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Cultural Mismatch in Pedagogy Workshops: Training Non-native Teachers in Communicative Language Teaching

Maria Luisa Spicer-Escalante

Department of Languages, Philosophy, and Communication Studies, Utah State University, Logan, Utah, USA

Karin deJonge-Kannan

Department of Languages, Philosophy, and Communication Studies, Utah State University, Logan, Utah, USA

Abstract—As a professional ideology, the Communicative Language Teaching approach (CLT) (Ellis, 1996, 2012; Lee & VanPatten, 2003) has been exported to non-Western contexts with varying degrees of success (e.g., Lewis & McCook, 2002; Li, 1998). The authors of this paper, both non-native speakers of English who have lived and taught in the USA for 20 years, discuss their experiences training teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) from China and Iraq/Kurdistan. Confirming previous research on the topic, they found teachers' beliefs about teaching to be highly resistant to change, even in the face of evidence that negates them (Bax, 2003; Brown, 2009; Nespors, 1987; Pajares, 1992). This article analyzes the cultural parameters of EFL contexts that seem to be at the root of teachers' reluctance toward CLT. The authors argue that this hesitation is related to a mismatch between teachers' and trainers' belief systems. This phenomenon is explored in light of cultural and ideological factors. The authors draw on Kachru's (1992, 2006) work on the power dynamics between Inner Circle, Outer Circle, and Expanding Circle countries (see also Burns, 2013; Canagarajah, 2013).

Index Terms—EFL teacher training, non-native teachers, teaching English as an international language, the communicative approach, communicative language teaching, global workplace needs

I. INTRODUCTION

Following a recent presentation of this paper at an international conference, an audience member remarked that it was pointless expecting Chinese and Iraqi/Kurdish teachers to adopt the Communicative Approach to teach English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in their countries since teachers have to work within the cultural constraints of the countries in which they live. However, this view is no longer defensible. On the contrary, similar to their colleagues around the world, Chinese and Iraqi/Kurdish teachers of EFL live in a global context without communication boundaries, requiring them to meet the needs and to face the challenges that globalization entails. EFL instructors need to teach in such a way that students will be equipped with the necessary English skills that will enable them to perform in real life as they navigate the various professional, academic, and personal settings in which they will be networking.

Throughout history, people have moved from place to place, migrating to other countries and adapting themselves to new languages, other cultures, and different ways of living. However, the 21st century and its new job market do not necessarily require people to relocate. Due to internet-supported connectedness, today's workplace demands that workers be proficient in English and able to carry out the tasks that their positions require (Neeley, 2012).

In light of the demands of the global workplace, this article discusses recent workshops for EFL teachers from China and Iraq/Kurdistan in which communicative, task-based activities characteristic of the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro & Mandell, 2001) were employed. The first part of the article addresses the challenges that emerge when trying to export CLT to non-Western contexts, where teachers have their own beliefs about teaching, with which they are comfortable (Farrell, 2008). The next sections describe the methods, participants, procedures, and materials used, as well as an analysis and discussion regarding teachers' beliefs and cultural reluctance. Finally, implications for teaching and suggestions for future research are presented.

II. COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING AND ITS CHALLENGES

More than a decade ago, *The Economist* (2001) stated that English had become the global language and that most of the world was influenced by it. As many travelers can attest, English is "everywhere" and an ever-increasing percentage of the world's population is learning it.

[English] is everywhere. Some 380 million people speak it as their first language and perhaps two-thirds as many again as their second. A billion are learning it, about a third of the world's population are in some sense exposed to it and by 2050, it is predicted, half the world will be more or less proficient in it. It is the language of globalization – of

international business, politics and diplomacy. It is the language of computers and the Internet. [...] It is now the global language. (*The Economist*, December 20, 2001)

Current statistics lend further support to this claim. According to the British Council (2014), around 750 million people speak English as a foreign language and “one out of four of the world’s population speaks English to some level of competence”, with an increasing and steady demand from the other three-quarters to learn it (British Council, 2014).

In the same vein, the Education First English Proficiency Index (EFEPI), a measure that ranks 60 countries and territories across the globe according to adult English proficiency, has stated that “year by year, economies are more globalized, work more delocalized, and information more decentralized. A shared language is a necessary tool when communication is no longer tied to geography” (EFEPI, 2013, p. 4). Currently, English is the vehicle that makes global communication possible, satisfying the multiple demands of diverse interactions and transactions that globalization entails. According to Graddol (2006), soon “there will be around 2 billion people learning English in many different contexts around the world” (Graddol, 2006, p. 100).

Due to the ever-increasing demand for English language learning, both China and Iraq/Kurdistan, as well as other non-English speaking countries, must prepare their students to carry out communicative tasks for professional purposes in the global workplace. To help build capacity to meet this need, we conducted a set of teacher training workshops. The workshops were designed according to the CLT approach, which is defined as a research-based approach to language teaching that emphasizes interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of study (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro & Mandell, 2001; Lee & VanPatten, 2003). In addition, CLT is goal-oriented and interaction-centered: the teacher is viewed as the facilitator or coach whose main role is to provide ample opportunities for students to use the target language in meaningful ways (Ellis, 1996, 2012; Lee & VanPatten, 2003).

Under the CLT approach, teachers design task-based activities (TBAs) that promote communication and interaction among students and between students and instructor (Lee & VanPatten, 2003). Although TBAs are learner-centered and require a specific communicative goal, making student-to-student interaction and the negotiation of meaning among participants imperative for successful completion of the task, they also allow teacher-fronted activities. As Ellis (2012) mentions, TBAs must not be exclusively learner-centered, as “task-based teaching is both teacher- and learner-centred” (Ellis, 2012, p. 233). Thus, students in CLT classrooms are engaged in TBAs with carefully incorporated teacher-directed instruction. Crucially, TBAs focus on a meaningful exchange of information on the part of participants, involving topics and scenarios from the real world. To accomplish the communicative goal, TBAs carefully guide participants through a series of pre-determined steps that culminate in a concrete representation of the information shared or gathered (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro & Mandell, 2001).

A. *Why Focus on Communicative Language Teaching?*

In terms of adult English proficiency, China is ranked 34th out of 60 countries in the most recent EFEPI report (2013), and is classified as a low-proficiency country, outperforming only Thailand and Kazakhstan within Asia. At the same time, Iraq, which was indexed for the first time in 2013, holds the last place, 60th out of 60, and is classified as a very low proficiency country according to EFEPI criteria (EFEPI, 2013).

Regarding China, the EFEPI report declares that in order to promote economic growth and become more competitive, China “needs to continue improving English teaching in public schools, training teachers to use communicative teaching methods, and revising high-stakes exams to include assessment of oral skills” (EFEPI, 2013, p. 13). Although China produces a great number of graduates each year, only a small percentage will have the English skills necessary for professional international communication (Farrell & Grant, 2005; Graddol, 2006; Yang, 2006). As Farrell and Grant declared regarding the 3.1 million students graduating from diverse colleges in China in 2004, “less than 10 percent of Chinese job candidates on average would be suitable for work in a foreign company. [...] The chief handicaps are weak spoken-English skills, especially among graduates of non-elite schools, and the uneven quality of college curricula and faculty” (Farrell & Grant, 2005, p. 6).

Despite these realities and regardless of continual efforts since the early 1970s, China has not been successful in implementing CLT. One of the reasons, to be discussed later in this article, is the teachers’ resistance to changing their teaching methodologies. Of course, China is not alone in this position; it has been noted by various researchers that CLT methods are not generally used in EFL programs (Burns, 2013; Canagarajah, 2013; EFEPI, 2013). Traditional methods of teaching English, consisting of long grammar explanations, verb conjugations, and vocabulary lists, as well as mechanical drills, repetitions, and sentence transformation exercises, still feature regularly in EFL classrooms around the world. Nevertheless, as countries start to respond to the rise of global requirements, the need for the implementation of CLT becomes greater.

Thus, EFL teachers find, or will soon find, themselves faced with the inevitable need to teach their students how to use English in real-world situations such as explaining their professional and personal skills at a job interview, talking on the phone to non-native speakers from other countries, sending a company memo explaining problems faced in their division, writing a contract, etc. As Graddol (2006) emphasizes, English teachers must prepare their students for the global employment context “where broader education or employment is dependent on actual [English] skills (rather than token certification)” (Graddol, 2006, p. 92). This is, indeed, the hallmark of CLT and the main characteristic of TBA: to prepare students to perform real-life tasks in scenarios that they are likely to encounter in their personal and professional lives, away from fill-in-the-blank exams, memorization of grammatical rules, and multiple choice tests.

The need for EFL learners to improve their English skills so that they can accomplish real-world tasks cannot be ignored and this need must be met through the work of EFL teachers. Not only will students need English proficiency after they graduate, they will also need it during the time they are still students. For example, in 2011, China “became the world's top source of overseas students by sending 339,700 students. [...] More than half of these Chinese students traveled to the U.S., the U.K., and Australia, and 93% were self-funded” (EFEPI, 2013, p. 12). The EFEPI report emphasizes that traveling abroad to use English in real-life situations is a key factor in the improvement of Chinese students’ oral English skills: “China's English level goes up as more Chinese students and travelers head abroad” (EFEPI, 2013, p. 12). Not only Chinese students of EFL, but all EFL learners world-wide need to be prepared to manage the communication demands of a globally interconnected society (Burns, 2013; Canagarajah, 2013). However, this shift away from traditional teaching focused on grammar explanations and test scores is unavoidably associated with a series of challenges.

B. *What Does Research Tell Us about the Challenges of Implementing CLT?*

One of the goals of the CLT approach is to develop students’ communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972) in the Target Language (TL) and the responsibility of teachers is to create the conditions in which students can develop their communicative abilities (Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro & Mandell, 2001; Lee & VanPatten, 2003). However, previous research on teachers’ beliefs has demonstrated that beliefs and opinions about teaching are highly resistant to change, even in spite of evidence that calls those beliefs into question (Bax, 2003; Brown, 2009; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Kumaravadivelu, 2012). This can be explained partly by the finding that there is a high likelihood that trainers’ and teachers’ beliefs about teaching and the methodology to be used do not match (Bax, 2003; Li, 1998). This probability is even greater when trainers and teachers do not share the same cultural background. According to Li (1998), Korean teachers believe their challenges with the implementation of CLT are related to four factors: teachers, students, the educational system, and CLT itself. Related to these challenges, it is important to consider participants’ learning cultures and styles, which have been discussed by Watkins and Biggs (1996), Littlewood (2000), and Reid (1995), among others, but which fall outside the scope of this paper.

Researchers have found that, even when teachers are convinced about its effectiveness and wish or try to adopt CLT, their students often prefer traditional approaches. For example, Brown (2009) found that students tend to favor a traditional language classroom, based on translation, worksheets, and grammar explanations, while many teachers claim to favor a more communicative approach. As Brown points out “what makes this finding worth mentioning is not that these teachers valued meaningful information exchange over grammar, but that their respective students did not, or at least appeared not to, value it nearly as much” (Brown, 2009, p. 53). In addition, Bateman (2008) reports that, in fact, the TBAs assigned to students in a CLT classroom demand more active involvement and more risk-taking on the part of students, which they may wish to avoid.

This reluctance on the part of students may tempt teachers to stick to the traditional ways in which they were taught (Borg, 2005; Lee & VanPatten, 2003). Even when teachers want to try implementing better ways of teaching, they often lack the stamina, expertise, or support to follow through (Farrell, 2008). While it is not inevitable that teachers teach the way they were taught, “they must make a forcible and sustained effort to break out of the old mold. Most teachers have so much to do just to meet their daily responsibilities that they lack the energy for a break with the past” (Finkel, 2000, p. 160). As Valdés (2001) has stated, our classrooms are full of good intentions; unfortunately, however, good intentions are insufficient to respond to global communication needs.

Another factor contributing to the difficulty of implementing CLT in EFL-teaching countries is the effect of linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992), which has been emphasized by several researchers (Burns, 2013; Canagarajah, 1999, 2005, 2013). Linguistic imperialism includes the export of teaching methods and materials as well as the (attempted) transfer of ideologies from English-speaking nations to EFL-teaching nations. In this regard, it is important to fully understand the power dynamics that are established between what has been described by Kachru (1986, 1992, 2006) as the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle, and the Expanding-Circle, and the teaching of EFL.

In *Inner-Circle* countries, English is the first dominant language; this includes the United Kingdom, the United States, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. In *Outer-Circle* countries such as India, Nigeria, and Malaysia, English has a long history of presence, reputation, and institutionalized functions due to British colonialism. Finally, in *Expanding-Circle* countries, English is commonly studied and fulfills various and specific purposes; such is the case for example in China and Russia. As Canagarajah (2013) states “speakers in the expanding circle do not use English only for extra-community relations. For countries such as China, Vietnam, Philippines, and Brazil, English is important for international news, popular culture, and advanced education...” (Canagarajah, 2013, p. 4). Clearly, English no longer belongs to the Inner Circle. In a wide variety of settings today, English is used more by non-native speakers than by monolingual users (British Council, 2014). Therefore, EFL teachers need to create classroom settings that engage students in real-world scenarios that foster success in international communication (Burns, 2013). This was the goal that motivated the workshops to train Chinese and Iraqi/Kurdish EFL teachers.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND METHODOLOGY

The present study was motivated by two research questions:

1. How is CLT perceived by EFL teachers who are non-native English speakers working in Expanding-Circle countries?
2. What are the main challenges preventing implementation of CLT?

A. Participants

The authors (who served as the trainers), both fluent non-native speakers of English who had trained foreign-language teachers in the USA for over 20 years, designed and conducted a multi-day, 25-hour training workshop on the principles and practical implementation of CLT. The workshops were conducted with university-level EFL teachers from the People's Republic of China (n=17) and Iraq and Kurdistan (n=8). The China group consisted of Master's program students at a university in mainland China (mostly females in their 20s) in their first or second year of EFL teaching at various levels, but most of them at the university level, whereas the Iraq/Kurdistan group consisted of mid-career EFL teachers at the university level (mostly males in their 30s and 40s; all Master's degree holders) with an average of 7 years of teaching experience in their country.

B. Procedures

Participants were asked a month before the start of the workshops to read the first three chapters of Lee and VanPatten (2003) and the first three chapters of Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro and Mandell (2001) to familiarize themselves with the fundamentals of the theory and practice of CLT. During the workshops, after the trainers modeled the main principles of CLT and provided participants with skeletal outlines of the chapters, participants engaged in co-teaching by taking turns presenting their understanding of each chapter. The co-teaching was carried out in teams in front of the other workshop participants. In the case of the Iraq/Kurdistan group, the class in front of which the co-teaching was carried out also included new graduate students at a university in the USA. Together with the participants, the trainers reviewed each chapter in detail, elaborating on its content, modeling the principles of CLT, and providing ample opportunities for questions and reflection. At the end of the workshops, participants submitted two lesson plans showcasing their understanding of CLT and how to apply it in their own EFL classrooms. Some participants also volunteered to be interviewed regarding their understanding of CLT and its feasibility in their teaching context.

The following data were collected in connection with the workshops:

- Written reflections submitted by all participants as part of daily class activities
- Audio-recorded interviews with 10 participants who volunteered to be interviewed. The interviews were conducted with a set of open-ended questions (see Appendix). The recordings were transcribed by a trained applied linguist.
- Lesson plans submitted by participants at the end of the workshops
- Trainers' detailed impressionistic notes on observations of participants' co-teaching practices

IV. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The goal of the workshops was to help participants become more aware and more accepting of CLT, increase their understanding of TBAs, and develop their ability to implement CLT principles and TBA techniques in lesson plans. The workshop outcomes are reported in two parts: A) participants' *perspectives and beliefs* (gathered from written reflections and oral interviews); and B) characteristics of participants' *lesson plans*, submitted at the end of the workshops, and *co-teaching practices* during the workshops.

A. Perspectives and Beliefs

While demonstrating a certain level of engagement and expressing an interest in learning during the workshops, participants repeatedly voiced their opinion that CLT does not apply to the EFL teaching context of their respective countries. This is illustrated two excerpts from the oral interviews:¹

Try to teach communicatively and teach communicatively in [my country] is quite difficult, it's a different setting. So what's communicative, the right communicative method in here may not be quite right, may be quite shocking in there. So the problem is with the tiny details, tiny details sometimes control the whole show. So the way I'm planning to do the communicative teaching is somehow different from you guys".

The communicative approach is still somehow, we can apply it but going a different way because, you know, the cultural settings are different.

Participants claimed that CLT does not boost test scores of grammar-focused English tests which are the main measure of student learning and teacher effectiveness in China, Iraq, and the Kurdistan region. As expressed by some of the teachers when they were asked about their experiences as English language teachers:

The focus is on grammar and drills.

