To reduce learners' anxiety and maximize learning, one face-to-face orientation was conducted for the online learners before the first session. One day before the first session, all participants were given a reading comprehension test in addition to the Strategy Inventory for Language Learners (SILL) as the pre-test. Accordingly, the same reading test and one scale were given to them as the post-test six weeks later after the participants finished five 90-minute sessions, one session per week. The rationale behind using the same test and scale in pre-tests and post-tests was to assure exactly comparable tests. Students were not given the correct answers after the pre-test. Besides, the interval (five weeks) between the pre-tests and post-tests was deemed long enough to control for any short-term memory effects.

During this instructional phase, 100 students in one group benefited from face-to-face instruction and 100 students in another group benefited from web-based instruction through Nicenet, because using the Nicenet course site did not require any special license or registration fees. The web-based learners used their own PCs and the Internet from home.

In the instructional phase, for the face-to-face learners, first, the researcher as an instructor informed the students upon the importance of strategic reading and made an attempt to define the concept of summarization strategy in theory and practice. But for the web-based learners, the students were given an instruction on the concept of summarization strategy which is available on the Nicenet. Teacher as a model tries to initiate using this strategy while reminding merits of this strategy in being effective readers. Then, the explicit instruction of the summarization strategy was given to the participants. Besides, both groups were provided with clear examples in order to grasp the usefulness of this strategy and learn how to apply it. After this step, the participants practiced what has been taught to them using various texts and tasks. After that, the teacher encouraged independent use of summarization strategy. Also, the teacher provided scaffolding until they became independent. So, for the face-to-face learners, the instructor provided support whenever necessary, while for the web-based learners, there is no opportunity for receiving the instructor's help whenever it is needed. They also assessed their own strategy use right after each practice session by monitoring their strategy use in addition to their understanding. To develop larger collection of strategies, the instructor asked the students to apply this strategy to new tasks. The students follow the instructional phase during five weeks of their educational semester in their reading class. Moreover, the participants take the comprehension test once as pretest before going through the instructional program and once after it as a posttest.

E. Design

The design of this study was a true-experimental design. The reason for choosing this design rested upon the fact that participants were randomly selected and during a 5 week course of treatment, they were given instruction on the summarization strategy to apply it to new task. Web-based and face-to-face instructions were independent variables and language learning strategies and reading comprehension were the dependent variables. Because all participants were between the age range of 18-24, the age of the participants was the control variable. Also, another control variable of the study was the language proficiency of the participants. As the researcher had no control over gender of the participants, gender was considered as the intervening variable.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the study are summarized in the following tables:

In order to answer to the research questions of the study, the results of the questionnaire and the reading comprehension test were discussed in relation to descriptive and inferential statistics.

Table 1 indicates descriptive statistics for the scores of the students on the SILL. In other words, the table shows minimum score, maximum score, mean, and standard deviation for the same number of participants in each group regarding their preferences for language learning strategies.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE SCORES OF THE PARTICIPANTS ON THE SILL

Strategy Statistic	Memory		Cognitive		Compensation		Metacognitive		Affective		Social	
	Web-based learners	Face-to-face learners	Web-based learners	Face-to-face learners	Web-based learners	Face-to-face learners	Web-based learners	Face-to-face learners	Web-based learners	Face-to-face learners	Web-based learners	Face-to-face learners
N	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
MIN	1.81	1.69	1.85	2.03	1.38	1.69	2.03	2.19	1.69	1.69	2.03	1.53
MAX	4.69	4.86	4.53	4.69	4.53	4.53	4.58	4.81	4.84	4.69	4.74	4.69
MEAN	3.19	3.32	3.20	3.09	3.30	3.29	3.31	3.57	3.12	3.20	3.20	3.15
STD	0.67	0.76	0.58	0.69	0.67	0.73	0.69	0.65	0.71	0.64	0.75	0.75

The first research question of the study stated that whether there is any significant difference between post-test scores of web-based learners and face-to-face learners with regard to their preferences for language learning strategies. In order to investigate this research question, an independent samples t-test was conducted. The results are summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR WEB_BASED AND FACE_TO_FACE LEARNERS' PREFERENCES FOR LSSS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means		
		F.	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
LLSs	Equal Variances Assumed	.231	.635	-1.178	200	.243
Average	Equal Variances Not Assumed			-1.178	199.95	.243

As shown in Table 2, the average scores of the two groups were compared. As the table indicates, the existing significance value (.243) is larger than the significance level (.05). This result is similar to that of the comparison of pre-test scores of two groups with regard to language learning strategies. As the result of pre-test scores revealed the existing significant value (.151) was larger than the significant level (.05). In other words, both of them indicated that there is no significant difference between the two groups of learners (web-based learners vs. face-to-face learners) with regard to their preferences for language learning strategies.

In fact, it should be considered that language learning strategies are applied more or less the same way by learners under different educational contexts; in other words, learning provided with web-based program is more self-directed and doesn't need any instruction to fit the assumed framework to the current teaching/learning issues. As a result, the selection and use of language learning strategies is not noticeably affected by the type of education system.