Grammar has been the focus of the language teaching in [my country] but how to teach and make the boring task easier and more interesting is the one we should think more...

As some of the teachers expressed:

The only aim of learning English is for all kinds of tests.

¹ The written and oral comments are reproduced as they were uttered or written by participants originally; they were not edited by the authors.

When we read passages, I usually ask students to read it and I explain the key points and analyze the structure of some complex sentences.

According to Anderson (1993), the greatest obstacle preventing Chinese English teachers from using CLT is the heavy responsibility placed on them to prepare their students for the English section of the national examination, as “this discrete-point, structurally-based examination does not test communicative skills” (Anderson, 1993, p. 472). The participants from Iraq and the Kurdistan region reported operating under similar constraints.

Moreover, according to the oral interviews and researcher field notes, participants from both groups stated repeatedly that if CLT were applied in their EFL teaching context, test scores would be lowered. Participants reported being under so much pressure to cover what students are expected to know for national examinations that there is “no time to do CLT”, even though they might like to implement CLT.

I wish for a more open atmosphere in classroom where we can talk loud, and communicate with teachers and our partners. I wish for more opportunities to speak out my ideas though frightening at the beginning.

Thus, participants seem to prefer choosing “coverage over communication”, a phenomenon reported by Ballman, Liskin-Gasparro & Mandell (2001). As the participants frequently expressed, “there isn’t enough time to do these exciting activities; we have the mandated curriculum”. This also points to the participants’ perception that the approach must be either traditional or CLT.

The main problem in [my country] is actually the centered teaching process. You don’t have flexibility to choose the material, you don’t have the flexibility to apply methods and strategies that not impose by people in charge. The first problem is that I have to be as a disciple to somebody else.

Sometimes, I speak English in class but students do not understand, then, I translate in [the native language]. I try to let students communicate each other in English... I do not know what happened to me that I can't arrange my class well.

In English class, we should speak more but not the teacher. Teachers do not encourage students to speak more and pay less attention to mistakes, make the class atmosphere more relaxing... we should make full use of the English class to practice more and communicate more.

As an EFL teacher I know grammar-teaching is not the most important thing.

Teachers cannot explain grammar clearly and we cannot not do exercises right. Practice by practice. We can’t understand some grammar points. Teachers are tired and most students lose interest in English study.

[Teaching] Grammar is annoying me now but what should I do?

B. Lesson Plans and Co-teaching

At the end of the training sessions, the EFL teachers in this study perceived themselves as facilitators and users of both CLT and TBAs. They were able to summarize the theory and the tenets of the CLT and the characteristics of TBAs upon request. Nevertheless, their lesson plans included mainly traditional practices not advocated in CLT, such as lecturing and explaining. When asked to produce lesson plans featuring CLT goals and activities, most of the teachers were unable to do so, submitting lesson plans with traditional-style activities for students and teachers instead.

This approach prevailed despite the fact that several examples had been demonstrated not only during class discussions but also through short communicative sessions conducted by the trainers in other languages (unfamiliar to the participants), in which the participants acted as language students performing real-life activities using the language. Most of the objectives that teachers planned for their lessons were based on grammar goals rather than on communicative goals. In other cases, teachers had vague objectives such as “Make students have the ability to present their ideas in class”, or content objectives such as “Express themselves more freely on the theme of Women”. In some instances, teachers submitted lesson plans with processing objectives such as “Note-taking, the students should take some notes of important dates, names of places”.

With respect to the co-teaching practices, despite having reviewed the most important principles of CLT and TBA and having observed several examples modeled by the trainers, most participants were not able to distance themselves from lecturing and providing long explanations of vocabulary and grammar concepts. Thus, although they expressed during oral interviews that the focus of their teaching practices in their English classrooms is primarily on student-centered activities, they mostly fell short in incorporating such practices. The majority of participants continued reproducing traditional teaching strategies in which the teacher was the only one who spoke and the provider of all knowledge.

V. IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

According to the findings discussed above, the short answer to both research questions posed in the present study is that EFL teachers in Expanding-Circle countries approach CLT with reservations and reluctance.

It is possible that a constellation of factors contributed to these findings. However, rather than a host of interrelated factors, it appears that one fundamental fact explains most of the outcome. This fact is the clash of trainers’ and participants’ belief systems.

CLT is a belief system undergirded by specific perspectives on reality. Having originated in Western cultures, CLT reflects the values of freedom of expression, individual needs, and egalitarianism (McKay, 2011). Traditional teacher-centered approaches to instruction, on the other hand, tend not to espouse these values (Lee & VanPatten, 2003; McKay,

2010). The approach commonly found in China and Iraq/Kurdistan is rooted in memorization and grammar-focused tests. As mentioned earlier, communication in CLT is understood as the use of the target language for real-world purposes. However, this emphasis on communicative competence – which includes grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980; Hymes, 1972; Savignon, 1983) – is not compatible with the belief systems held by Chinese and Iraqi/Kurdish teachers, which are rooted in their experiences of teaching and learning EFL in their respective contexts (Kumaravadivelu, 2012; Lewis & McCook, 2002). As mentioned in the review of the literature, research on teachers has shown that beliefs about teaching are highly resistant to change, even when teachers are presented with evidence that contradicts their beliefs (Bax, 2003; Brown, 2009; Nespor, 1987; Pajares, 1992; Kumaravadivelu, 2012).

The trainers – themselves non-native speakers of English who had emigrated as adults from Expanding-Circle countries to an Inner-Circle country – were careful not to come across as trying to force teachers to adopt new ways. Attempts to impose a belief system from one culture to another constitute a form of cultural imperialism (Said, 1993; Schiller, 1973), which is closely connected with linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992). Rather than imposing a belief system, the trainers attempted to introduce the tenets of CLT and demonstrate its techniques. The emphasis of the workshops was not on “this is how you should teach” but rather on “this is how EFL could be taught if the goal were English proficiency”.

While the trainers had been students in EFL classrooms until they moved to an Inner-Circle country as adults, their professional experiences were primarily with ESL contexts as opposed to EFL contexts. Ellis (1996) compares the very different realities of ESL vs. EFL contexts and illustrates the many levels of mismatch between traditional styles of teaching (commonly found in EFL contexts) and CLT. Ellis cautions against “clinging to a single concept of good teaching” (p. 218). In the same vein, Bax (2003) invites teachers and trainers to think not in terms of *either/or*, but in terms of *both/and*. Bax urges trainers and teachers to consider different ways of teaching not in absolute terms with one approach being good and all alternative ways being inferior. According to Canagarajah (2005), it is especially important to accord local, specific contexts at least as much importance as general professional mandates developed outside specific contexts.

The local shouldn't be of secondary relation or subsidiary status to the dominant discourses and institutions from powerful communities, whereby the global is simply applied, translated, or contextualized to the local. Making a space for the local doesn't mean merely “adding” another component or subfield to the paradigms that already dominate many fields. (Canagarajah, 2005, p.xiv)

The challenge then is to develop pedagogical approaches that blend local and global considerations and lead to the desired outcomes for specific local contexts at the same time that global needs are satisfied (Bax, 2003; Burns, 2013; Kumaravadivelu, 2012; McKay, 2011).

The teachers in our study declared that high English proficiency on the part of their students is the desired outcome. They measure this proficiency with test scores, using exams focused on linguistic accuracy primarily in the realm of syntax and vocabulary. While teachers and students have been focused on English test scores, the need for employees who can actually use English for employment purposes in fields such as science, banking, commerce, tourism, etc., is not being met (Crystal, 2013; Graddol, 2006; Neeley, 2012). Even in such Expanding-Circle countries as Indonesia, Brazil, and China, which were not part of the British Empire, significant percentages of public sector employers as well as private companies and NGOs report that English is used daily in their organization (British Council, 2013). Our 21st-century, internet-connected society “places a premium on the ability to communicate in a *lingua franca*” (Warschauer, 2000, p. 512), namely, English – not the English of native-speaker countries (Kachru, 1992, 2006) but the English that “belongs to everyone” (Crystal, 2008), known variously as English as a global language (Crystal, 2003), English as an international language (Pennycook, 1994), English as an international *lingua franca* (McKay, 2011), and Globish (McCrum, 2011).

We now live in a new era, “in a society with rapid changes, one that is already substantially different from the typical manufacturing base of the past. Therefore, it's prime time to reinterpret learning” (Hongyi, 2014). In the past, passing English national exams was the main objective of English classes in EFL contexts. However, this is no longer enough. As Graddol (2013) states, “in those countries where passing English exams has been made a condition of promotion or graduation, it has often led to considerable stress and resentment by learners, rather than significantly enhanced levels of proficiency” (Graddol, 2013, p. 84). In the 21st century, the goal should be to help students develop the kind of English proficiency that will enable them to function in the globally connected workplace, as “the ability to communicate in English is a requirement in a globalized economy” (EFEPI, 2013, p. 41). Thus, it is imperative that national exams, instruction, and assessments “be aligned with the goal of proficient English communication skills” (EFEPI, 2013, p. 41) to better respond to these needs.

As Canagarajah (2013) has stated, in this new era there is already an inevitable shift to new paradigms of teaching and assessment, in which “the changing pedagogical priorities suggest that we should focus on **language awareness** rather than **grammatical correctness** in a single variety; **strategies of negotiation** rather than mastery of **product-oriented rules**; pragmatics rather than **competence**” (2013, p. 8, original emphasis). That is, in the new global context, proficiency is more complex and fluid and, therefore, requires a new approach (Canagarajah, 2013). While the need to

shift to this new paradigm focused on the CLT is imperative, various and serious challenges remain for teachers and trainers.

VI. CONCLUSION

As EFL teacher-trainers, it is our responsibility to better inform teachers of effective methodologies that will allow their students to reach the required English proficiency levels to fully function in the various communicative contexts of the 21st –century workplace. However, it is the teachers' responsibility to assess these methodologies and to make the necessary adjustments to better suit their local and national traditions while also responding to global needs.

Studies like the present one help us deepen our understanding of local, national, and global needs so that we can better prepare future EFL teachers and better equip them to develop teaching and learning materials for their classrooms (Burns, 2013; Canagarajah, 2013). Only by thoroughly analyzing all components involved in the teaching and learning of EFL will we be able to develop a more sensitive pedagogy that respects local cultures while fulfilling the requirements of the globalized economy (Kumaravadivelu, 2012; McKay, 2010). Adopting these perspectives, will enable us to create a better future in a world without communication boundaries.

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APPENDIX

Interview questions:

1. Why did you choose to be a language teacher?
2. According to your teaching philosophy,
 - a) What is the role of the teacher?
 - b) What is the role of the students?
3. As an English teacher, what are your goals for your students?
4. What strategies do you use in the classroom to achieve these goals?
5. What is the role of the textbook and other materials you use?
6. What are the main problems or challenges that you face as a teacher?
7. What can you do to solve those problems or address those challenges?
8. How can you apply in your classroom what you have learned in this workshop?
9. What aspects of this workshop will you be able to incorporate in your teaching?
10. What are the main obstacles you may face while trying to implement in your country what you have learned in this workshop?
11. What does your ideal classroom look like?

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Mar á Luisa Spicer-Escalante is originally from Mexico. She earned a PhD in Spanish Linguistic from the University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign, in 2002. Serving on the linguistics faculty at Utah State University, Logan, since 2003, Dr. Spicer-Escalante has co-directed its Master of Second Language Teaching program since 2010. Her professional interests include teacher preparation, pedagogical aspects of second/dual language acquisition, bilingual writing, and sociolinguistics.

Karin deJonge-Kannan is originally from the Netherlands. She earned a PhD in Linguistics from Indiana University, Bloomington, in 1995. Serving on the linguistics faculty at Utah State University, Logan, since 2000, Dr. deJonge-Kannan has co-directed its Master of Second Language Teaching program since 2004. Her professional interests include teacher preparation, culture learning, and pragmatics.

The Suffering Minds: Cognitive Stylistic Approach to Characterization in “The Child-Who-Was-Tired” by Katherine Mansfield and “Sleepy” by Anton Chekhov

Elena Glotova

Department of English, North Ossetian State University, Vladikavkaz, Russia

Abstract—This article aims to examine the mind style of suffering protagonists in A. Chekhov’s “Sleepy” and K. Mansfield’s “The Child-Who-Was-Tired” in cognitive stylistic tradition (Semino 2002, 2006). The stories represent an interesting case of “Chekhovian influence” in Mansfield’s works in connection with the similarities in plot and setting. The analysis will demonstrate how cognitive stylistic approach to narrative fiction can advance literary interpretation by identifying the aspects of characterization of fiction individuals through their language, thoughts and behavior.

Index Terms—cognitive stylistics, mind style, metaphor, conceptual integration, input space, focaliser

I. INTRODUCTION

The present research demonstrates how a cognitive stylistic approach is suitable for the analysis of fictional minds in comparative perspective. The analysis has been conducted in the light of “a widespread cognitive turn in the history of literature” (Palmer, 2007), and aims to address the important issues of interpretation, as well as the nature of literary connections of two well-known early modern authors – a Russian writer and playwright Anton Chekhov, and a British short story writer Katherine Mansfield – whose works have long been the objects of cross-literary conflicting readings.

The study exploits the concept of a “mind style” (Fowler, 1977; Bockting, 1995; Semino, 2002; et al.) to describe the individual features of world-view that are cognitive in origin and include thinking, language and behavioral patterns that can be attributed to authors, narrators or characters. Considering the importance of the linguistic expressions of a particular conceptualization of the world, the value of metaphors is emphasized as one of the most powerful tools of human cognition for the construction of mind style.

The paper proceeds to a brief account of registered literary connections between Anton Chekhov and Katherine Mansfield with a focus on the selected short stories: “The-Child-Who-Was-Tired” by K. Mansfield, and “Sleepy” by A. Chekhov. Despite the presence of literary interpretations and analyses of short stories by A. Chekhov and K. Mansfield (Schneider, 1935; Alpers, 1980; McDonnell, 2010; Jones, 2011; Lelis, 2011; et al.), the selected stories have not been sufficiently explored from the point of view of cognitive stylistics, let alone in correlation and differentiation prospects. In particular, we shall focus on certain lexical, grammatical and syntactic representations of the protagonists’ mind style, and the idiosyncratic manifestations of their thinking and behavior, as stipulated by dramatic conditions. The paper will demonstrate, that application of cognitive linguistics to literary analysis can provide us with a set of tools to analyze the development of the individual traumatized mental functioning.

II. THEORETICAL ASPECTS OF FICTIONAL MINDS’ ANALYSIS

A. Cognitive Stylistics and Mind Style in Narrative Fiction

Cognitive stylistics is an advanced field on the crossroads of linguistics, cognitive science and literary studies that presupposes the integration of linguistic analysis with cognitive theories (Stockwell, 2002; Semino, 2002; Semino & Culpeper, 2002; Gavins & Steen, 2003; et al.). The term suggests the combination of a clear-cut linguistic analysis with a methodological and theoretically formed examination of “the cognitive structures and processes that underlie the production and reception of language” (Semino & Culpeper, 2002: ix). The application of cognitive stylistics to narrative fiction contributes to the understanding of fictional minds, and allows not only considering fictional worlds in connection with our real-world experience, but also comparing and contrasting the personalities, habits and events. Consequently, the use of principles and methods of cognitive stylistics in literary studies provides us the tools at the interface between linguistics and psychology. In such way narrative fiction characters are analyzed as “text-based mental models of possible individuals” (Margolin, 2007, p. 76), which are built in a reader’s mind.

The connection between literature and psychology is supported by Margaret Freeman, who suggests that literary texts are “the products of cognizing minds”, and identifies interpretations as “the products of other cognizing minds in the

context of the physical and socio-cultural worlds in which they have been created and read" (Freeman, 2000, p. 253). The necessity to apply "real-mind disciplines" to the study of fictional minds has been outlined by A. Palmer, who believes that readers understand fictional minds better when they consider them with the help of scholarship studies on psychology, philosophy and cognitive sciences (Palmer, 2007, p. 206). At the same time, J. Culpeper argues in favor of a "dual approach" to characterization that forms the background of cognitive stylistics and addresses both textual information and cognitive aspects (Culpeper, 2002).

Cognitive stylistics approach is suitable to explain the linguistic construction of world-view in texts. The formation of reality in one's mind is covered by the notion of "mind style" in fiction narratives, which was coined by R. Fowler (1977) in reference to "any distinctive linguistic representation on an individual mental self" (p. 103). A number of engaging works on the functioning of fictional minds in a wide range of story include the extended analyses of a narrator's and the authorial mind styles by Halliday (1971), Bockting (1995), Semino and Swindlehurst (1996), Semino (2002), Leech and Short (2007), et al. The notion of "mind style" can be accounted for to analyze the aspects of world-view of particular real or fictional individuals with similar age and/or status characteristics in comparative perspective, where those aspects that are shared and culture-dependent can be distinguished from the ones dependent on one's individual cognition and experience. In addition, non-standard thinking and behavior can be conditioned on specific atmosphere (e.g. external abuse, physical or mental detriment), which can account for certain deviations from norm.

The insights on fictional minds proceed from the complex network of character perspectives. Such awareness of the existence of "the other" mental functioning, and the ability for interpretation and understanding of other people's minds in the real world has been described within the Theory of Mind (ToM) framework. The term has been extended and revised from psychology, where it mainly refers to the ability to understand "that other have beliefs about the world that are different from your own", to the realm of literary scholarship, where ToM has become a tool to comprehend the relations "between characters in a text, between characters in a text and readers, and between narrator and reader" (Stockwell, 2009, p. 4).

Since the story world of the character is presented by the narrator, there is a question of how the reader should consider the character's own voice represented from the third-person narration. In discussing the reference of narrative to psychological states of the characters – their feelings, emotions, thoughts, etc., Leech and Short (2007) make use of the notion of a "reflector" for "the person whose fictional point of view is represented", but admit that the term "focaliser" has recently become more popular and relevant for this role (p. 139). Correspondingly, this study regards the verbal and non-verbal manifestations of the main characters, and assumes them to be the focalisers who represent the events and situations, and bring the reader to their inner world through the language of the narrator.

B. Metaphor and the Application of Cognitive Theories to the Study of Narrative Fiction

Considering the high value of lexical items in the representation of fictional minds, special attention is given to how the use of figurative language in general and metaphor in particular and contribute to the projection and explication of fictional mind style. The comprehension of metaphor as a process of thought (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; 1999; Lakoff & Turner, 1989; et al.) gave it a central place in theories of human cognition and communication. Consequently, metaphor has attracted particular attention in the studies of narrative fiction (Turner, 1991; Semino & Swindlehurst, 1996; Semino, 2002; Zunshine, 2006; Palmer, 2007; et al.) from linguistic, philosophical and cognitive perspectives.

Cognitive Metaphor theory (CMT) has provided a set of tools to consider metaphors in the light of individual mental functioning (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980; Lakoff & Turner, 1989). The theory can account for the correspondences between the source and target domains, but finds it difficult to explain the particular meanings of certain metaphor instantiations. In this case, a more recent development in the field of cognitive linguistics – the Conceptual Integration theory (CIT) - is applied to resolve this dilemma. The Conceptual Integration (or Blending) theory (Fauconnier & Turner, 1998; 1999; Coulson & Oakley, 2000; Grady, Oakley & Coulson, 1999) builds on research on mental spaces (Fauconnier, 1985/1994), i.e. small conceptual packets that are interconnected and can be used "to model dynamic mappings in thought and language" (Fauconnier & Turner, 1998a, p. 137). It is an important addition to CMT, since it offers a theoretical background necessary to see how simple metaphors are combined to form composite metaphors, and engages with a broad variety of cognitive processes, including metonymy and simile (Radden & Kövecses, 1999; Fludernik, 2010).

The theory suggests that there are at minimum four "mental spaces": two "input spaces", a "generic space", and a "blended space" that contain the thematically relevant elements from each "input space". The result is a blending network in which the "input spaces" are mapped into each other on the basis of shared generic properties. In order to get the right inferences one needs to project frame structure from both inputs to organize the blend. In such way the structure of the blend incorporates the elements from all inputs and develops a completely new emergent structure. The blend (or the newly created space) must possess this structure and at the same time must contain "relevant information for projection back to the inputs" (Fauconnier & Turner, 1998b, p. 280).

Both Cognitive Metaphor and Conceptual Integration theories has been explored in cognitive stylistics (Freeman, 2002; Hamilton, 2002), and in particular in the analysis of narrative fiction (Semino & Swindlehurst, 1996; Fludernik, 2010; Semino, 2002; 2006; Alonso, 2004 et al.). For example, P. Alonso explores the applicability of conceptual network model to the analysis of John Updike's short story "The Wallet", and the efficiency of Fauconnier and Turner's theory for cognitive analysis in text interpretation (Alonso, 2004).

III. MANSFIELD AND CHEKHOV IN THE LIGHT OF LITERARY CONNECTIONS: FOREGROUNDING ARGUMENTS

Katherine Mansfield's comparison with Anton Chekhov primarily comes from the minimal dependence on traditional approach to plot, and the focus on a single situation in which reality is interrupted by a crisis (May, 1999, p. 154). The history of "Chekhovian legacy" in Mansfield's famous short stories originates from one of her most curious debut writings "The Child-Who-Was-Tired" (1910), which is often compared to Chekhov's earlier "Спать хочется" (1888) (or "Sleepy" in C. Garnett's translation). Both stories carry consistent similarities in plot and setting, and represent an account of child abuse, sleep deprivation, hard labor, and a resulting baby murder.

After considering the existing popular studies on Mansfield and Chekhov literary connections (Schneider, 1935; "The Times Literary Supplement" debate by post (1951), published by Tomalin, 1987; Sutherland, 1955; Tomalin, 1987; New, 1999; McDonnell, 2010), we outline the following important arguments: first, apart from certain disagreements, most literary critics recognize the influence of Chekhov on Mansfield, which is especially notable in comparative readings of "The Child-Who-Was-Tired" and "Sleepy", and second, both stories describe the idiosyncratic peculiarities of individual mental functioning that require additional exploration in the light of cognitive approach to narrative studies.

It should be noted that novel approaches to fiction which touch upon the cognitive aspects of character representation and understanding have forwarded the necessity to reconsider and carry out a more specific analysis of the issues, that to date have received insignificant attention. For example, Sutherland (1955) takes notice of the subjective visions "created by the troubled mind" of the Child, or the states of semi-consciousness that the characters of both stories slip in, but does not address the construction of the characters' mental worlds. Since characters result from text interpretation on the part of the reader and the linguistic organization within the text, "purely textual account" of characters might not be enough for text interpretation (Culpeper, 2002). The plot itself involves an idiosyncratic murder case, committed by a child in a distorted mental condition, which outlines the importance to address cognitive alongside with canonical literary aspects.

By using cognitive stylistics approach to narrative fiction, the study attempts to suggest a model that can be applied to characterization, and develop a supplement to the existing interpretations. It proceeds to a comparative analysis of "The Child-Who-Was-Tired" and "Sleepy", the latter accompanied by C. Garnett's translation into English (Garnett, 1921) that is seen as the most precise in re-expression of Chekhov's form and meaning. Specifically in focus of the analysis is the development of the protagonists' idiosyncratic mental functioning during the formation and realization of the crime pattern – the murder of the baby.

IV. VARKA'S MIND STYLE IN ANTON CHEKHOV'S "SLEEPY": DISTORTED THINKING AND BLENDED NETWORKS

In this study the first step leading to the explication of the protagonist's mind style is the account of the environment that influences its formation. Varka's mental activities are strongly affected by the surroundings, including the relations with her Masters - the shoemaker and his wife.

From the first pages of the story one can see that the atmosphere in the household is dark and suffocating in the literal and figurative sense: "It is stuffy. There is a smell of cabbage soup, and of the inside of a boot-shop" («Душно. Пахнет щами и сапожным товаром» (7)). In addition, Varka experiences permanent maltreatment from her masters, who keep her in a state of terror, speechless and submissive. This includes (a) physical abuse: "all at once someone hits her on the back of her head so hard that her forehead knocks against a birch tree" («кто-то бьет ее по затылку с такой силой, что она стучается головой о березу» (9)); "he gives her a slap behind the ear" «он больно треплет ее за ухо» (9); (b) verbal abuse, when the girl is referred to as "scabby slut" or "wretched girl" ("паршивая" (9), "подлая" (10)); (c) constant shouting and brusque angry orders to bring the wood, do the washing and cleaning, buy food, rock the baby. The shoemaker and his wife «the stout, broad-shouldered woman» ("толстая, плечистая хозяйка" (10)) only address her in the imperative, and even her name is pronounced in a derogatory manner which is accounted for by the use of suffix "k" in her name as "Varka" (e.g. not the common Varia, Varvara, or the affectionate diminutive Varienka).

Varka's verbal behavior is limited to her lullaby ("Hush-a-bye, my baby wee, While I sing a song for thee" («Баю-баюшки-баю, А я песенку спую...» (7)), and an inquiry "What is that for?" ("Зачем это?" (7)) which she says in her dream at the sight of passers-by. The girl's lullaby resembles more a murmur than a song, and represents a monotonous semi-conscious repetition that reflects her tiredness and despair. The character's constrained linguistic patterns shift our focus on to Varka's physical state, thoughts, visions and imaginings that fall under the influence of the surroundings. Since Varka is the focaliser, her state of mind is rendered through the narrator's language. It is evident, that at times the girl falls into a dream in which she sees "a broad high road covered with liquid mud" («шоссе, покрытое жидкой грязью» (9)), peasants with wallets on their backs, her late father Yefim Stepanov and her mother Pelageya. Her dream is chronologically organized and reflects two major periods in her life: the tormenting death of her father, and their long walk with her mother to the town in search of a job. Varka's dream is hard, depressive, and full of anxiety; her reminiscences drive her to tears.

Varka's exhaustion and drowsiness leads to her performed recognition of the actual world, when objects expand in her traumatized mind: "She sits down on the floor, cleans the goloshes, and thinks how nice it would be to put her head into a deep big golosh, and have a little nap in it. ...And all at once the golosh grows, swells, fills up the whole room.

Varka drops the brush, but at once shakes her head, opens her eyes wide, and tries to look at things so that they may not grow big and move before her eyes” («Она садится на пол, чистит калоши и думает, что хорошо бы сунуть голову в большую, глубокую калошу и подремать в ней немножко ... И вдруг калоша растет, пухнет, наполняет собой всю комнату. Варька роняет щетку, но тот час же встряхивает головой, пучит глаза и старается глядеть так, чтобы предметы не росли и не двигались в ее глазах» (10-11)). The reader is given an account of the relation between the outer world and an individual that is trying to make sense of it. The relation emphasis is found on the repetition of the words of physical and mental perception (пахнет, кажется, видит, понимает, узнает – there is a smell, she feels as though, sees, understands, recognises). A number of expressions is used to describe the state of her mind through the descriptions of her brain – her visions “take possession of her brain” («овладевают ее мозгом» (9)), “cloud her brain” (туманят мозг (10)). Varka’s brain is “half slumbering” (наполовину уснувший (7)), and her eyes are “half open” («полуоткрытые» (7)), which explicates her semi-consciousness, and incomplete functioning in the actual text world.

It is assumed that being a physician by profession, Anton Chekhov was aware of the dramatic consequences of overwork and inadequate sleep quality, and gave a realistic account of the sufferer’s state. Scientific data from modern “real-world” psychology suggest that sleep deficit in children and adolescents can have a serious negative effect on cognitive functioning, attention and behavior (e.g. Dahl, 1996; Sadeh, 2007).

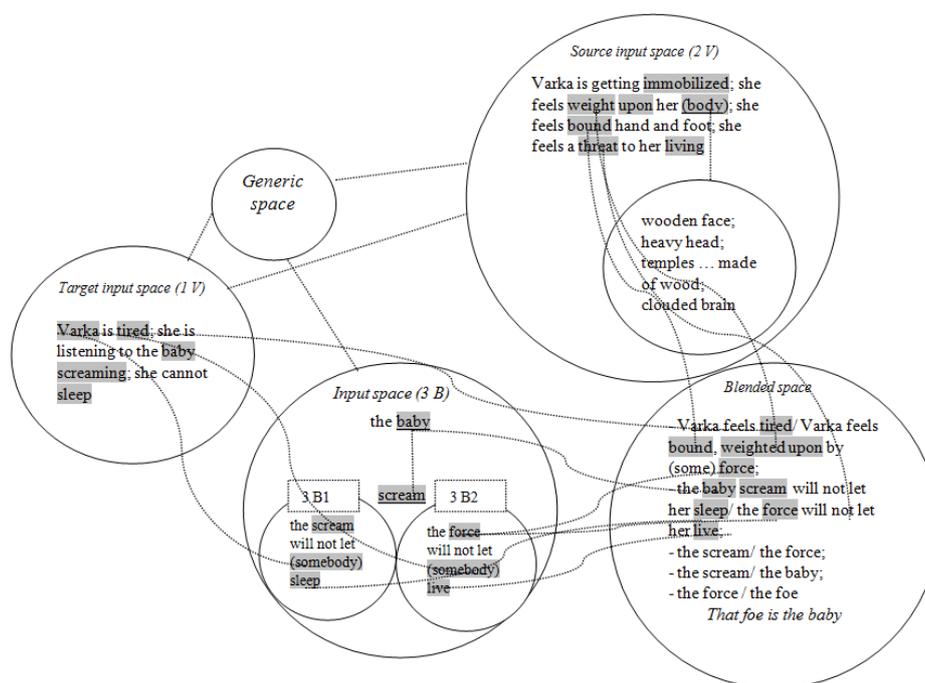
Finally the study proceeds to the most dramatic and controversial event in the story – the murder of the baby. The influence of external factors, such as the oppressive atmosphere and bullying of the masters, the overwork, the baby’s disturbing screaming, and constant sleep deprivation resulted in the development in Varka’s mind of a certain delusionary scenario, represented through simile, metaphor and metonymy operating on the narrative level. Since any distinctive linguistic or behavioral portrayal of an individual mental self requires specific consideration (Fludernik, 2010), the focus remains on a particular way in which Varka sees the baby before killing it, as shown in the following example (1): “She understands everything, she recognizes everyone, but through her half sleep she cannot understand the force which binds her, weights upon her, and prevents her from living. She looks round, searches for that force that she may escape from it, but she cannot find it. At last, tired to death, she does her very utmost, strains her eyes, looks up at the flickering green patch, and listening to the screaming, finds the foe who will not let her live. That foe is the baby” («Она все понимает, всех узнает, но сквозь полусон она не может только никак понять той силы, которая сковывает ее по рукам и по ногам, давит ее и мешает ей жить. Она оглядывается, ищет эту силу, чтобы избавиться от нее, но не находит. Наконец, измучившись, она напрягает все свои силы и зрение, глядит вверх на мигающее зеленое пятно и, прислушиваясь к крику, находит врага, мешающего ей жить. Этот враг – ребенок» (11-12)). The problem relies with the incompatibility of the baby, and a “binding force” that Varka decides to eliminate. This image of a “foe” is preceded by a complicated network of concepts that reflect the girl’s self-perception through a certain traumatic prism, and promote the necessity of doing away with her challenge. This complicated network can be accounted for by Conceptual Integration theory of Fauconnier and Turner (1998). Blending will help to explain how the scenarios from certain multiple source and target domains merge in Varka’s mind to create her perception of the self, the corresponding image of the baby, and the necessity of the girl to assure her survival by killing her “enemy”.

The process that resulted in creation of “the baby as danger” scenario can be accounted for in terms of two double-scope networks that involves the following: (1) a generic space that contains the basic structure common to the two input domains (one entity is interacting with another one, undergoes a set of negative changes to her physical and mental state, and feels extreme threat to her existence coming from another entity), (2) two input spaces containing the elements for Varka’s actual state (the target input space 1V), and the “immobilized” and “dehumanized” state she gradually turns into, corresponding to the source input space (2V); (3) a complex input space containing the “screaming baby” elements (3B), with the metonymic connections between the baby and his scream, where the scream (target input space 3B1) is metaphorically conceptualized as a dangerous “force” (source input space 3B2); (4) a blended space in which the elements from the girl’s “actual body”, her “immobilized body”, and “the baby” input spaces merge into a single scenario on the basis of cross-domain correspondences of the shared structure.

There is a series of analogical mappings between the conceptual structure taken from the domains of Varka’s “human state”, and the “immobilizing” and “dehumanizing” condition that she feels due to sleep deprivation. Since the conceptualization concerns Varka’s physical state and describes the “located” processes that are gradually transferring from single parts to the whole body, we can speak about gradation from metonymy to metaphor in the narrative (i.e., from the girl’s brain to her whole body). Judging by Varka’s subjective descriptions of her state, the source input space is the scenario where she feels “as though her face is dried and wooden, as though her head has become as small as the head of a pin” («ей кажется, что лицо ее высохло и одеревенело, что голова стала маленькой, как булабочная головка» (7)). As Varka is becoming more and more sleepy, her head is getting “heavy”, she “presses her temples that feel as though they were made of wood” («Варька сжимает себе деревенеющие виски» (11)); her subjective feelings are concentrated on her face and head, and she finds it hard to cope with her state. Little by little this state spreads to the whole body of the little nurse, tending to completely immobilize her, when she feels that something “binds her, hand and foot” and then “weights upon her, and prevents her from living”.