The result that language learning strategies scores of students did not change regarding the type of instruction the learners received is the same as the finding of Köymen (1990, cited in Kurt & Gurcan, 2010)'s study. Köymen concluded that there was no significant difference between traditional higher education students' use of learning strategies and the learning strategies use of students attending online education. On the other hand, this finding is in contrast with Bar-Yam's (2003) finding revealing that the educational system under which the learners develop L2 communicative abilities influences the choice and use of learning strategies. Also, Carns and Carns (1991) reported the similar finding. These two research findings were different from the finding of the present study due to the fact that the students provided with training on learning strategies, while in the present study, no such training was given to the students. Regarding the research findings, it could be mentioned that without taking any training on strategies, there was no significant difference in the learning strategies of students regarding the type of instruction they received. In addition, it could also be stated that the strategy training received by students might result in a significant difference.

The second research question stated that whether there is any significant difference between pre-test and post-test scores of EFL students who were exposed to web-based and face-to-face instruction. In order to investigate this null hypothesis, a paired samples t-test was conducted. The results are summarized in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
A PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST OF PRE_ AND POST_ TEST READING COMPREHENSION SCORES OF WEB_BASED AND FACE_TO_FACE LEARNERS

Face-to-face group						Web-based group					
	N	M	SD	t	p	N	M	SD	t	p	
Pretest	100	115.10	18.80	2.10	.01	100	70.8	9.39	.89	.38	
Posttest	100	120.85	20.14			100	70.1	9.65			

As the table shows, the existing significant value (.01) of face-to-face group is smaller than the significant level (.05). In other words, there is a significant difference between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students on the basis of face-to-face instruction. On the other hand, for the web-based group, the mean almost decreased which does not necessarily indicate that there was no progress at all in this instruction. As the table shows, the existing significant value (.38) of web-based group is larger than the significant level (.05). In other words, there is no significant difference between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students exposed to web-

based instruction. As for this instruction, several aspects must be considered: the degree of familiarity students had with the Nicenet platform, the limited interaction they had with the instructor and the classmates, and the degree of motivation for this instruction.

The finding of a study conducted by Can, Saglam, Eristi, and Kurum (2007) indicated that students involving in the instructional activities without any Internet use are more successful than the students involving in Internet-based instructional activities supports the finding of the present study. On the other hand, the finding of the present study stand in contrast with the study carried out by Schutte (1999) which indicated that students taking education in multimedia classrooms were more successful than that of students taking education in traditional classrooms. The findings of the study are also in contrast with Harasim's (1995) results of the study that investigated 240 teachers and learners utilizing the internet for educational purposes. 90 percent of the 176 responses to a question about differences between learning in a computer-mediated environment and a traditional classroom, revealed that there were differences.

Although summarization strategy has a significant impact on post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students on the basis of web-based and face-to-face instruction, it is the type of instruction which influences the effectiveness of summarization strategies.

V. CONCLUSION

Concerning the first null hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference between post-test scores of web-based learners and face-to-face learners regarding their preferences for language learning strategies, the findings of independent samples t-test indicated that the educational system has little effect on the way learners apply language learning strategies. That is, both groups of learners (web-based learners and face-to-face learners) had more or less the same ways in applying language learning strategies in their language learning process.

There are several factors why the findings of the present research were not supported by most of the findings of other studies (Schutte, 1999; Harasim, 1995). The finding of this study is somehow different from Namlu's (2003) finding who found a significant increase in the learning strategies of the students who were in the experimental group taking training on learning strategies. The difference between finding of this study and Namlu's study may be because of the changes in the participants (age, gender, level) or in the number of participants in both studies. Another factor that might count for the difference between the findings of the studies may be caused by the kind of interaction between the teacher and the students in the two studies. In addition, it may be because of the length of the study. This study took 6 weeks but Namlu's (2003) study lasted a semester.

Considering the second research question which deal with investigating the difference between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students on the basis of web-based and face-to-face instruction, the obtained findings through paired samples t-test revealed that there is a significant difference between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students on the basis of face-to-face instruction. In contrast, there is no significant difference between pre-test and post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students on the basis of web-based instruction. Additionally, although summarization strategy has a great impact on post-test reading comprehension scores of EFL students in both groups, it is the type of instruction which influence the effectiveness of summarization strategies.

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A Case Study of Interpretation Learning Strategies Employed by Successful Interpretation Learners

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Abstract—This study was undertaken to find out the interpretation learning strategies employed by successful interpretation learners to achieve the completeness of interpretation. The results showed that, to achieve the completeness of interpretation, they employed knowledge-accumulation, summarization, note-taking and logical-analysis learning strategies, among which the first three learning strategies were employed by all the three subjects, which indicates that in the process of interpretation learning, they all give priority to content or meaning over form or language. The significance of this study is to enrich the existing interpretation learning strategies and provide future interpreters with some interpretation learning strategies to choose from.

Index Terms—interpretation learning strategies, successful interpretation learners, completeness

I. INTRODUCTION

Given the low passing rate of *Advanced Interpretation Test* taken by undergraduate students, the researcher did a survey, in which students complained that they could not catch up with the speaker in interpretation and had little time to take notes. The research aims to conduct a case study to probe into the interpretation learning strategies employed by successful interpretation learners. The significance of the study goes as follows: theoretically, seldom scholars have ever been engaged in the field of interpretation learning strategies. The researcher attempted to summarize interpretation learning strategies based on Bao's criteria of interpretation (2005), which is a tentative study to provide some new insights into interpretation learning strategies and enrich the existing theories; practically, the study provides some interpretation learning strategies for future learners to choose from

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This part consists of three sections, namely, the definition of successful interpretation learners, criteria of interpretation, and the previous studies related to interpretation learning strategies.

A. Definition of Successful Interpretation Learners

In this study, successful interpretation learners are considered to be interpretation learners who have successfully passed *Advanced Interpretation Test*, which is one of the training programs for talents in short supply and is considered one of the most authoritative tests in examining the command of interpretation.

As is reported, in June 1995, when *Advanced Interpretation Test* held for the first time, there were 704 people taking the exam, while in September 2002, the number grew up to 21800 and most of the candidates have been to college, even many got doctor or master degree (Hua, 2002). A public survey conducted by an authoritative media in Shanghai indicated that in the top ten qualification certificates college students desired to obtain, foreign language interpretation qualification certificates ranked the third, especially Certificate of *Advanced Interpretation Test*, which was considered the most authoritative one by foreign-funded enterprises and foreign organizations. However, despite the high participation rate, only 10% of the candidates could pass the test and get the certificate (Xie, 2001).

Thus, taking high difficulty and low pass rate of *Advanced Interpretation Test* into consideration, interpretation learners who have passed this test are successful interpretation learners.

B. Criteria of Interpretation

With the same situation as translation criteria, there is no unified criterion for interpretation, which could be perceived differently in terms of different perspectives and considerations. Xiamen University's assessment for interpretation test assesses interpretation from the completeness, accuracy, language expression, fluency and speed, clarity and resilience of information conversion (Guo, Lin, 1996); C. S. Yang in Fu Jen Catholic University in Taiwan made her interpretation professional test scoring table from the four evaluation criteria of loyalty, expression, language and time control (Yang, 2005); H. P. Liu listed speed of response, understanding, expression and mental qualities as interpretation criteria (Liu, 2005); according to Chen, interpretation evaluation should cover interpreters' abilities of knowledge, techniques and mentality (Chen, 2002); Ren proposed criteria of accuracy, fluency and quickness for

interpretation (Ren, 2009); Bao (2005) proposed criteria of interpretation in his monograph *An Overview of Interpretation Theory* as completeness, accuracy and fluency.

Apart from these, criteria of Advanced Interpretation Test go as follows: 1) Interpretations with complete and accurate content (without missing or misinterpretations), correct pronunciation and intonation, fluently expression and error-free language are rated excellent. 2) Interpretations with almost complete and accurate content (without significant missing or misinterpretations), basically correct pronunciation and intonation, almost fluently expression and without significant error in language are rated passed. 3) Interpretations without complete and accurate content (with one third missing or misinterpretations or more), with errors in pronunciation and intonation, without fluent expression and with errors in language are rated failed.

As far as all of these criteria are concerned, the researcher considered Bao's criteria of interpretation are the most comprehensive ones and are happened to coincide with the criteria of *Advanced Interpretation Test*. It is on this basis that the researcher categorized interpretation learning strategies. Bao, a professor in Beijing International Studies University, whose research specialty is interpretation theory and teaching, published several monographs and papers during his lifetime. In his monograph *An Overview of Interpretation Theory*, he proposed interpretation criteria of completeness, accuracy and fluency. Based on a survey made by the researcher, most of the students believe completeness is the most difficult to achieve. According to Bao (2005), completeness refers to comprehensive and full interpretation of the main points of the contents, original intention and connotation in the original language. It is aimed at the content of the original language, bringing up requirement of "main point interpretation" for interpreters, with the purpose of solving the methodological problem on how to make choices among different content information. This criterion on content requires an interpretation of complete and faithful, without addition or subtraction, and the basic unit of meaning is on discourse level. In other words, interpreters should interpret all the units of meaning correctly, which could thus be regarded as completeness.

C. Previous Studies on Interpretation Learning Strategies

Based on a thorough and comprehensive survey related to this study, the author found that there were no special books or journals concerned with interpretation learning strategies other than three academic theses. Some books and journals gave some suggestions on interpretation techniques and strategies, which the author considered of great value for this study to some extent.

Previous studies of interpretation strategies are covered in a broad sense both in fields and dimensions. The researcher used to make a review on the previous studies and put the interpretation strategies into five categories on different dimensions: studies on interpretation strategies concerning theories, texts, contexts, process and teaching respectively (Li, 2013).

In terms of the only three academic theses concerning interpretation learning strategies, two of them are Master's theses. One is written by Zheng (2004), a graduate of Sichuan University, on the title of "On Interpretation Strategies-----From the Perspective of SLA", which raised two research questions concerning the overall pattern of ILS in a broader sense and specific interpretation strategies in their interpretation learning process employed by the university English majors. He adopted a top-down method of research that classified the ILS on the basis of O'Malley & Chamot's model, namely metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies, under each of which there are several specific strategies. A questionnaire involved the totally ten specific strategies is conducted with three alternatives for each question, and the students are supposed to choose only one among the three. The results demonstrate that almost all the participants view interpretation learning interesting and derive much pleasure and sense of success from it. All the strategies are employed among which, the most frequently used ones are direct advance organization, plan-making-and-plan-implementing and indirect advance organization.