A complex network of input spaces refers to the “force” that Varka finally decides to eliminate. It should be noted, that from the beginning of the text Varka’s perception of the baby is mostly relied on the sensory (namely acoustic) connections, and is fused in hallucinatory visions of her dream, which is reflected in a set of similes at the beginning of the story: “She sees dark clouds chasing one another over the sky, and screaming like the baby” («Она видит темные облака, которые гоняются друг за другом по небу и кричат, как ребенок» (8)); “crows and magpies sit on the telegraph wires, scream like the baby...” («вороны и сороки кричат, как ребенок» (8)). Although the following conceptualizations are not included in the network, they indicate the foundation for “the baby as danger” scenario.

As Varka’s state progresses from bad to worse and the masters go to bed, she is denied her well-deserved rest and is given the final order to rock the baby to sleep. She constantly hears the baby screaming, and “listening to the screaming” semi-consciously perceives the scream as a “force” that prevents her from falling asleep. The input scenario reflects the interaction of metaphor and metonymy, where the metonymic link between the baby and its “scream” is preceded by the metaphoric conceptualization of the scream as a dangerous force. At first Varka uses a metaphoric scenario relating the scream to the “binding force” and upon identifying it comes across a dilemma of doing away with it in the shortest possible way (the “force” prevents her from falling asleep, which in context of her sub-world acquires the meaning of “living”). To “stop” the force she reconstructs the metonymic relationship between the scream and the baby, and transfers the “part” for the “whole” qualities, from the scream on to the (screaming) baby. Exhaustion from the baby’s scream makes her identify the baby as “a foe” that “binds her hand and foot”, further realized in the blend.



Conceptual network for example (1)

Thus, the blend emerges from the fusion of metonymic and metaphoric material from multiple input spaces into a single scenario based on the cross-domain correspondences and shared generic structure, and provides a frame not available in the source or target domains. There is selective projection from all the inputs, leading to a novel frame in the conceptual integration structure: although there are no direct references to the girl in the “baby” and “force” source and target domains, the organizing frame of the blend has the complete structure of the interacting elements. In such way the blend becomes a novel model that is not present in the inputs - the screaming baby becomes a foe that is “binding” the nurse hand and foot and threatens her existence. It is only in the blend that an idiosyncratic scenario is constructed, where Varka’s state, the scream and the baby acquire specific causal-effect connections, and, as Chekhov prompts it point blank, represent a “hallucination” (“ложное представление” (12)) – a false pattern of the girl’s challenge. Varka solves her problem by mapping the two entities, and “runs the blend” by deciding to kill the baby. In such way blending theory makes it possible to explicate the growing complexity of Varka’s conceptual system, and the construction of crime in her distorted mind.

V. THE CHILD’S MIND STYLE IN KATHERINE MANSFIELD “THE CHILD-WHO-WAS-TIRED”: COMMUNICATIVE BEHAVIOR AND ERRORS OF LOGIC

In Mansfield’s “The Child-Who-Was-Tired” the reader is introduced to the protagonist from the very beginning of the story, when she is seen her in a state of semi-consciousness walking “along a little white road with tall black trees

on either side". The thoughts of the Child can be examined for the errors of logic under the influence of external conditions.

Same as Varka in Chekhov's story, the Child suffers from the maltreatment, which includes (a) physical abuse ("... a hand gripped her shoulder, shook her, slapped her ear" (757), "It wasn't me – it wasn't me!" screamed the Child, beaten from one side of the hall to the other, so that the potatoes and beetroot rolled out of her skirt" (762)); (b) verbal abuse, exposed in such phrases as "you good-for-nothing brat" (758); "sleeping... like a sack of potatoes" (758), "swine of a day – swine's life" (759); (c) verbal threats – "get up and light the oven or I'll shake every bone out of your body" (758); "don't guzzle (the bread) yourself or I'll know" (758); "If you don't keep that baby quiet you'll know why later on. (765)" The description of the situation the Child finds herself in is closely related to her emotional and physical state, and helps to assess her mind style.

The atmosphere in the house is overwhelmingly aggressive as in relation to the little servant, as to the other children in the household. Doors are "pulled violently open", the Frau exhibits aggressive behavior on her own children and gives the Child an undeserved punishment. As a result, the children are either "subdued" by the parents, or incessantly crying, howling, abusing and fighting one another.

The Child is constantly trying to escape to fantasy as a way to self-manage her tormenting situation. She seems to lose any hope of support from the outside and at times is walking "along a little white road with tall black trees on either side..." which appears in the text four times. This sentence reflects the textual and cognitive aspects of the protagonist's characterization, since, on the one hand, it structures the text and symbolizes "the release and protection that the Child desires" (Sutherland, 1955, p. 42), and on the other gives an access to the child's mental world and accounts for her inability to sustain the sense of reality and distinguish between the fantasy-reality boundaries. The Child's references to the road can be viewed as a means of escapism, which, according to Tuan (1998) and Evans (2001) is an avoidance of the "real" world in its various manifestations. With the Child, the reality, dream and fantasy merge into consciousness: "Perhaps", thought the Child-Who-Was-Tired, "if I walked far enough up this road I might come to a little white one, with tall black trees on either side - a little road –" (764).

Throughout the text one can recognize delusive imagery appearing in her mind, including the personification of household objects: "The oven took a long time to light. Perhaps it was cold, like herself, and sleepy..." (758). Figures grow and diminish in the Child's distorted vision: the Frau is "as big as a giant", and by the end of the day "the Man and the Frau seemed to swell to an immense size as she watched them, and then become smaller than dolls, with little voices that seemed to come from outside the window" (764). In terms of physical state the Child is constantly "cold", "sleepy", evidently experiencing pain from heavy beatings, undernourished (the master harshly warns her against eating some bread from the kitchen table), with "thin arms", shaking hands, feeling "heavy".

Same in the case of autistic Benjy from Faulkner's "The Sound and the Fury" (Bockting, 1995), the Child's specific mental anomaly from childbirth categorizes the character, and must be taken into account when analyzing her mind style. Specifically the statement of the Frau and one of her companions that the child was "half-silly" (764) and "seldom right in her head" (765) due to her baby trauma will be regarded as a possible indicator of the individual's mind style.

The fact that the Child has a simple mind correspondent to her age and status is supported by her specific use of vocabulary and syntax, as well as the things she takes literally, figuratively, and the things she misunderstands. The Child's speech is characterized with the idiosyncratic use of onomatopoeic interjections that display negative emotions, fear and frustration: "oh", "oh, weh!", "ts-ts-ts". Their presence in the text is twofold – for the purpose of structuring, and explication of the character's attitude. Her "lullaby" to the baby more resembles hissing ("ts-ts-ts"), and is repeated five times in the narrative. The onomatopoeic interjections of the Child correspond to the category of "underlexicalization" (a lack of term or a set of terms), which is marked "by two alternative linguistic devices: either the noticeable suppression of a term or the substitution of a noticeably complex expression for what in other registers would be a simple term" (Fowler, 1986, p.152), when the individual finds it difficult to access the term or is unaware of the concepts concerned. This speaks for the decreasing clarity of articulation, and results in the parenthetic effect in the expression of her exhausted state.

Another feature of the Child's communicative behavior is the tautological repetitions that explicate her nervousness and appeal to be heard, since repetition originates in the "excitement accompanying the expression of a feeling that is brought to its highest tension" (Vandries, 1937, p. 147). Anaphors are observed in the use of onomatopoeic interjections, and exclamations that the Child uses to show frustration in her communication with the other small children in the family (Oh, weh! Oh, weh!" (761)), as well as her fear in interacting with the masters ("it wasn't me – it wasn't me!" (762)). The Child's dominant lexical field consists of expressions for child-caring: "eye-teeth", "baby", "wash... piggy clothes", "dribble", and the vocabulary forming her "dream world", with "a little white road, with tall black trees on either side", also represented in her thinking.

Although there is no particular complexity in her choice of words, we see no record of the abnormal simplicity in her vocabulary, which is indicated by the presence of abstract and polysyllabic words in general, and concrete nouns, evaluative adjectives and the verbs of perception and cognition in particular.

In terms of grammar she makes faults (e.g. omission of an auxiliary verb) that might be characteristic to children and suggest insufficient education – "I never seen a baby dribble like this one" (759); "Two babies getting eye teeth..." (760).

Throughout the story we see the Child's tendency in giving the sequences of coordinated main clauses together instead of the subordinated clauses: "He's cutting his eye teeth, that's what makes him cry so. And dribble – I never seen a dribble like this one" (759); "... Some babies get their teeth without you knowing it", she went on, "and some take on this way all the time. I once heard of a baby that died, and they found all his teeth in his stomach" (759) (my underlining – E.G.). This phenomenon speaks for the tendency of children "to string sequences of paratactic and coordinated main clauses together instead of resorting to subordination or sentence division" (Leech & Short, 2007, p. 165). The Child's frustration is exemplified by the anaphoric use of a simple sentence with an omitted auxiliary and two relative clauses upon hearing the news that there is another baby on the way: "Two babies getting eye teeth – two babies to get up for the night – two babies to carry about and wash their little piggy clothes" (760). As we shall argue later in the study, the news is a turning point in her perception of events. On assuming more work to do the Child starts catastrophizing the situation, and her actions go through the prism of distorted perception of reality.

Thus, the examination of the Child's lexis and syntax does indicate uncomplicated thinking and patterns typical for children of her age, but does not show a considerable mental pathology, which suggests that her masters' calling her "seldom right in her head" rather explicates a derogatory attitude to the little servant. The partial retardation in her speech can be accounted for anxiety and intimidation. The story was one of Mansfield's initial attempts at writing, and if she had an idea to represent a demented child she was not very convincing in it and rather created an ambiguous character.

Regarding the most dramatic episode in the story, i.e. the murder of the baby, it is believed that the Child's act was stipulated not only by the necessity to get some rest, as in the case of Chekhov's protagonist, but more specifically by her lack of theory of mind, and the news that she received from the master of another baby on the way.

At first, the Child displays errors of logic in the ability to know that other people know, believe or want. She assumes by mistake that the baby "knows" (765) of her tiredness but doesn't stop crying on purpose, which in her eyes makes the baby responsible for her exhaustion.

Second, on hearing the news of the Frau's another pregnancy, the Child that she falls into a state of shock, standing "quiet silently" for some time. A novel model is framed in her mind aggravated by her physical and emotional state – she unreasonably catastrophizes the situation and sees one baby as two, consequently assuming her work to double. She looks in "contemptuous loathing" and with "horror" at the baby, who seems "to understand" it and starts screaming "violently". Later throughout the day, the tormenting idea of another baby is exposed through her speech: "... there is going to be another soon, and you can't both keep on crying." (762), and the figurative imagery that comes to her mind on seeing a shade on the wall: "There was a little piece of candle burning in the enamel bracket. As she walked up and down she saw her great big shadow on the wall like a grown-up person with a grown-up baby. Whatever would it look like when she carried two babies so!" (765). The baby even appears with "two heads, and then no head" (764) in her distorted mind. Before murdering the baby she discards any hope of putting him to sleep: "If I was not so tired perhaps I could do it; but the baby just knows that I want to go to sleep. And there is going to be another one." (765)

Consequently, the Child calls the baby "silly", "funny", "little" and "ugly", and compares him with "a duck with his head off, wriggling" (766) when she strangles him with a bolster. The Child's metaphoric reference to the baby murder as (putting to) "sleep" by force ("lie there, silly one; you will go to sleep..." (766)) is also manifested by the author's use of italics emphasizing the auxiliary "will". It possesses a euphemistic function, which allows the Child to avoid a more direct and disturbing definition of her act.

VI. DISCUSSION: COMPARING THE SUFFERING MINDS

Considering the proximity of the two texts in the outline, mood and detail almost to the degree of "free translation" (Tomalin, 1987), it was interesting to regard the cognitive peculiarities of the personality construction in comparative perspective.

Mental processes of a fictional individual include her intentions, desires, feelings, emotions, and any narrative aspects, that can assist in exploring her mind. The background and environment for character-formation are important causal-consecutive factors that are needed to be taken into account in regarding the mind styles of the suffering individuals. Primarily, both characters are shown as traumatized by previous experiences: Varka is tormented by the painful reminiscences of her father's death and poverty, whereas the Child's mother tried to murder her because she was "freeborn", and presumably left her "half-silly".

The cases of "Sleepy" and "The-Child-Who-Was-Tired" are a unique exposition of how constant abuse and sleep deprivation can lead to mental suppression and produce the faulty understanding of processes in the actual text world. Consequently, similarities in subjective physical sensations are manifested in their expressions of heaviness and pain. The Child's speech is characterized by a certain degree of underlexicalization, with an idiosyncratic use of onomatopoeic interjections that include her "lullaby". However, in spite of this idiosyncrasy, her choice of words does not indicate a speech pathology. In comparison, Varka's non-verbal behavior is practically absent, and is only revealed through her more vocalized and coherent lullaby and a brief question that she asks in her semi-conscious dream.

In both stories the reality exists in the sub-domains – the private semi-conscious sub-worlds of the characters, where one counterfactual world is embedded within another. Varka's "dream world" is hard, dramatic, and, assuming the reliability and credibility of her account, is showing her unhappy life of a peasant in an actual story world. In contrast,

the Child's sub-world in Mansfield's text more resembles a fantasy tale in which she is trying to escape from the unpleasant reality. Rewriting Chekhov, Mansfield "employs the dream in a different way that helps to demonstrate her efforts at making Chekhov's story her own" (McDonnell, 2010, p. 20).

Special attention is given to the striking episode that at first glance completely assimilates Varka and the Child, i.e. the murder of the baby. On the one hand, both girls display cognitive deviation from the common-sense view of things and perceive the baby as an evil-related entity. On the other, however, the explication of the characters' mind style has revealed peculiar patterns in shaping their subjective "reasons" for killing the baby. The interesting thing about these patterns is that they are based on different reasoning.

Varka's perception of the baby is based on acoustic connections. For her the baby and his scream merge into a single entity, and appear in forms of hallucinatory sensations that threaten her being. Metaphoric interpretation of the representation in the blended space is grounded on the metonymic identification of the baby through its scream, which shows that Varka's act, driven by trauma and exhaustion, was initially targeted at terminating the noise, but not killing the baby.

The Child's act is stimulated by two major logical errors that promoted the gradual formation of her negative attitude towards the baby. One is the false impression that the baby "knows" about how tired she was, which signals of her disrupted mind-modeling skills. The other is the news of the Frau's pregnancy, when the Child immediately starts catastrophizing the situation, repeatedly imagining a lot more work and less sleep with "two babies to care for..." The unrealistic images and derogatory lexicalization of the baby are expressed through the Child's thinking and speech. In her mind he becomes downgraded as "silly" and "ugly", and further dehumanized as "a duck with his head off, wriggling" when she strangles him.

As far as the protagonists' metaphoric thinking is concerned, another group of metaphors calls for comparison – "sleep as life" for Varka, and "death as sleep" for the Child. Both metaphors deserve attention since they signify the deciding points in the mental processes of the fictional minds. For Varka all her existence is concentrated in her desire to sleep, with manifests itself in her conceptualization of sleeping as "living". The Child refers to the baby's death as "sleeping", thus evading the harsh reality or more specific conceptualizations.

It is obvious that the baby murder presents a certain challenge to the initial sympathetic attitude to Varka or the Child. However, the readers do not alienate their sympathies from the characters and leave the previous frame even if the new one contradicts it in the reverse of roles from "victim" to "aggressor". Instead, they try to consider the new material as parallel, "including, or contrasting with old material, and by extending it in a certain direction (Bockting, 1995: 48-49). This accounts for the fact that the reader is not supposed to judge Varka or the Child, and they remain the sufferers in their tough story world. Moreover their evasive dreams in the end of the stories are but temporary, and their future in the families is dim and terrifying.

VII. CONCLUSION

The comparative analysis of "Sleepy" and "The Child-Who-Was-Tired" has shown that constructing a similar protagonist along the analogous plot of the story does not guarantee the same cognitive characteristics of this protagonist. Even if Mansfield "borrowed" the plot from Chekhov, she created a completely unique mental set with individually specific conceptualizations of similar events, subjective motives and reasoning. By looking at the representation of the characters' mind styles in both stories, it is possible to distinguish those aspects that are shared from those that rely on individual cognitive abilities and experiences. Both Varka and the Child are the individuals with traumatized minds, whose desire to get some sleep has a dramatic outcome. However, where Varka's murder of the baby is more spontaneous and semi-conscious, the Child acts on precautionary reasons stipulated by logical errors.

Cognitive stylistics methods provide a necessary supplement to a specifically literary analysis which might lack in a psychological exposition of the characters' mentality. Chekhov's "Sleepy" and Mansfield's "The Child-Who-Was-Tired" offer interesting psychological aspects that require the combination of linguistic approach and the theories of cognition. At the same time, since the stories are make-believe, the psychological features of the characters, acting on the crossroads of rational and irrational, real and semi-conscious, "border on poetry" in their representation of suffering, solitude and escape.

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Elena Glotova graduated from the Department of English of North Ossetian State University in Russia in 2005. In 2011 she was awarded a Candidate of Philology degree in theory of language studies and Germanic languages at Southern Federal University in

Rostov-on-Don. She was a visiting researcher and ERASMUS student at Humboldt University in Berlin; taught lexicology, EFL and TEFL courses at North Ossetian State University. Her current research interests include linguistics, cognitive stylistics, literary studies, TEFL and medical humanities. The present study was supported by ERASMUS (Aurora Consortium, Ref. 372117-1-2012-1 FI-ERA Mundus-EMA21).

Adjective to Verb Zero Derivation in English and Macedonian: Reconsidering the Importance of Cognition in Understanding This Word Formation Process

Marjana Vaneva

School of Foreign Languages, University American College Skopje, Skopje, R. Macedonia

Abstract—Zero derivation is a word formation process when the lexemes before and after the process, most often, when talking about clear or genuine types of zero-derivation, share the same form, display similar, expanded meaning, but belong to different lexical categories or subcategories - a characteristic conditioned by adding a zero affix to the first lexeme. Of the several types of zero derivation and the directions of this process that can be distinguished, for this paper the change from adjective to verb lexical category has been chosen to be analysed, by using the cognitive approach. The source, adjectival lexeme is zero derived in the target, verbal element and, when compared and contrasted, both lexemes are formally identical, in analytic languages, like English, but with inflectional modifications in synthetic languages, like Macedonian, displaying a lexical category change and semantic expansion. The aim of the paper is to show that cognition indeed helps in understanding this process in both English and Macedonian. The corpus consists of lexemes taken from reliable English and Macedonian dictionaries, while the elements undergo morphological and semantic analysis. The findings are applicable in any linguistic research which upgrades itself on the nature of the process in these languages.

Index Terms—zero derivation, cognition, adjective, verb, English, Macedonian

I. INTRODUCTION

Adjectives are parts of speech that describe the noun, while verbs name actions, but the process of zero derivation, which by definition means deriving a new lexeme that belongs to a new lexical (sub) category, with the same form, and with a similar, expanded meaning, makes the lexemes close to each other by connecting them cognitively. Namely, like in every kind of learning, so in this, the cognitive approach is very successful and productive, when on the basis of the meaning of the source word, we conceive the new lexeme. Most, if not all, cognitive linguists agree with Lakoff and Johnson (1980), who say that metaphor is the basic element in our categorization of the world and in the thinking processes. Therefore, metaphor is used as a tool for semantic expansion of the word, when from one domain, the meaning of one lexeme is mapped into another domain. In that way, even the most distant and superficially non-connectible meanings are connected.

People learn by finding similarities between the new words and the prototype of the given category, and this leads to the understanding that the word meaning is analysed on the basis of its similarity with the prototype. According to Rosch (1977)'s research, all semantic variants of one lexeme are connected with the prototype through closer and more distant links by using metaphor, while the participants in the conversation act understand the abstract concepts by using their physical experience.

In English, Bauer (1983) is only one of the many authors who talks about zero derivation and lists some zero derived forms from adjective to verb, such as: **better, dirty, empty, faint, open, right, total** (p. 226).

This transfer from one to another category is explained with a zero morph, whose existence is claimed by some linguists when they try to explain the functional difference between homophones and these new formations. The explanation is that when there is no obvious change in the word form there is an affix that marks that change. For instance, **empty** does not have an obvious affix but it has a zero morph, which comes at the end of the word and the result is **empty** + \emptyset , thus marking the word as a verb. It is needless to say that the zero morph is a controversial issue, because it is accepted in inflectional cases when paralleling the other forms in a paradigm requires an affix.

According to Saeed (1997), the linguistic knowledge is part of the general cognition, and the cognitive linguists emphasise the difference between formal and functional approach towards the language (p. 299). The first, formal approach is often connected with the understanding that the knowledge of linguistic structures and rules forms an autonomous model, independent of the other mental processes of attention, memory and thinking. For the other, functional approach, distinguishing linguistic levels harms our language conceptions, because syntax can never be independent of semantics and pragmatics.

Hurford and Heasley (1983) maintain that when analyzing zero derivation not one, but three processes should be considered: morphological (when the form of the word changes, by adding a prefix or suffix), syntactic (when the part of speech changes) and semantic (when new meaning is derived) (p. 206).

But, although Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech and Svartvik (1985) for this process use the name *conversion* instead of *zero derivation*, they firmly claim that it is a derivation process, when a new word class is derived without adding an affix (p. 2558). This absolutely goes in line with what Bauer (1983) says, that is, the change in form class happens without any corresponding change of form (p. 32). Katamba (1994) is one more author who takes absolutely the same stand and maintains that the word-form remains the same, but it realizes a different lexical item (p. 70).

In addition to this, Bauer and Valera (2005) in their book *Approaches to Conversion/Zero Derivation* have collected and presented the opinions of different linguists about the process of zero derivation, thereby saying that there is change in the word class without adding derivational affixes, while addition or omission of inflectional suffixes is allowed.

In Macedonian, Kiril Koneski (1987) talks about zero derivation of verbs from adjectives and he also maintains that the basis of this process is the motivational link between the words that belong to different lexical categories, having the source word on one side, and the derivative as a result of the process on the other side (p. 51-60). This same author, (Kiril Koneski 1995), is among the first in the study of the Macedonian language who talks about the zero affix, explaining that a word formational zero suffix and an inflectional suffix are added to the word formational basis, so that, at the end of the process, a new lexeme is formed as a result of zero derivation (p. 19).

The continuation of this paper studies the process of zero derivation from adjective to verb in both languages, English and Macedonian, by explaining and emphasizing the role of cognition for understanding the process and deriving new lexemes, while at the hearer this results in learning new lexemes due to the reliance on that person's cognitive ability.

II. ADJECTIVE TO VERB ZERO DERIVATION IN ENGLISH

As the process implies, the feature that the adjective has and with which it modifies the noun, now is being transferred to the verb and denotes the action.

In English, the formula for this direction is the following:

L1 Adj. (= natural class) + Ø → L2 V. (= zero derived lexeme)

In continuation, we will analyse verbs zero derived from adjectives (although the number of these verbs is smaller than that of the verbs zero derived from nouns):

1. The first group includes intransitive verbs that mean the subject receives the feature or the quality contained in the adjective, which is realized by performing the action:

dry → **dry**: *dry hair* → *The paint dries*.

mature → **mature**: *a mature woman* → *She matured into a woman*.

plump → **plump**: *The berries were plump and sweet.* → *Stew the dried fruits gently until they plump up*.

In the case with **dry**, whose natural class is adjectival and describes the hair as *dry*, on the other side, the verb **dry** means performing the action of drying, more precisely, to become dry, and thus the sentence on the right is translated as *Bojama ce cyuu*. The adjective contains a certain feature, characteristic or quality with which it modifies the noun, and by the adjective transfer into a verbal lexeme, the noun that is in subject position performs the action of spreading or transferring the feature contained in the adjective. In the other examples, from **mature** as adjective when it means *зрела*, it is zero derived into a verb which means да созрее, while the adjective **plump** meaning *голем, дебел*, is zero derived in a verb meaning заоблува, зголемува.

2. The verbs from the second group are transitive and their semantic description explains that, from the adjective that contains the characteristic of the noun, a verb is derived which shows that when the subject does the action, the feature that the adjective gives is transferred to the object which, on the other hand, receives and takes the action on itself. As a matter of fact, the verb means to spread or to transfer to the object the characteristic that the adjective gives:

calm → **calm**: *His voice was calm.* → *I calmed him down*.

blunt → **blunt**: *a blunt knife* → *You should blunt the axe*.

open → **open**: *The door was wide open.* → *She opened the door*.

In the last example, if the adjective **open** means *отворена*, then the derived verb means to perform the action of opening, to make the object open, to open something, the same as from the adjective **calm** – *смирен*, the action means to calm the object, and from **blunt** – *ман*, the action means making the object blunt. In our case, the object of this connotation is *axe* and the cognitive transfer tells us that when the speaker zero derives a verb from an adjective, they want to say the axe to become blunt.

This kind of metaphorical interpretation and cognitive approach towards the lexical transfer from one part of speech into another is the only way to find semantic similarity between the two formally identical lexemes that are used in different grammatical contexts. This method shows that when analyzing the relations and finding similarities and differences between the words it is necessary to take into account all the meanings that the lexeme has and which appear in the speaker's mind. They are significant for explaining the semantic transfer and for making it happen on the path from the source to the target, because by using metaphorisation the speaker connects the basic, prototypical meaning with the less basic, and yet, logical, and cognitively valid meaning.

As for the inflectional suffixes on the right side of the example, they are allowed and, what is more, essential for reaching grammatical agreement between the verb and the other elements of the sentence – a feature that mirrors the new function of the zero derived lexeme. Thus, from the unchanged adjectival form on the left, the suffixes for tense, person, aspect, and voice are added to the zero derived verb, when we want to agree the verbal form, which in fact illustrates the behaviour of the derived element, with the other sentence parts.

The following shows the scheme for this kind of zero derivation:

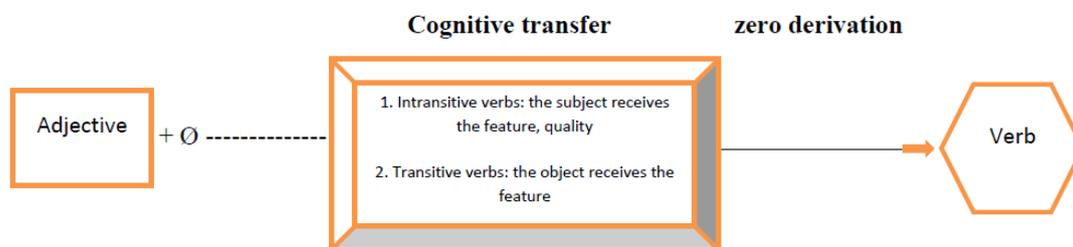


Figure 1. Zero derivation from adjective to verb in English

III. ADJECTIVE TO VERB ZERO DERIVATION IN MACEDONIAN

In this group, the adjective and the verb are connected by the process of zero derivation when the adjectival form is basic and the verb is zero derived from it, in which way the person's or the object's feature and characteristic are transferred to the verb and thus mark the action as specified. The following formula shows this kind of zero derivation:

L1 Adj. (=MB+ØWFS) → L2 V. (=MB+ØWFS+IS-u)¹

1. Here, the verb means *to make the object receive the feature marked with the adjective* and all the following examples illustrate this kind of zero derivation:

чист → **чист-и**: *чист случај* – *Жената чисти секој ден.*

богат → **богат-и**: *богат сосед* → *Соседот се богати од ден на ден.*

полн → **полн-и**: *полн автомобил* → *ја полни чантата со книги*

In the last example, the adjective **полн** characterizes the noun *автомобил* as *such in which something is put*, and accordingly the verb **полни** is understood to mean *to put something in the object, that is, in the noun so that it becomes full*. The explanation for the other examples is also similar. Namely, the car is full because somebody has put something in it, so starting with this kind of cognitive reasoning we can conclude that the zero derived verb means to put something in the object so that it becomes such as described by the source adjective.

In each process of verb derivation, complex formal-semantic processes happen, thus from the basic, starting adjective the result is a zero derived imperfective verb: **бел** → **бели**, which in this case means *to become white, to whiten the cloth*. This interpretation is accompanied by Veleva's explanation (1993), where she claims that colours have proved to be productive word formation bases for creating new words that will enrich the language expression (p. 21). According to her, with their presence in the Macedonian language we show respect for the tradition of the folk creativity, and also the stylistic-expressive function of the colour is shown, the purpose of which is to emphasise the expressiveness and the picturesqueness, as well as to determine the reflexive tone of the expression.

Actually, colours are being discussed in this kind of zero derivation because they are convenient bases for deriving verbs, in cases when, by using the adjective, verbs with resultative meaning are created, and the following are some of them: **бели**, **жолти**, **зелени**, **модри**, **црвени**, **црни**.

Let us see how these lexemes behave in the examples in continuation:

бел → **бел-и**: *бел сид* → *го бели платното*

црвен → **црвен-и**: *црвен корал* → *Јаболкото се црвени на врвот на дрвото.*

црн → **црн-и**: *црн човек* → *Секој месец си ја црни косата.*

In the first example, the explanation of the semantic transfer and of the metaphorical link of the adjective – starting, and the verb – resulting, zero derived lexeme is the following: if *the noun, that is the object is white*, then by using that colour we perform the action *the noun, or the object to become white, or to fade away, to lose its basic colour*. The semantic link between the source and the target lexeme is the same in the other examples: when from a feature contained in the adjective, the transfer is to an action, which means to make the object such as the characteristic of the first lexeme is.

Of course, not always does this mean colour change; namely, the subject does not have to apply certain colour to the object so the adjective that names the colour zero derives into a verb which, by itself, denotes the colouring.

Applying the colour coincided with the first and the third of the previously given examples, when *the cloth is being coloured white and the hair black*, but in the second example *the developing of red colour, that is, the red colour of the*

¹ The symbols that are used in this formula, and some of them in the following formula in this paper, designate the following elements: L1 = lexeme 1, L2 = lexeme 2, Adj. = adjective, V. = verb, MB = motivational basis, Ø = zero, WFS = word formation suffix, IS = inflectional suffix.

apple is natural, comes as a result of the process of getting ripe, and in no way does it mean that somebody has colored the apple on the tree red.

2. On one side of the example, instead of an adjective-noun combination, we can have a nominal structure consisting of a copula and an adjective, where the adjective still modifies the noun by transferring to it the feature built in itself, while the verbal derivative means *the subject to display the feature characteristic of the carrier of the feature denoted with the adjective*. This can be illustrated with the formula $x + \text{copula} + \text{adjective}$, when after performing zero derivation, the result is $x + a \text{ zero derived verb from an adjective}$, where x takes the feature denoted with the basic adjective and now performs the action whose product will be creating noun that has the feature of the source adjectival lexeme. This can be sufficiently illustrated with the following example:

Патом е крив. → *Патом криви.*

This kind of zero derivation from adjective to verb by making cognitive interpretation is very productive in reflexive verbs, which are not realized as transitive and thus mean *the subject to become such, to receive the feature of the adjective contained in the basis*:

бајат → *бајат-и: бајат леб* → *Млекото се бајати на топло.*

весел → *весел-и: весел гостин* → *Гостиноот се весели.*

дебел → *дебел-и: дебел човек* → *Од ден на ден таа сè повеќе се дебели.*

In these examples, the metaphorisation is easy, natural and expected; there is very little abstraction, as is the case with the whole group, because the meaning transfer from the lexeme in the source group into the target group is understandable. Actually, the speaker connects the concrete and the abstract in the lexemes with the same form very easily and inconspicuously. Thus, when we say that the bread is *бајат*, we refer to the fact that it is *stale*, and *inedible*, while the verb which can be both reflexive and irreflexive (in our sentence on the right is used reflexively), implies that the subject, that is, *the milk will go sour by itself, will become stale, and won't be edible*.

The speaker will give similar interpretation of the other examples of adjective to verb zero derivation. The adjective can take articles, as the derivative can be marked by tense, number and person.

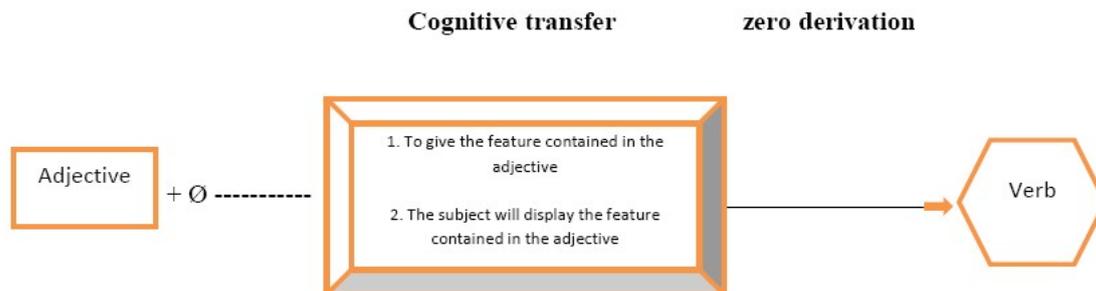


Figure 2. Zero derivation from adjective to verb in Macedonian

IV. CONCLUSION

Having chosen English and Macedonian to be analysed for the purpose of this paper, I certainly anticipated differences in this process manifestation, which is due to the fact that these language structures belong to different language families, and thus first display formal, morphological discrepancies, but then also mutual syntactic characteristics and semantic similarities.