Another Master's thesis "A Case Study of the Effectiveness of Interpretation Learning Strategies" written by Q. Yang (2006) from Dong Hua University is based on Zheng's research. He further examined the effectiveness of interpretation learning strategies and interpretation strategy training. The results illustrated that most of the students showed a positive attitude towards ILS training, through which they gained some improvement in interpretation skills.

Lei's (2011) "Conceptual Dimension Construction and Empirical Assessment of Learning Strategy for Interpreting" is a journal paper that constructed a conceptual model with four dimensions for interpretation learning strategies, namely cognitive strategy, compensation strategy, social strategy and affective strategy and adopted empirical research methods to assess the reliability in the concept meter, exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis.

Based on the above literature review, it can be seen that despite the lack of professional interpreters and the increasing number of people learning interpretation, there are seldom monographs or papers related to interpretation learning strategies. The three papers mentioned above are all top-down researches by constructing a model and evaluating it afterwards.

Studies of interpretation strategies, which sound similar to interpretation learning strategies, are covered in a broad sense concerning theories, texts, contexts, process and teaching, both theoretically and empirically, among which the researchers tend to focus more on interpretation strategies concerning contexts, that is, investigating the strategies in a particular field, such as conference interpretation strategies, touristic interpretation strategies, ceremony interpretation, etc, and most of studies are subjective and experiential without theoretical basis and scientific methodology. Even though, they may shed lights on interpretation learning to some extent.

III. METHODOLOGY

This part consists of two sections. The first section addresses research questions. The second section describes the research design that consists of the subject, the instrument, interview guide, data collection, data analysis and ethical issues.

A. Research Questions

This study aims to investigate the learning strategies employed by successful interpretation learners to achieve the completeness of interpretation. The research question is therefore addressed as: what interpretation learning strategies are employed by successful learners to achieve the completeness of interpretation?

B. Research Design

The research design involved subjects, instruments, interview guide, data collection, data analysis and ethical issues.

1. Subjects

The subjects of this study were three classmates of the researcher when studying for master degree in College of International Studies, Yangzhou University majoring in English Language and Literature. They have all successfully passed *Advanced Interpretation Test*. They were selected by purposive sampling. For the convenience of the research, they were labeled as S1, S2 and S3.

a. Background information of the subjects

Taking full advantage of various activities, S1 greatly improves her English fluency and accuracy. She was the winner of the Second Class Award in the Jiangsu Provincial Final of the 2010 “FLTRP Cup” English Public Speaking Contest, which not only enhances her writing skills but also quickens her immediate reaction to express herself in English. What’s more, she was the English hostess of the performance presented by American Exaltation Ballet troupe in June, 7th, 2011, in which she interpreted the American leader’s introductions to every program related with ballet history and religious stories. And she has visited America under the arrangement of Hanban for cultural communication in 2011. She played the role of an English hostess of the performance named “Melody of Spring” in Confucius Institutes in Atlanta, Memphis and Kentucky, as well as a lecturer of “Chinese Spring Festival and Yangzhou Culture” in some local high schools. She passed *Advanced Interpretation Test* in 2007.

S2 is a very talented and diligent student. She got a high score in TOEFL when she was a freshman in college and passed *Medium Interpretation Test* two years later. She paid much attention to listening and speaking by attending several speech contests and playing an active role in English salons at school. She passed *Advanced Interpretation Test* in the first year of postgraduate program.

S3 attended a foreign language middle school in which the students have more access to communicate with native English speakers, thus he had a good grasp of English listening and speaking. He had a group of foreign friends and often hung out with them. He also passed *Advanced Interpretation Test* in the first year of MA program.

What’s more, all of them had some experiences of playing roles as interpreters, which provided great opportunities for them to put their interpretation learning into practice. No wonder, their practicing experiences enabled what they shared with the researcher to be more persuasive.

b. Reasons for subject selection

They were chosen as the subjects of the study for the following reasons.

The first and the most important reason is that they have all passed *Advanced Interpretation Test*, which is one of the training programs for talents in short supply and is considered one of the most authoritative tests in examining the command of interpretation. Taking this into consideration, the three subjects were proved to be successful interpretation learners and showed great talents in interpretation.

What’s more, they are all outgoing and cooperative, which helped researcher smoothly conduct the interview as they were willing to share their learning experiences and would talk whatever they thought of without reservation.

In addition, all the three subjects were classmates of the researcher, not to mention that one of them was her roommate. They often studied in school library together, exchanging their ideas and discussing some academic controversies with each other. Their intimate relationship with the researcher guaranteed a harmonious and carefree atmosphere of the interview.

2. Instrument

The instrument of this study was the researcher herself.

Having never carried out a case study before, it was necessary for the researcher to get familiar with the theories and procedures of qualitative research by means of reading relevant books and journals on the subject in order to get a general knowledge of how to carry out interviews. Besides, she discussed with her supervisor regularly to gain some opinions on the interview details.

To get acquaintance with the whole procedure of an interview and to make sure that the interview could be carried out smoothly, the researcher conducted a pilot study before the formal interview by interviewing one of her roommates on the topic of “how to improve oral English”, after which the researcher found out two problems. The first was that the researcher herself talked too much rather than encouraging the interviewee to talk about her experience, opinions and knowledge on the topic. The second was that some of the questions she raised were too vague, which gave little access

for the interviewee to provide detailed information. Although the pilot study could not be considered as a successful one, it enabled the researcher to anticipate the potential problems so as to take them into consideration beforehand.

In addition, the researcher prepared a computer and a microphone to record the interviews for future analysis.

3. Interview guide

In order to probe into interpretation learning strategies thoroughly and comprehensively, the researcher prepared an interview guide in accordance with the dimensions that the research questions covered, which was categorized on the basis of Bao's criteria of interpretation, that is, completeness, accuracy and fluency of interpretation, in which completeness of interpretation is the focus of the study. To encourage the interviewees to produce more information, the researcher prepared the interview guide involving the following tasks: (1) decide the type of information; (2) determine the sequence of questions; (3) choose the wording of questions.

The interview guide covered the following types of information: the background of interviewees on learning English and interpretation, their knowledge and abilities on interpretation learning, their experiences of learning, their feelings while learning and their opinions on interpretation learning.

On the sequence of questions, the researcher first asked some warming up questions and got some information about interviewees' learning background. Then the researcher asked some questions probing into the interpretation learning strategies they employed to achieve the completeness of interpretation.

On the wording of questions, mostly the researcher asked open-ended questions to get the interviewees to talk about their experiences, feelings, opinions and knowledge of interpretation learning, and avoided presupposing which dimension of feeling or thought will be salient for the interviewees. For example, what will you do if you come across some unknown expressions while interpreting?

4. Data collection

Considering that the formal interview would last for too long based on the pilot study and that their opinions might be mutually influenced if the three subjects were interviewed at the same time, three interviews were conducted respectively.

All the three interviews were conducted in Chinese rather than English for the purpose of having smooth conversation and avoiding language obstruction and possible misunderstanding. A conversational style of interview kept the researcher and interviewees talking in a natural manner, which guaranteed the whole interviews going pleasantly and harmoniously. For each interview the researcher used a laptop and a microphone to record the whole process with the permission of the three subjects.

5. Data analysis

The whole data analysis involved three steps: coding, summarization and translation.

Step 1. Coding. The researcher first applied a set of codes to the specific and related information that interviewees provided in recorded data, with each code standing for a certain piece of information, just naming a few, *BJJY* representing note-taking strategy while *LJFX* standing for logical analysis training strategy, etc.

Step 2. Summarization. By examining and comparing every piece of information in the whole set of data, the researcher looked for similarities and differences. Based on similarities, concepts were identified and further classified into categories. It seemed difficult to group all those codes at first, the researcher put aside the provisional codes and several days later reexamined the same data with a fresh mind. By repeating this process, she turned the data upside down and inside out to put them into categories, in which information on strategies of completeness of interpretation was gathered for analysis.

Step 3. Translation. Since the interviews were conducted in Chinese, it was necessary to translate all the relevant information into English. In order to make sure that the translation was accurate, the researcher asked one of her postgraduate classmate to help check the English version.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this section, it states four learning strategies employed by the three students to achieve the completeness of interpretation, namely knowledge-accumulation strategy, summarization strategy, note-taking strategy and logical-analysis strategy. Based on the interviews, most of these learning strategies are widely used while how they are employed differs from person to person.

A. Knowledge-accumulation Strategy

S1, S2 and S3 all took this strategy as a preparation for interpretation while they had different focuses. S1 learned language knowledge and world knowledge in a comprehensive way; S2 seized every opportunity to obtain general knowledge and she also emphasized the primary role of language proficiency; S3 got help from TV and developed a habit of taking notes while watching.

S1: As to the general knowledge, the interpreter should be equipped with the language knowledge and world knowledge in a comprehensive way.

In order to master a language, we have to know well about various aspects of the language, besides linguistic knowledge, other knowledge related to the language should also be taken into consideration, including the evolvement history, language custom, literal works, proverbs, etc. A feasible way to improve linguistic proficiency is to read as

much as possible in foreign language, which is a very important link to improve integrated language abilities. I chose materials that were not too difficult, otherwise it was easy to lose interests and produce resistance. When encountering with unfamiliar words, I looked up in English-English dictionary to cultivate the habit of English thinking. If things go on like this, I'm sure that everyone can build up a large vocabulary.

In terms of world knowledge, I think the best and the most convenient way is to surf the Internet. I concerned about the politic, economic and social news most, and the first website I visited every day is website of Tencent news by which I could keep a close contact with current international affairs.

S2 seized every opportunity to gain knowledge, and she agreed with S1 that she emphasized the primary and significant role of bilingual proficiency in interpretation learning.

S2: I suppose that an excellent interpreter should be knowledgeable, and to achieve this goal, one needs to accumulate varies of knowledge at ordinary times and be good at obtaining it in all kinds of ways and accesses. Listening to the broadcasts and tapes, reading journals and books, watching movies and TV programs and surfing the Internet, they are all ways to learn. Every day, new things come up, together with which are new words and expressions. We ought to develop a habit of learning at anywhere anytime. And this is really what I did in my daily learning.

There is also one thing I would like to mention that interpretation is a process of exchanging information between two languages. Thus, bilingual proficiency, especially English, is no doubt the foundation of interpretation learning, and one cannot interpret well until he has a good grasp of English.