Bearing in mind the synthetic nature of Macedonian and the analytic character of English, we embrace the linguistic situation that is offered to us: that in English the process of zero derivation from adjective to verb is clear, genuine, prototypical, meaning that there are no inflectional interventions in the form of the lexemes before and after the process, and therefore there is absolute overlapping between the source and the target lexeme. What immensely helps us in deciding which of the two formally identical lexical elements is the first one, that is, what the right direction of the process is, is the concept of natural class evidenced by the use of reliable dictionaries, which document the proper use of the words. It is in phrasal or sentential context when the lexemes take inflections that are characteristic of their part of speech, thus realizing themselves and displaying their new function.

In Macedonian, the concept of natural class is verified with the data obtained from *The Dictionary of the Macedonian Language with Serbo-Croatian Interpretations* (Речник на македонскиот јазик со српскохрватски толкувања), which is used as the most reliable source that gives evidence about the natural class to which the Macedonian lexemes (primarily) belong. By taking the lexeme in its natural class (an adjective) and following the semantic expansion, through cognition we come to another lexeme (verb) that, in Macedonian, due to this language's inflectional characteristic, has an inflectionally modified form, semantically expanded representation, and belongs to a completely different lexical category.

In English, the lexemes undergo smaller changes, because English has far fewer inflections and therefore does not change the form that easily, meaning that both lexical participants in the process - the adjective and the verb - have

absolutely the same form (from inflectional point of view), but the meaning is slightly changed (as the new lexeme's function requires), in accordance with the requirements of the different lexical categories to which the lexemes belong.

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Marjana Vaneva is an Assistant Professor and Dean of the School of Foreign Languages at the University American College Skopje, Republic of Macedonia. As a graduated teacher of English with an MA (2005) and PhD (2009) degrees in Linguistics from the "Ss Cyril and Methodius University" in Skopje, she mainly teaches English grammar subjects to English language students at undergraduate and postgraduate level. Her research interests are in the domain of applied linguistics, cognitive linguistics, semantics, contrastive analysis, language testing, and English language teaching. She has published on zero derivation, negative prefixes, homonymy and polysemy, cognition in teaching vocabulary, and also on teaching second/foreign language grammar.

A Correlation Analysis on the Depth and Breadth of ESL Learners' Vocabulary Knowledge and Their Overall Linguistic Competence

Zhaogang Wang

School of International Business Communication, Dongbei University of Finance and Economics, Dalian, China

Abstract—The breadth and depth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge and their comprehensive linguistic competence are not well studied in current literatures on vocabulary studies. This paper explores the creditability of depth and breadth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge as an indicator of their overall linguistic competence and the correlation between depth and breadth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge. The results show that both the depth and breadth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge can effectively be representative of their linguistic competence, of which the depth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge is better than the breadth of their vocabulary knowledge as an indicator of their overall linguistic competence. In general, the breadth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge is highly positively correlated with the depth of their vocabulary knowledge but the development of depth of vocabulary knowledge still lags behind the development of breadth of vocabulary knowledge.

Index Terms—breadth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge, depth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge, comprehensive linguistic competence, correlation analysis, SPSS

I. INTRODUCTION

The development of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge is key to the growth of their overall linguistic competence. Many ESL learners spend most of their English learning time expanding their vocabulary knowledge because they believe a large vocabulary is the solid foundation for other language skills. What does it mean to know an English word? Many lexicologists (Chappelle, 1998; Wesche & Paribakht, 1996; Qian, 1999, 2002; Qian & Schedle, 2004) claim there are at least two dimensions to ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge: breadth and depth. The breadth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge is the total quantity of their reading vocabulary and the depth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge means their understanding of synonyms, multiple explanations and collocations of the same word. What impacts do ESL learners' depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge have on their overall linguistic competence? What is the correlation between depth and breadth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge? This paper attempts to answer these questions through an experiment with some common vocabulary tests.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects of Vocabulary Tests

The subjects of vocabulary tests were five classes of non-English majors of 2012 grade in a Chinese university: statistics majors (45 students), economics majors (47 students), engineering majors (41 students), journalism majors (43 students), law majors (34 students), of which 16 students took the tests once and 26 students did not finish the tests as required. Therefore we have got 168 effective test papers.

B. Test Instruments

Test instrument of breadth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge: we used a test paper designed by Schmitt et al.(1997, 2001, 2002) on the basis of a vocabulary test by Nation (1983,1990). Our test paper includes five parts: 2000 words, 3000 words, 5000 words, 10000 words and academic vocabulary. The 2000-word and 3000-word parts represent the most frequently used words, and the 5000-word part represents medium-frequency words and the 10000-word part represents low-frequency words. Academic vocabulary is taken from Coxhead (2000) which has 570 words covering the most frequently and widely used words in 28 disciplines. Every part has 10 questions and each question tests 6 target words and three meanings. In each question test takers were asked to choose 3 words from 6 words matching the corresponding explanations. An example is given as follows:

- a. company
- b. watch f part of a house
- c. pen e animal with four legs
- d. shirt c something used for writing
- e. dog

f. window

The English explanations in each test question used the most frequently used 2000 words in order to prevent the negative impacts of subjects' misunderstanding of English explanations on the effectiveness of the experiment. In addition, the test minimized the possibility of subjects' blind guess in the experiment. Test takers get one point if they answer one question correctly and the total score for this part is 120 points ($3 \times 10 \times 4 = 120$)

Test instrument for depth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge: Word Associate Test (reliability 0.93) designed by Read (1995) is used. The answers for 8 questions in the original test are problematic and the target words of 4 questions are beyond the subjects' proficiency level, therefore these parts were replaced by questions designed by Qian & Schedle (2004). This test includes 40 target words. Each question has two boxes and four correct choices which test paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of target words respectively. An example "sound" is given as follows:

logical healthy bold solid	snow temperature sleep dance
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"Logical", "healthy" and "solid" in the left box are synonyms of "sound" and "sleep" in the right box usually collocates with "sound". The distribution of correct choices is random so as to reduce the possibility of subjects' blind guesses. Test takers get one point with one correct choice so the total score for this test is 160 points ($4 \times 40 = 160$)

Test instruments for comprehensive linguistic competence: PETS (public English test system) test Band 3 is used to test the comprehensive linguistic competence. Because the PETS test is not designed for four-year college students but for the general public and students of vocational schools, most subjects in this experiment have little chance to take the test and the results of the experiment also show that the subjects did not take the test before the experiment. Students who pass the PETS Band 3 have English proficiency of second-year college students of non-English majors. Therefore this test paper is appropriate for students in this experiment. This test has four parts: listening ($1 \times 25 = 25$ points); cloze ($1 \times 20 = 20$ points); and reading comprehension ($2 \times 20 = 40$ points); writing (15 points). The total score of the test is 100 points. Listening, cloze and reading are all multiple choice questions. Writing is based on a picture. 2 teachers credit the writing part individually on the basis of students' accuracy, fluency, coherence and clarity. If the two teachers cannot agree with each other on one paper, they would have to ask another teacher to credit the same paper again until they could reach an agreement on the score of the paper.

C. Data Collection and Analyses

Because all subjects were asked to take the tests without prior notice, some subjects were absent in some tests. Three tests were conducted in two experiments. The first experiment tested subjects' breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge. In order to carry out the experiment properly, we spent 10 minutes demonstrating and training students how to take the tests which lasted for 100 minutes. The second experiment tested students' comprehensive linguistic competence which also took 100 minutes. Both experiments were done in normal class hours by English teachers under our supervision. There was a three-day interval between the two experiments. All test results were keyed into computers and analyzed with SPSS.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Table 1 lists the average score, standard deviation, score range and reliability of the tests on breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge and comprehensive linguistic competence. The results show that the score distributions of all tests are relatively reasonable and the reliability is also fairly high.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND RELIABILITY OF THE TEST RESULTS ON BREADTH AND
DEPTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AND OVERALL LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE (N=168)

Variable	Total score	Average score	Standard deviation	Score range	Reliability (split half)
breadth of vocabulary knowledge	120	77.33	15.76	40-115	0.759
depth of vocabulary knowledge	160	108.56	13.87	48-133	0.729
comprehensive linguistic competence	100	57.60	9.36	26-85	0.701
listening	25	11.57	3.03	3-19	0.729
cloze	20	10.39	2.78	2-16	0.785
reading	40	26.89	4.94	10-38	0.759
writing	15	8.74	1.56	4-13	0.794

A. Breadth and Depth of L2 Learners' Vocabulary Knowledge and Linguistic Competence

In order to study the impacts of breadth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge on their comprehensive linguistic competence and specific language skills, a linear regression model is built with the breadth of vocabulary knowledge as the independent variable and comprehensive linguistic competence as well as specific language skills as the dependent variable. Table 2 shows that 8.6% of listening scores, 27.1% of cloze scores, 28.3% of reading scores and 31.9% of writing scores can be attributed to the effects of breadth of vocabulary knowledge. In general, breadth of ESL learners'

vocabulary knowledge can be used to test their comprehensive linguistic competence which shows that ESL learners could improve their overall language skills through an expansion of the breadth of vocabulary knowledge.

TABLE II
THE IMPACTS OF BREADTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE ON COMPREHENSIVE LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE AND ALL LANGUAGE SKILLS.

Model	B	Beta	t	p	Remarks
Constant	28.913		10.176	.000	Dependent variable: overall linguistic competence $R^2=.390$ $F=106.086$ $p=.000$
Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	0.371	0.624	10.300	.000	
Constant	7.215		6.406	.000	Dependent variable: listening $R^2=.086$ $F=15.534$ $p=.000$
Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	0.056	0.293	3.941	.000	
Constant	3.292		3.568	.000	Dependent variable: cloze $R^2=.271$ $F=61.701$ $p=.000$
Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	0.092	0.521	7.855	.000	
Constant	13.985		8.599	.000	Dependent variable: reading $R^2=.283$ $F=65.594$ $p=.000$
Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	0.169	0.532	8.099	.000	
Constant	4.421		8.837	.000	Dependent variable: writing $R^2=.319$ $F=77.642$ $P=.000$
Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	0.056	0.565	8.811	.000	

The experiment confirms that breadth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge is highly correlated with their comprehensive linguistic competence ($r \geq 0.50$, $R^2 \geq 0.25$). The results of regression show that breadth of vocabulary knowledge cannot account for the changes of listening test scores ($R^2=.086$). This is mainly because factors like learners' knowledge on pronunciation, their understanding of background information, their listening strategies and their mental state during the test process all have greater impacts on their listening scores than their breadth of vocabulary knowledge.

In order to study the impacts of vocabulary knowledge (both breadth and depth) and the extra impacts of depth of vocabulary knowledge on comprehensive linguistic competence and specific language skills, we use the following steps to process the data collected. First of all, the dependent variable of multivariable regression---comprehensive linguistic competence and specific language skills---is determined; secondly, forced entry is used to process the first independent variable---breadth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge, and it is also used to process the second independent variable---depth of vocabulary knowledge, on the basis of which the change of R^2 means the extra impacts of the second independent variable on dependent variable; finally stepwise method is used to remove the disqualified independent variable, i.e. those independent variables that have no significant impact on dependent variable.

TABLE III
MULTIVARIABLE REGRESSION WITH BREADTH AND DEPTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLE AND COMPREHENSIVE LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE (N=168)

Steps	Procedures	Independent variables	R^2	R^2 changes
1	Forced entry	Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	.390*	
2	Forced entry	Depth of vocabulary knowledge	.494*	.104*
3	Stepwise	Breadth/depth of vocabulary knowledge	.494*	

Table 3 shows that when breadth of vocabulary knowledge is included in the regression model, R^2 is .390, i.e. 39% of the change in comprehensive linguistic competence can be explained by breadth of vocabulary knowledge; when depth of vocabulary knowledge is included in the regression model, R^2 increases from .390 to .494, which means depth of vocabulary knowledge has 10.4% of extra impacts on comprehensive linguistic competence. 49.4% of comprehensive linguistic competence can be attributed to the combination of breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge. Stepwise method shows that the impacts of breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge on comprehensive linguistic competence have reached significance level, i.e. both factors can effectively predict one's comprehensive linguistic competence.

Using the same steps, a multivariable regression model is built with breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge as independent variables and specific language skills as the dependent variable. The results of analyses are listed in Tables 4 to 7.

TABLE IV
MULTIVARIABLE REGRESSION WITH BREADTH AND DEPTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AS INDEPENDENT VARIABLE AND LISTENING SCORES AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE (N=168)

Steps	Procedures	Independent variables	R^2	R^2 changes
1	Forced entry	Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	.086*	
2	Forced entry	Depth of vocabulary knowledge	.135*	.049*
3	Stepwise	Breadth/depth of vocabulary knowledge	.135*	

TABLE V
MULTIVARIABLE REGRESSION WITH BREADTH AND DEPTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AS INDEPENDENT
VARIABLE AND CLOZE SCORES AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE (N=168)

Steps	Procedures	Independent variables	R ²	R ² changes
1	Forced entry	Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	.271*	
2	Forced entry	Depth of vocabulary knowledge	.351*	.080*
3	Stepwise	Breadth/depth of vocabulary knowledge	.351*	

TABLE VI
MULTIVARIABLE REGRESSION WITH BREADTH AND DEPTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AS INDEPENDENT
VARIABLE AND READING SCORE AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE (N=168)

Steps	Procedures	Independent variables	R ²	R ² changes
1	Forced entry	Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	.283*	
2	Forced entry	Depth of vocabulary knowledge	.323*	.040*
3	Stepwise	Breadth/depth of vocabulary knowledge	.323*	

TABLE VII
MULTIVARIABLE REGRESSION WITH BREADTH AND DEPTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AS INDEPENDENT
VARIABLE AND WRITING SCORE AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE (N=168)

Steps	Procedures	Independent variables	R ²	R ² changes
1	Forced entry	Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	.319*	
2	Forced entry	Depth of vocabulary knowledge	.453*	.134*
3	Stepwise	Breadth/depth of vocabulary knowledge	.453*	

Table 4 shows that depth of vocabulary knowledge beyond breadth of vocabulary knowledge can increase ESL learners' listening score by 4.9%. The combination of breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge can increase listening scores by 13.5%. Table 5 shows that depth of vocabulary knowledge can increase cloze scores by 8.0% on the basis of breadth of vocabulary knowledge, and breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge can increase cloze scores by 35.1%. Table 6 shows that depth of vocabulary knowledge increases reading scores by 4.0% on the basis of breadth of vocabulary knowledge, and the depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge together can predict 32.3% of change in reading scores. Table 7 shows that depth of vocabulary knowledge contributes to writing scores by 13.4% on the basis of breadth of vocabulary knowledge, and the depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge can predict 45.3% of change in writing score. Stepwise method shows that both depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge can predict effectively the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Different from previous models, depth of vocabulary knowledge is put before breadth of vocabulary knowledge in the linear regression process. The results of analyses are listed in Table 8, 9 and 10.

By observing the change of R², we have found that depth of vocabulary knowledge makes more contributions to the improvement of L2 learners' comprehensive linguistic competence, cloze and writing. In order to confirm the advantages of depth of vocabulary knowledge, we rebuilt three multivariable regression models with depth and breadth of vocabulary knowledge as independent variables and comprehensive linguistic competence, cloze and writing as dependent variables.