S3 took a different access to obtain general knowledge. He watched English television channel CCTV NEWS every evening, which he considered as a two-birds-with-one-stone way to learn both general knowledge and updated words and expressions to improve English proficiency.

S3: I had a habit of watching CCTV NEWS for a very long time and benefited a lot from it. Every time I watched this channel, I would take out a little notebook labeled as "for news words". When I encountered some popular and updated words and expressions, such as "accredited journalist", "overwhelming majority", "Pentagon", etc., I took them down in this little notebook and reviewed them in a regular time. At first, I might not understand what I was listening to, for the news was too politic or economic, but as time went on and as my accumulated vocabulary became larger and larger, I made it, finally.

B. Summarization Strategy

To achieve the completeness of interpretation, all of the three students employed summarization strategy, and they share something in common: focusing on meaning rather than language itself.

S1 supposed that focusing on meaning is the key to the success of interpretation learning and news is no doubt a good learning material. The following quotes show how she employed this strategy specifically.

S1: the purpose of summarization is to focus on the meaning rather than language itself while listening, which, I suppose, is the key to the success of interpretation learning. After listening to a speech, I tried to concentrate on the meaning of the information to forget language subconsciously. Focusing on meaning helped me ignore the language the speaker used and visualize the information, which reduced the burden of memory because memorizing meaning is easier than memorizing vocabulary. For example, when describing a house, I would visualize the layout or the surroundings of the house to help me memorize the information. That is to say, in order to summarize the content of a given listening material, the listener must active mentally organize the information he's receiving. To do this, he must get the main idea, which means drawing main idea from secondary ideas and relevant from irrelevant information. As for listening materials, most of the topics on BBC and VOA are suitable, and apart from these, TV interviews, debates and dialogues could also be the materials of making summarization due to the fact that everyone's speech could be taken as independent contents which convey completed meaning of what the speaker wants to share. What's more, these listening materials could also widen your horizon and help get familiar with some cultural and technical expressions, which in turn will facilitate your summarization.

This is an example of applying summarization strategy given by S1:

"During the past 10 dismal years of American decline, few sights have been more pathetic than that of a succession of U.S. Treasury secretaries traveling to foreign cities, cap in hand, to beg the Chinese to stop being so mean to our economy.

It has reminded me of nothing so much as the infamous footage of Neville Chamberlain, then the first minister of the world's greatest empire, flying as a supplicant to Berchtesgaden during the Munich crisis.

We now look like the British Empire near its end.

Witness the G-20 meeting this weekend. It produced yet more pious words about China's predatory currency manipulation, but nothing of substance. Another meeting is scheduled for next month, from which we probably can expect yet more pious words.

As for the suggestion that China will work to lower its gigantic trade surplus, analysts at GaveKal, a research firm in Hong Kong, have the takedown: 'If, as Beijing recently proposed, it takes the country about four years to get the current account surplus back down below 4% of GDP (where it last was in 2004),' they write, 'then assuming nominal GDP growth of 11%, a further \$100 billion will actually be added to the surplus. That brings it to \$400 billion by 2014, higher than the peak level of 2007 and six times the level of 2004. In other words, China will still be demanding a lot of excess demand from the rest of the world.'" (Excerpt from BBC News 2010, 11, 4)

S1's summarization goes as follows:

“美国在过去十年总是到国外去请求中国人不要对我们的经济这么吝啬。这周末的 G20 会议对中国汇率操纵问题也没提什么实质性内容，对于中国将采取措施降低其巨额贸易顺差的说法，香港分析师认为中国将需要其他国家的需求进一步大幅提高。”

S2 did not mean to take summarization as a learning strategy of interpretation at first, but it turned out to prepare her for the following steps of interpretation learning. She also stressed the importance of focusing on meaning or the content of the article and gave some suggestions for summarization which is reflected in the following quotes.

I did not learn this strategy on purpose. It became one of my training programs just when I fail to retell a short article with a summarization. So I thought that maybe I should start with summarization and move to retelling part when I was ready. It was proved that I did right. Summarization made me prepared for the next step of interpretation learning. And for summarization, I want to say that Rome was not built in a day, and you need to practice thousands of times with passages with different topics, in different language styles, and of different genres. Focus should be put on understanding and summarizing the meaning of the contents rather than overemphasizing the language issues. You only need to summarize the main content of the given speech at the very beginning, and add more with what you can memorize after you have mastered summarization strategy.

S3 gave some principles while doing summarization: summarizing in Chinese, no note taking and no word consulting. The following quotes show his principles in details.

S3: I presume that most of us has done summarization, no matter in reading class or interpretation class, and we are all very familiar with what it was about. However, to guarantee the achievement of the purpose, I think there are some notes should be attached great importance to:

First, summarize the main content of the listening materials in Chinese rather than English because we tend to repeat what the speaker said word by word if using English. Second, no notes should be taken in summarization, let alone numbers and proper words. Third, when coming across some new words, you ought to guess the meaning according to the context instead of looking up the dictionary or asking for somebody else. If it is really difficult and necessary to know the exact meaning, you could deal with it after summarization.

C. Note-taking Strategy

The three subjects believe that this strategy is the most essential one in interpretation learning strategies and all of them did a lot of practice and worked out their own way of note-taking.