TABLE VIII
MULTIVARIABLE REGRESSION WITH DEPTH AND BREADTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AS INDEPENDENT
VARIABLES AND COMPREHENSIVE LINGUISTIC COMPETENCE AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE (N=168)

Steps	Procedures	Independent variables	R ²	R ² changes
1	Forced entry	Depth of vocabulary knowledge	.423*	
2	Forced entry	Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	.494*	.070*

TABLE IX
MULTIVARIABLE REGRESSION WITH DEPTH AND BREADTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AS INDEPENDENT
VARIABLES AND CLOZE SCORES AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE (N=168)

Steps	Procedures	Independent variables	R ²	R ² changes
1	Forced entry	Depth of vocabulary knowledge	.305*	
2	Forced entry	Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	.351*	.046*

TABLE X
MULTIVARIABLE REGRESSION WITH DEPTH AND BREADTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE AS INDEPENDENT
VARIABLES AND WRITING SCORES AS DEPENDENT VARIABLE (N=168)

Steps	Procedures	Independent variables	R ²	R ² changes
1	Forced entry	Depth of vocabulary knowledge	.417*	
2	Forced entry	Breadth of vocabulary knowledge	.453*	.036*

After comparing Table 8 and Table 3, we have found that depth of ESL learners' vocabulary knowledge can explain 42.3% of the change in their comprehensive language competence while breadth of vocabulary knowledge can only explain 39% of their overall language competence. Depth of vocabulary knowledge can make 10.4% more contributions to change in L2 learners' comprehensive language skills on the basis of their breadth of vocabulary knowledge, while breadth of L2 learner's vocabulary knowledge can only make 7.0% more contributions to their comprehensive language

competence given their depth of vocabulary knowledge. The comparison of Table 9 and Table 5 shows that depth of vocabulary knowledge can explain 30.5% of the change in cloze scores while breadth of vocabulary knowledge can only explain 27.1%; depth of vocabulary knowledge can make 8.0% more contributions to L2 learners' overall linguistic competence on the basis of their breadth of vocabulary knowledge while breadth of vocabulary knowledge can merely add 4.6% on the basis of depth of vocabulary knowledge. If we compare Table 10 and 7, we can find that depth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge can explain 41.7% of change in L2 learners' writing scores while breadth of vocabulary knowledge can explain 31.9%; depth of vocabulary knowledge can increase L2 learners' writing scores by 13.4% on the basis of their breadth of vocabulary knowledge while breadth of vocabulary knowledge can merely increase L2 learners' writing scores by 3.6% on the basis of their depth of vocabulary knowledge.

In testing students' cloze and writing skills, the depth of their vocabulary knowledge is a better indicator of their comprehensive language competence, because cloze mainly tests learners' ability of using synonyms, collocations and discourse coherence. In this study tests on depth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge is about L2 learners' ability of using synonyms and collocations. At the same time, a large quantity of vocabulary does not guarantee high-quality writing and a good piece of writing requires students' to use words, collocations appropriately. Therefore, it is not enough for L2 learners to grasp the Chinese meaning of English words. They need to have higher depth of vocabulary knowledge which at least includes multiple explanations, synonyms and collocations of a new word.

Correlation analyses show that the correlation between breadth of vocabulary knowledge and reading ($r=.532$) is higher than that between depth of vocabulary knowledge and reading ($r=.471$). On one hand, reading requires more of students' breadth of vocabulary knowledge than their depth of vocabulary knowledge. On the other hand, the target words used in this study are chosen from high-frequency words but the texts in reading tests contain vocabulary far beyond the level in the study and vocabulary tests in this study include academic vocabulary and some low-frequency but widely used academic words.

B. Correlations between Breadth and Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge

Before we explore the correlations between breadth and depth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge, it is necessary to divide all subjects into three groups according to their vocabulary and the standard of grouping is the mean \pm standard deviation formula, i.e. vocabulary test takers with scores below 61.57(77.33—15.76) fall into the low breadth group, those higher than 93.09(77.33+15.76) fall into the high breadth group and those in between fall into the medium breadth group. The sample number of each group is over 20, therefore we can conduct further statistical analyses with small samples. The correlations between breadth and depth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge with different vocabulary are listed in Table 11:

TABLE XI
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN BREADTH AND DEPTH OF L2 LEARNERS' VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE WITH DIFFERENT VOCABULARY

Variable	Depth of vocabulary knowledge
Students with Low breadth of vocabulary knowledge	.348 \pm
Students with medium breadth of vocabulary knowledge	.512**
Students with high breadth of vocabulary knowledge	-.086
Total	.649**

From table 11 we can see that in terms of total sample the breadth and depth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge are highly correlated($r>.05$), which means that the increase in the breadth of L2 learners' vocabulary will promote the increase in the depth of their vocabulary knowledge. However, in the three small sample groups, the low breadth group has positive but insignificant correlation with the depth of their vocabulary knowledge while the high breadth group has negative correlation with the depth of their vocabulary knowledge. These results show that for some L2 learners the depth of their vocabulary knowledge did not grow with the increase of the breadth of their vocabulary knowledge. This is mainly because Chinese learners do not have very good learning and using English as a foreign language in China and for most non-English majors the main purpose of learning new words is to take tests and do reading exercises. Therefore many students devote most of their energy to rote memorization of word spelling and basic Chinese explanations but they ignore or do not realize the importance of learning the deep meaning of vocabulary; on the other hand, it is relatively easier for L2 learners to memorize and understand the breadth of vocabulary knowledge and it is much more challenging and time-consuming to grasp the depth of vocabulary knowledge. Therefore probably for the low breadth group, learning and memorizing word spelling and their basic Chinese explanations has used up their energy and they have no capacity or energy to consider the depth of their vocabulary knowledge.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The above statistical analyses show that both breadth and depth of L2 learner's vocabulary knowledge can predict effectively their comprehensive linguistic competence; the depth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge is better than breadth of vocabulary knowledge as an indicator of their comprehensive linguistic competence, which is reflected in cloze and writing tests. In general, the breadth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge is highly positively correlated with the depth of their vocabulary knowledge.

According to the results of this study, we must admit that both the breadth and depth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge are significant and probably the depth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge is even more significant for two reasons: first of all, the synonyms and multiple meanings of words should be emphasized; secondly, the collocations of words should be stressed. Although the development of depth of L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge is generally consistent with the breadth of their vocabulary knowledge, for different language learners, the development of both aspects is very unbalanced. Advanced ESL learners should not only expand the breadth of their vocabulary but also pay attention to the development of their depth of vocabulary knowledge. Preliminary and intermediate learners should also increase the depth of their vocabulary knowledge apart from expanding the breadth of their vocabulary knowledge.

Due to time constraints and the limitations of test instruments, this study may not be comprehensive enough in terms of breadth of vocabulary knowledge and overall linguistic competence. Furthermore the subjects in this research are all second-year non-English majors which may not be representative enough of all ESL learners. Therefore the results of this study need to be supported and confirmed by further study in this field which is also the directions of our future studies.

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Zhaogang Wang was born in Shandong, China in 1974. He received his M.A. in Business English and PhD in economics at Dongbei University of Finance and Economics, Dalian, China in 2001 and in 2013 respectively. Given his interdisciplinary educational background, His research interests are also wide and interdisciplinary including language teaching, second language acquisition, language economics, and translation studies.

An Empirical Study of Interpreting Quality with Interpretive Theory and Teaching Strategies*

Chao Ding

Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China

Abstract—Interpreting has become very important in the modern society. But interpreting teaching has always focused on exercises, not quality. The establishment of MTI in China has not solved this problem. This article attempts to identify effective teaching strategies by conducting an empirical study with Interpretive Theory.

Index Terms—interpreting, interpretive theory, teaching strategies

I. RESEARCH BACKGROUND

The Interpretive Theory was first proposed by Seleskovitch and Lederer, professors of ESIT. The core is deverbalization, which holds that interpreting is not just a change from source language to target language. It is a kind of reformulation on the basis of understanding. Therefore, the interpreting process can be divided into three stages: understanding of the source language, deverbalization and re-expression on the basis of understanding. And sense unit has informed the three stages.

Setton has done some research on the interpreting process from the perspective of cognition and pragmatics. He (1999) holds that interpreting requires three capacities: expressiveness, language processing and cognition, the third of which could be reckoned as deverbalization. Bassnet (2002) points out that translation involves not only substitution of words and grammar from the cultural context of language. Therefore, equivalence in translation is not about seeking sameness, and it's very dangerous to impose the value system of the source language onto the target language. Bao Gang (2014) discussed interpreting phenomenon, such as understanding of the original language, thinking, expression of the target language and tried to unveil the inner mechanism of these phenomenon in his book *Introducing Interpreting Studies*. Zhang Jiliang (2011) researched on the triangular model of the Interpretive Theory and pointed out that it is the foundation of interpreting.

On training models, Gile proposed the process model for consecutive interpreting—consecutive interpreting is performed in two phases, the comprehension phase (or listening and note-taking phase), and the speech production (or reformulation) phase. Pöchhacker identified the interactive model for interpreting which stresses the importance of socioeconomic background for interpreters. Hatim and Mason proposed a model using the discourse theory which holds structure as the most important thing in consecutive interpreting. Anderson proposed a triangular model and pointed out that an interpreter is an active participant in communication. All these models identify the process of consecutive interpreting and what interpreters should do in interpreting.

On empirical studies, Bai Jiafang (2011) found that training on listening comprehension in interpreting could improve beginners' quality on output. Fu Rongbo (2012) concluded that it is necessary for student interpreters to strengthen their monitor on output and improve efficiency. Wang Jianhua (2010) used an interactive interpreting model on memory training and dramatically improved students' completeness, accuracy and fluency on delivering information. Hong Lei and Wang Binhua (2011) explained deviation in consecutive interpreting from the perspective of effort model. All these empirical studies reach conclusion from a certain perspective and is of far-reaching significance for interpreting training.

The prevailing teaching method is still the traditional mode of cassette, note-taking and teacher's comments. Of course, it has its own merits. It can create on-the-spot interpreting atmosphere and concentrate students' mind on encoding-storage-decoding-output. By commenting on their performance, the students can realize their deficiencies in mentality, language proficiency and encyclopedic knowledge. So the traditional method has its place in teaching. But teachers often focus on the surface equivalence between the source language and the target language and ignore communication as the core of interpreting. This is contrary to the central task of interpreting teaching.

This paper is designed to compare and analyze the quality between surface interpreting and communicative interpreting by combing teaching practice and propose effective teaching strategies with Interpretive Theory.

II. EXAMINING THE PROCESS OF CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETING

A. *The Process of Consecutive Interpreting*

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A consecutive interpreter listens to the speaker, takes notes, and when the speaker finishes one segment, he reproduces the speech in the target language accurately and completely. The consecutive interpreter mainly relies on memory, and note-taking is an essential skill. Consecutive interpreting involves many skills, such as short-term memory, note-taking, theme-identifying, reorganization of the target language, public speaking and so on (Zhong Weihe, 2007). Therefore, only by listening, analyzing, note-taking and output is far from satisfactory in delivering interpretation. In order to establish an effective training model, it is necessary to explain the process of consecutive interpreting from the perspective of cognitive psychology.

Cognitive psychology focuses on sense, notice, memory and information. It discloses the inner mechanism of information processing. When the speaker's voice enters the interpreter's ear, he listens carefully and stores the information in his brain with short-term memory and notes. After the speech segment, he analyzes the information and uses logic to deliver output.

B. Hypothesis on Consecutive Interpreting Training Model

Before class, a teacher could hand out materials to two or three students and ask them to prepare and give presentation in class in the form of public speeches. On the one hand, they could consolidate their language usage; on the other hand, they could familiarize themselves with background knowledge. On class, the students giving presentation could be asked to play the role of the speaker, and take notes as the speech outline. After class, evaluate their performance from a speaker's perspective.

There are three hypotheses:

1. Improving declarative and procedural knowledge by means of public speeches could more effectively increase an interpreter's background knowledge, reduce pressure and improve interpreting output;
2. Increasing student interpreters' public speech awareness could increase their confidence, cope with difficulties flexibly and improve the credibility and smoothness of output;
3. Rethinking the performance from a speaker's perspective could improve student interpreters' professional capacity and quality in a sense.

III. EMPIRICAL STUDY

A. Experimental Tool

The author uses SPSS, one of the most popular software in the world, as the experimental tool. SPSS is mainly used for scientific research and has powerful functions, such as data compiling and management, statistics analysis and computer graphics. It could ensure that data is representative.

B. Subject

The author has conducted an interpreting experiment on twenty-four postgraduates in Qingdao. He chooses fifteen postgraduates as the experiment group and the other fifteen as the control group. They all had received a term of basic interpreting training and had little experience in interpreting. Besides, there are five teachers as judges.

The postgraduate exam scores does not vary greatly. To ensure the rationality of the study, the author has conducted a test of the two groups' consecutive interpreting. See list 1 for results.

LIST 1
RESULTS FOR THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP BEFORE EXPERIMENT

	Experiment Group	Control Group	T Value	P Value
Test result	61.882	62.139	0.043	0.879

According to statistics, $p > 0.05$. It shows that the two groups do not have much difference in their capability of consecutive interpreting, so the results are typical.

C. Process and Design

The consecutive class the author teaches totals six-four classes, which ensures enough time. This paper uses an audio about financial crisis lasting three minutes and twenty-one seconds as the testing material. The experimental group had received training about financial crisis before experiment and evaluation of their classroom performance before. Besides, they have time to prepare for the topic. The experiment takes recording of the students' performance and replay it after experiment. Then the teachers will give mark on the spot. And finally, questionnaires for students.

D. Analysis and Discussion

The evaluation includes language, expression, intonation, logic, eye contact and information.

LIST 2
EVALUATION OF TWO GROUPS AFTER THE EXPERIMENT

	Experiment Group	Control Group	T Value	P Value
Language	4.17	2.46	-3.25	0.013
Expression	3.24	2.77	-1.17	0.037
Intonation	3.67	3.28	0.86	0.056
Logic	4.28	2.97	-4.21	0.019
Eye Contact	3.67	2.44	-2.23	0.034
Information	3.93	2.89	0.66	0.018
Total	3.97	2.94	3.27	0.021

From the list, we can see that the p value of all items is lower than 0.05 except intonation. It shows that the performance varies greatly after the experiment. Great difference exists in language, logic and information, which reflects that background knowledge and terminology play an active role in activating long-term memory. The results of expression and eye contact show the role of evaluation in interpreting.

LIST 3
QUESTIONNAIRE

1. What is the effect of preparation?	A. Large (73.3)	B. medium (20)	C. small (6.67)	D. no (0)
2. Does similar experience count?	A. large (80)	B. medium (20)	C. small (0)	D. no (0)
3. What is the role of evaluation on CI?	A. large (33.3)	B. medium (40)	C. small (20)	D. no (6.67)
4. Hour spent in doing CI exercises?	A.>3h(6.67)	B.2h(13.3)	C.1h(46.7)	D.无(33.3)
5. The role of public speaking on CI	A. large (40)	B. medium (26.7)	C. small (33.3)	D. no (0)
6. The effect of specialized knowledge	A. large (60)	B. medium (40)	C. small (0)	D. no (0)

The questionnaire reveals that all students agree that similar experience is of great help to performance. The great effect of preparation and specialized knowledge reflect the key role of declarative memory on information processing and logic. And the great effect of evaluation reaffirms the positive role of rethink and rectification.

IV. TEACHING STRATEGIES

A. Convey the Intended Meaning of the Source Language

Interpreting is basically about communication. Therefore, we should not pay great attention to finding equivalences in the target language. On formal occasions, an interpreter often has to interpret complicated sentences and face more pressure. In this context, it is very important to convey the intended meaning of the original language. Let's look at the speech segment delivered by Obama, the president of the US: The tax cuts are a very important issue facing us today. Because it's a big diverse country and people have a lot of complicated positions, it means that in order to get stuff done, we're going to compromise.

Some students interpreted "get stuff done" into "finish it". On the surface of it, we could not find fault in the translation. But after deliberations, we might ask: "what does it refers to?" The faulty version is attributable to neglect of context. As a matter of fact, the speech segment has already mentioned "tax cuts". Therefore, we may use "to achieve tax cuts" to substitute "finish it" so that the version could become crystal clear.

B. Apply Speech Act Theory in Teaching Interpreting

Speech Act Theory, an important theory of pragmatics, was proposed by English philosopher John Austin at the late 1950s. It reveals the fundamental of language communication from philosophical perspective in a view to answer the question of what do we do when using languages.

According to this mode, we can do three things while speaking: locutionary act, illocutionary act and perlocutionary act (Dai Weidong&He Zhaoxiong, 2002). Locutionary act refers to action expressed by words, phrases and clauses. Illocutionary act refers to action expressing as speakers intentions. And perlocutionary act refers to action caused by an incident.

For example: You have left the door wide open. The speaker's locutionary act is the surface meaning of these words. His illocutionary act is the intention of the speech: please close the door, or make complaints about the open door etc. His perlocutionary act is the effect of the speech. If the listener understands what the speaker means, then the speaker has get his message across to the listener. The most important of these three acts is the illocutionary act, because it is the intention of a speaker that is to be conveyed, and it holds the key to successful communication.

In interpreting teaching, we are often confronted with similar problems. Sometimes, we know all the words in the sentence, but we can't express the real meaning. Then we should deliberate on what the speaker really means.

For example, Charlene Barshevsky had said "Shall we shake hands now?" during the WTO talk between China and US. Let's analyze it with Speech Act Theory. Locutionary act: Shake hands. Illocutionary act: Can we reach a deal now? Perlocutionary act: The deal is reached. How can we interpret it? We all know that China was confronted with all kinds of obstacles in entering the WTO. After numerous bargains, both China and US had made concessions. The true meaning of the sentence is: Can we reach a deal now? This is the intended meaning of Barshevsky.

In interpreting classes, we should ask students to gain background knowledge beforehand, or explain some

knowledge before training. Only in this way can we improve the quality of their output.