S1 always has her own learning methods and she is very good at thinking and summarizing at every step of her learning process. On note-taking, she gave us some tips: write as few words as possible; take notes in target language; take notes logically and legibly. The following quotes are her experience she is willing to share on note-taking learning strategy.

S1: I really have some experience to share because I do practice a lot in note-taking and find my own way to operate effectively. Here are some tips I would like to share with you.

First, write as few words or symbols as possible. I always concentrated on listening. And, as time was limited in interpreting, I practiced the maximum economy in words in note-taking. Each word or symbol usually represented a key word or a sense group, etc.

Second, it is better to take notes in target language. In order to facilitate the listening-transference-speaking process, I supposed it was preferable to solve the problem of transference while the notes were taken.

Third, see to it that the notes are logical and legible. Just as what I have said, I practice doing logical analysis to make sure that I have a clear grasp of the speech and take notes accordingly. In this way, the speaker's flow or sequence of ideas can be better grasped and noted and therefore better interpreted. At the same time, make sure that the notes are easy to read. I wrote notes in two columns of 2 or 3-inch width in a pad and drew two slant lines to mark the end of a long paragraph, or a long chunk of speech, to avoid some unnecessary confusion. For the sake of legibility, I use only limited number of signs or symbols that are very familiar to me lest I might forget their meanings if I uses too many a time. Possible examples are acronyms, abbreviations, arrows, and reference lines.

There is an easy example of my note-taking: China is exporting different products to different parts of the world, such as clothes, shoes, and hats to Europe and corn, oats, wheat and barley to Africa.

Notes can be demonstrated as:

Clothes shoe hat → EU

corn oat wheat barley → Afri

S2 gave us a systematic direction on what to note, how much should be noted, what language we should take, and what kinds of signs and symbols should be memorized. The following quotes illustrate her learning strategy of note-taking.

S2: At the very beginning of practicing, I totally concentrated on note-taking ignoring the analysis and organization of information which led to the fact that I relied too much on the notes in interpreting, and made them the block stone of my understanding and expressing. Therefore, memorize the information with brain and take notes as supplement only. Thus, you need to get well prepared with summarization.

On what to note, I think figures, technical terms, proper nouns, listed words, key words that represent the central

meanings and thoughts of what the speaker trying to express and words which seem simple yet are easily forgotten should be counted. Besides, tenses, voices and conjunctions should also be noted, which are extremely important to the logic of the output of interpreting.

On how much should we note, I have to say there is no standard that fits all. If you ask me how long should we note compared to the speech, I am saying that the better you understand the speech, the less you would rely on the notes. In other words, if you understand the speech well, even it is long, you only need to note several words; on the contrary, if you know little about the speech, even it is short, you have to note more. How much we should note depends on the logic of the speech, the topic and interpreter's knowledge about the content.

Then what language should we take? Basically, target language provides convenience to the output of interpretation. Interpreters could choose the quicker and easier way to note according to the actual situation. For example, when doing Chinese to foreign language interpretation, Chinese is shorter than foreign language and Chinese is mother tongue, then we could note in Chinese; on the contrary, if taking notes in foreign language is easier than in Chinese, we use foreign language.

Concerning signs, symbols and abbreviations, remember those that are commonly and frequently used and familiar to you, such as "↑" stands for a fast increase or improvement, "↗" for going on smoothly, "∞" for twists and turns, "↘" for slow progress, ":" for thinking, and "?" for questioning. I don't recommend you to memorize too many signs, symbols and abbreviations which would confuse you at the very moment of interpreting and get you into trouble. What I would like to mention in particular is that the first and the last sentences of the speech should be noted. The purpose of noting the first sentence lies in that interpreters could start interpreting right after the speaker finished his first unit of speech and noting the last sentence makes sure that the audiences know that it is the end of the former speech.

S3 didn't catch the essential of taking notes at first. She took it for granted and thought that it was no big deal, so she failed at first. He gave us some suggestions on how to take notes and what should be noticed in the process of note-taking learning. The following quotes show exactly what he meant.

S3: *Note-taking is supposed to release the burden of memory in interpreting, while what it came to me is totally an excess burden itself at first. I could not help noting all the information I heard word for word and sentence for sentence as I was doing dictation, which of course led to the fact that I forgot what was next. Sometimes I just didn't know where to start noting, and although I understood what I heard, I forgot them all in the next second. That was really frustrating. So note-taking is a strategy that you need to learn and practice with a large amount of time and energy. It is not as easy as what it seems to be.*

There are two disciplines you have to remember. First, the purpose of note-taking in interpreting is to supplement memory efficiency, so as to ensure completeness of interpretation. This means, though highly necessary, the importance of note-taking should not be overemphasized. You must realize that it is always memory that plays the major role in ensuring completeness in interpreting, not note-taking. Second, the interpreter's notes are essentially individual in character. The ability to keep remembrance of what is said varies from person to person. So you need to find your own way of taking notes after reference to other's experience. What's more, there's no need to memorize all those signs and symbols you have met, and only those that you are familiar with and that appear frequently are worth memorizing.

D. Logical-analysis Strategy

S2 is a girl who knows herself well. She knows exactly where she is and where she is to go. In her process of interpretation learning, she found that although she could take down the main points of information while listening, she could not figure out what the relations between them. So she employed logical-analysis strategy.

S2: *when doing logical analysis, I chose authentic speech scripts which had a clear structure and simple language without many rhetoric expressions and avoided those literary works which emphasized some emotional, artistic, and imaginative literal effects. Then I usually set a time limit of 2 minutes to analyze the logical relations of the scripts quickly and briefly. I marked the main points of the information directly on the scripts, and marked the logical relation----whether it is paralleled or progressive or it is a turning point----of the main points in the blank space of the scripts using symbols like arrowhead or dash, etc. The last step was to retell the main points and logical relations between them in my own word.*

There are three points you need to keep in mind in doing this: first, the exact scripts are not easy to find because most of the speakers are not so orderly and coherently doing their speech and there may be ambiguous wording, vague expressions and unorganized structure. In that case, we could first rewrite those illogical and unstructured scripts into logical and structured ones, which is also a good way to do logical analysis. Second, the main points are usually those content words without which the meaning of the scripts are not complete and clear. That is to say, pick the key and crucial information points and do not mark too much unrelated information to avoid increasing the burden of thinking. Third, do not retell in target language at the very beginning, which will bring you the sense of frustration as you have to translate when structuring the logical relation of the scripts. Even in source language, do not require retelling completely and meticulously like what a professional interpreter does, what matters is that the structure is distinct, the logical relations are clear and the turning points are evident.

V. CONCLUSION

It is drawn from the above results that, to achieve the completeness of interpretation, they employed knowledge-accumulation, summarization, note-taking and logical-analysis learning strategies, among which the first three strategies are all employed by the three subjects. To accumulate knowledge, they gained access to Internet, TV, broadcasts, journals and books. It indicates that in the process of interpretation learning, they all give priority to content or meaning over form or language, which is consistent with hermeneutical idea of interpretation. Gardamer (1975) believes that interpretation's task is to interpret the intentions and thoughts, as well as the cultures of source languages, which is just the aim of summarization strategy they employed and what the three successful interpretation learners put great emphasis on. When it comes to note-taking, it is boiled down to shorthand: shorthand in words and phrases, shorthand in symbols and signs and shorthand in numbers. Logical analysis is a unique strategy to help better understand the structure and logic of the original scripts.

What is worth mentioning is that they all believe bilingual proficiency comes before learning strategies to achieve successful interpretation, and they consider it as the foundation of interpretation learning. This finding shows that learning strategies are not everything, which we should not be over-dependent on. To improve and polish their English proficiency, they keep on doing some reading, writing, listening and speaking in their routine studies. As for Chinese, their mother tongue, they read some newspapers, commentaries and even novels before they go to bed.

All in all, this thesis is only a tentative probe into the interpretation learning strategies employed by successful interpretation learners. Due to the insufficiency of the author's knowledge, this thesis leaves much to be desired. It's the author's wish that more relevant empirical studies be pursued in order that we can testify the effectiveness of the strategies and provide more enlightening information about the interpretation learning strategies.

APPENDIX

访谈提纲

英语学习背景调查

1. 你从什么时候开始学习英语的？学了多少年了？刚刚接触英语的时候你对英语是什么感受呢？
2. 为什么选择英语作为自己的专业？是你自己的兴趣爱好还是你父母的意见呢？或者觉得英语专业热门将来好找工作？你有出国的打算和计划么？
3. 初入扬州大学时，你有没有制定过某些个人学习和发展的计划或者规划？能详细一点说明么？
4. 针对上一个问题进一步追问：在大学学习生活中，有没有按照既定的计划去指导你的学习？
5. 在各门专业课中，你最感兴趣的是哪些？精读，泛读，听力，语法，口语，口译还是其他？
6. 在各门专业课中，你认为对你帮助最大的是哪些？精读，泛读，听力，语法，口语，口译还是其他？
7. 你认为自己的英语水平怎样？参加过什么比赛或考试？
8. 为什么想考高级口译？觉得口译难吗？
9. 考口译的时候英语什么水平？你认为要想通过英语高级口译考试或成为一名专业的译员，英语至少要达到什么水平？

如何提高口译的完整性？

1. 第一次口译练习是什么样子的？
2. 听的时候遇到哪些困难？因为什么听不懂呢？内容不了解？说话人话语有地方口音？环境嘈杂？
3. 平时如何进行听辨练习？有没有什么方法？
4. 你有没有因为一次性听的信息量过多而遗忘？你用什么办法克服的呢？
5. 如果口译的句子或段落很长，你如何使得语言表达比较有条理，语义层次分明？平时怎么训练呢？
6. 在平时的听辨练习中，感觉自己的听力水平有提高吗？如何提高的呢？和平时听力课堂上或听力考试中的听力方法有没有不同？什么地方不同？
7. 在平时的训练和提高中，课堂上老师教授的一些知识和技巧能用到吗？有哪些技巧比较有效？
8. 我们常常会遇到一个问题，刚开始练习口译的时候可能即便听懂了也不能表达完全，你是如何进行针对练习的？一开始会用原语进行复述吗？有没有效果？
9. 你认为百科知识对口译的理解重要吗？你是通过哪些途径获取百科知识的？哪一类的百科知识是你学习的重点？

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