C. *Make Full Use of the Benefits of “Deverbalization”*

Interpreting is a process of realizing the senses of an idea (Seleskovitch&Lederer, 1984). We have noticed that we tend to forget the form of a language after seven to eight seconds of consecutive speaking and realize the senses of an idea. The so-called “deverbalization” is to forget the words or phrases used by the speaker and realize the senses of a speech. In this way, we can express our ideas in the target language freely. When students master the skill of deverbalization, they can find idiomatic expressions in their mother tongue and express ideas correctly.

An interpreting teacher should not try to compare two languages. On the contrary, he or she should try to tell students to separate the forms of the two languages. In the teaching process, a teacher should not focus on the form of the original language, but translation of meaning. He or she should remind students of other elements that could make ideas clear besides languages. He or she should play the speech again and let student gain a better understanding of the original language. Interpreting involves three stages. It is not difficult to let students understand the process: original language—deverbalization—target language, but students are used to find word equivalence between the two languages rather than equivalence of value. So it is not easy to let them stick to the process.

When we use a language to communicate, deverbalization is a natural process without our realizing it. But when an idea is interpreted into another, it is not easy. Many students consider interpreting as a process of finding equivalence to another. But without deverbalization, we can only find equivalents without identifying the true meaning of the original speaker.

Only by deverbalization can we interpret accurately. The reason why it is very difficult for students to achieve this goal, on one hand, is that students tend to learn a foreign language in an inappropriate environment. They can hardly master two language systems at the same time. On the other hand, people usually identify words and phrases of two languages together, as the method in our foreign language teaching. So beginning interpreters always fall into the trap instead of re-expressing what they have understood. In this case, a teacher should stress that it seldom works on most occasions.

D. *Prepare Fully before Interpreting to Improve the Effect of Interpreting*

An Interpreter must adopt an attitude of intellectual modesty and willingness to learn, keeping up with changes in his or her languages as well as current events and the related jargon (Nolan, 2005). Consecutive Interpreting exacts a high demand on an interpreter’s language proficiency and encyclopedic knowledge. Any weakness could damage the effect of consecutive interpreting. Therefore, teachers can hand out articles of current affairs to students so that they can familiarize with it, or explain in detail before interpreting so that specialized knowledge do not become an obstacle to interpreting.

Total mastery of a language is a prerequisite of consecutive interpreting. An interpreter proficient at a language can grasp or guess the main intent of a speaker in a short time by his acute hearing, rich vocabulary and good sense of intuition. Therefore, a beginner should read widely, such as *The Economist* and *The National Geographic*, to familiarize with relevant vocabulary and phrases; read his native classic works to gain a better understanding of his country’s profound language and culture.

Moreover, the more encyclopedic knowledge a student has, the more thorough understanding he will gain of a specialized field. Then he can give full play of his long-term memory to relieve the burden of short-term memory. A teacher could divide students into groups before class, ask them to get access to some background materials and give presentation in class. This method could greatly improve their capacity of self-study and create a sound atmosphere in class.

E. *Turn Classroom into Conference and Train Interpreters’ Capabilities*

Two changes should be noticed from the interpreting market in the recent two years: professionalism of interpreting and the changing environment brought by globalization and new technologies. Therefore, a teacher should be market-oriented, and take employment as opportunities to nurture students’ interpreting and professional capabilities.

In consecutive Interpreting classes, a speaker tends to be a teacher while listeners tend to be classmates, so there is little pressure to bear. But in international conferences, an interpreter sits or stands beside a speaker and bears much pressure. To reduce pressure, a teacher could invite business representatives to act as speakers and organize overseas students as listeners to simulate conferences. This will put pressure to bear on students to unleash their potential.

Public speaking is an important part of training to become an interpreter for several reasons. Many people studious enough to have acquired a thorough grasp of two or more working languages tend to of a somewhat shy and retiring disposition and, when faced with an audience, many freeze up and develop mental blocks (Nolan, 2005). In consecutive interpreting, teachers should pay attention to improve students’ basic public speaking skills, such as personal appearance, gesture, pitch, pronunciation and pause. On one hand, it could boost students’ confidence; on the other hand, it is for professional requirements.

F. *Establish Evaluation Mechanism*

Only by evaluating the interpreting performance can students know what needs to be improved in the future.

Therefore, after each interpreting, a student should know what he or she needs to improve. The evaluation should focus on three aspects.

First, mastery of languages. Can students fully understand the meaning of a speaker immediately by intuition? Can students resist the interference of a foreign language? Second, method. If a student makes methodological mistakes, it shows that he or she is not mature enough to do interpreting in international conferences. Third, some mistakes. The mistakes should not exceed one third of the total. So a teacher should point out in classroom whether the mistakes a student makes is language-induced, method-induced or others?

Small mistakes would not cause serious consequences. No matter how experienced an interpreter is, he will make mistakes. Lack of concentration, unclear voices through the phone or fatigue could cause mistakes. All these mistakes are small enough to be neglected. If a student has not achieved a certain level of language proficiency, then he or she should improve it in a foreign country for a time. We should also see whether a student interpreter can express an idea clearly, consistently and accurately.

V. CONCLUSION

With the rapid development of China's economy, high-quality and specialized interpreters are needed all the more than ever before. Interpreting serves as an important bridge in foreign exchanges and cooperation. And interpreters have played and will continue to play an important role in our economic development and social progress. It is our social imperative to produce high-quality interpreters. So China has set up MTI—Masters of Translation and Interpreting to meet these needs.

In recent years, many Chinese universities have set up such courses without paying attention to improving quality of teaching. Interpreting is attached to other subjects; interpreting and translation are not separated; interpreting lack international exchanges; teaching materials are uniform. All these have caused problems in producing talents.

Currently, a few schools such as Beijing Foreign Studies University, Shanghai International Studies University and Guangdong Foreign Studies University in China produce interpreters. So it is very difficult for many universities to recruit qualified teachers. Besides, it is very easy to fall into the trap of focusing on exercise instead of output. We cannot see the wood for the trees in this way.

Therefore, interpreting teachers have great responsibilities to produce quality interpreters. First, a teacher should transform his or her teaching framework. Teaching is not just about exercises. We should link teaching with corresponding theories and pay attention to output. Second, we should make full use of deverbilization. It is to interpret the true meaning of the original speech instead of individual words and phrases. Only by combining theory and practice can we improve the quality of teaching. Third, we should evaluate the performance of student interpreters. We can ask the interpreters themselves the performance that needs to be improved, and then give our thoughts about their performance. By combining these two evaluations, we can reduce their errors in the future so that they will improve themselves.

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Chao Ding is a lecturer of School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science and Technology. He graduated from Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation, Beijing Foreign Studies University and got his master's degree. His is interested in conference interpreting and English teaching, and has innumerable experience in consecutive interpretation and simultaneous interpretation.

The Use of Shona as Medium of Instruction in Zimbabwean Primary Schools: A Case Study of Buhera South District

Maradze Viriri

Mutiusinazita High School, Buhera, Zimbabwe

Eunitah Viriri

Great Zimbabwe University, Box 1235, Masvingo, Zimbabwe

Abstract—The study examined the implementation of the 2006 Zimbabwean language policy which stipulates that Shona may be used as medium of instruction in primary schools up to grade 7, a development which came 26 years after Zimbabwe gained her independence. The paper investigated the extent to which Shona is being used in the teaching-learning process where English, a foreign language, has always mediated the teaching and examining of primary education in the country. The research design adopted for the study was mainly qualitative and data was collected through observation, interviews and questionnaires involving heads of schools, teachers and grade 7 pupils from 5 primary schools in Buhera South District. The study found out that the use of Shona in the teaching and learning of primary school pupils has not been widely accepted. Several reasons as to why a few teachers and pupils use Shona during teaching and learning and why a majority seemed to favour English have been found. One among others being that the language of the textbook and the examination has not changed from English. The study thus, concludes that although the use of Shona, an indigenous language, as medium of instruction came as a positive linguistic development in the country, there are still challenges at the implementation stage which need immediate attention. The study therefore recommends a revision of the language policy of the country so that it does not face tissue rejection and this should be done in wide consultation with teachers.

Index Terms—Shona, medium of instruction, indigenous language, primary schools

I. INTRODUCTION

Language policies in Africa were introduced by the European powers that colonized the continent. Each colonial power imposed its own language as the official language of the country colonized. Because these policies upheld the European languages; they had a negative impact on the African languages. African languages suffered rejection. The indigenous languages were taught in the early grades of primary schooling by the Missionaries only to enable natives to access the bible (Magwa, 2007). As for the language of instruction in schools, the foreign languages dominated. Such a scenario meant that the languages of indigenous people were confined to sanctimonious trivial news items like in settling communal disputes of no economic or developmental significance thus it is seen by many as a mockery and degradation of indigenous languages.

Shona is the home language to over 75% of Zimbabweans while English is a native language to less than 1% of the country's population. What is surprising is the domination of such a 'small' language over indigenous languages spoken by more than 99% of Zimbabweans. English is used as the medium of instruction in the whole of the Zimbabwean education system (Grade 1- University level). The use of English as medium of instruction in the Zimbabwean Education System dates back to the colonial period where indigenous languages were marginalized in preference of the foreign language. These languages were neither used in the classroom nor were they official languages of the country (Magwa, 2006). At independence, unlike other African countries such as Tanzania who took bold decisions in introducing the mother tongue (Swahili) in education, Zimbabwe retained this exoglossic language policy which promoted a foreign language at the expense of the indigenous ones. Though the policy has undergone several amendments, the language policy has continued to be in favour of English over the indigenous languages. The 1987 policy states that prior to the fourth grade, Shona may be used as medium of instruction but this was never implemented as teachers preferred to use English (Nziramasanga, 1999). Up until 2006, all subjects in the primary schooling, thus from grade 4 to 7, have been taught in English except for the indigenous languages. Despite the alarming call for indiginisation of the language of education in many African countries especially in the primary school, the Education Amendment Bill of 2006 half-heartedly promoted Shona to be medium of instruction in all subjects up to grade 7. The bill states that "Shona may be used as medium of instruction prior to Form 1". The use of may gives room for an option to English which may be favoured by many because teachers are used to teaching in English and the economic rewards associated with proficiency in English. This room for an option shots down the whole purpose of introducing Shona in

the system. Our hope now lies in the implementation of the New Constitution which promises to take the promotion of indigenous languages seriously. In Chapter 1 Section 6 headed Languages, it is stated "The State must promote and advance the use of all languages used in Zimbabwe..." (p.22), the word must in this section suggest a new dimension.

This paper therefore, seeks to examine the implementation of the policy; it seeks to investigate the extent to which Shona is being used as medium of instruction in the primary schools where it has been promoted alongside English, a language that has mediated almost all teaching and learning in the primary school for decades.

II. METHODOLOGY

The study adopted a qualitative research design involving head teachers, teachers and pupils from the 19 Primary schools in Buhera South District. Five schools were randomly sampled for the study. Questionnaires were administered to heads of the selected schools and to a total of twenty teachers and fifty pupils randomly selected from grades 4 to 7, those grades that started using Shona as medium of instruction from 2006. Five grade 7 classes were observed. Interviews were carried out with all participants. Pupils were interviewed in groups of ten, ten pupils from each school. Researchers felt that the selected sample comprised of the key participants in the implementation of the policy.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

From the research, it has been established that despite the 2006 Education Act giving a provision of using Shona as a medium of instruction at primary level, the situation on the ground seems to be heavily skewed towards the use of English. The research showed tissue rejection to the introduction of Shona as medium of instruction in primary schools alongside English. There was confusion in terms of the interpretation of the language policy. Whereas in some schools heads and teachers were able to interpret the policy correctly showing that English and Shona were options, at one school, the headmaster's understanding of the policy was that the policy requires teachers to use both languages at the same time suggesting that teachers were free to code –switch to either English or Shona during the teaching-learning process. It was surprising to find out that in most of the schools, teachers expressed ignorance about the existence of such a policy. From the interviews with headmasters, it came out that information pertaining to the existence of this policy was not effectively and timely distributed to schools. In schools where the policy was known, the respective headmasters and teachers opted to use English since the policy offers the use of the two languages as options. Worthy noting from the headmasters' sentiments with regard to how they feel about the policy was the issue of optionality where all the school heads concurred on criticizing the policy for giving room to either the use of English or Shona. They suggested that in future the policy must be mandatory so that there will be no excuses for failing to implement.

Reasons for favoring English were investigated. The research noted that a majority of the text books used by pupils at primary school level are in English and none are in Shona except for those of the Shona subject. Only two textbooks namely Living and Working Together and Faith in Action for grades 1 and 2 are in both English and Shona. Lessons observed by the researchers were also a living testimony of people's obsession with the love of English as a medium of instruction. It was noted that during lessons English dominated the discussions and teachers together with the pupils could only code-switch to Shona when explaining difficult concepts to enhance understanding in pupils. In line with this Mkandawire (2005) noted that the use of the mother tongue as a medium of instruction minimizes learning hardships while maximizing understanding. Research by Chiwome and Mkandla in Herbert (1992) has shown that children all over the world learn better if taught in the mother tongue. In their research, they found out that pupils understand better if taught using Shona in subjects such as Maths and Science. The researchers noted that code-switching was rampant in most of the lessons observed. However, ninety percent (90%) 18/20 of the teachers interviewed indicated that as for grades 4 up to 7, they taught using more English than Shona because the Grade 7 examinations are English oriented. Despite the fact that teachers emphasized the use of English as medium of instruction, the researchers observed that a lot of pupils including those in higher grades had problems in expressing their views in English only. Code-switching was noted in all the lessons observed by the researcher despite efforts by the teachers of encouraging the use of English as a sole medium of instruction. All the teachers 20/20 (100%) admitted that they do code-switched to Shona because pupils failed to understand certain concepts explained in English. One teacher was frank to indicate that he often code-switched to Shona because he lacked proper terminology to explain certain concepts. He said that since English is a second language to him there was no way he could be proficient in it than he could be in Shona which is his mother tongue. His sentiments seem to be in line with those of Vygotsky in Alexander (2000) who says there is an intrinsic link between language and thought, regarding speech as an extension of intelligence.

In all the classes visited by the researchers, most of the teaching aids including wall charts were in English. Only charts for The Education for Living subject in grades one and two were written in both languages, English and Shona. As from grade 3 going upwards, English dominated as it was the medium on almost every teaching aid. All the headmasters 100% (5/5) indicated that they did not have textbooks written in the Shona language which could enable them to use Shona as a medium of instruction in teaching all the subjects. Interviewed teachers for grades three to seven concurred with what the headmasters said when they confessed that there were no text books in Shona for other subjects such as Content and Maths. The absolute majority of teachers, that is, 90% (18/20) who responded to the questionnaires

revealed that there were no textbooks written in Shona to enable them to teach other subjects using Shona. They added that it would be a mammoth task to use Shona as a medium of instruction when all learning materials are in English. There would be need for translating the material from English to Shona which was indicated not easy for many. Of great concern to most teachers were certain scientific terms in Content subjects which could be difficult to translate to Shona. The content of the subjects is closely modeled on the British pattern and so using an indigenous language in teaching was found to be difficult. Given such a scenario it was no surprise to see that most of the teaching aids were in English. Chimhundu (1993) views the lack of textbooks in Shona for subjects other than Shona as a sign of lack of commitment on the part of government. He adds that all the work aimed at the growth and development of Shona as a language has been left on the hands of individual organizations such as the African Languages Research Institute yet it must be government's responsibility. Chimhundu adds that the absence of a clear national language policy and the general lack of funding for language research are some of the major factors hindering initiatives in the research and documentation of local languages which had been deliberately denigrated to vernacular status by the colonial establishment. Many years after independence the problem of funding aimed at the growth of indigenous languages is still a problem

What was disturbing in some of the schools visited by the researchers was that although 60% of the headmasters knew about the 2006 Education Act, (40%) of them indicated that they were finding difficulties in implementing it since most of their examinations are set in English. Teaching in Shona would create many problems for the candidates in the examinations. They would fail to interpret questions posed in English and to present their answers in the language. Some of the headmasters said that they only head of the policy through informal ways but all the heads of schools interviewed expressed dissatisfaction on the way the policy was communicated for they claimed that it was not properly and formally introduced to the schools. In addition to that the headmasters also said that the policy gives a provision of using English as sole medium thus justifying their stance of choosing English.

Ninety percent (90%) (18/20) of the teachers interviewed indicated that given the competition among schools with regard to grade seven results; it would be difficult to implement the policy because all grade seven examinations are set in English except for the Shona subject. This shows confusion in the crafting of our language policy. How can indigenous languages be used as media of instruction when the examination is still in the foreign language? Mutasa (2004) also feels it is puzzling to learn that Zimbabwe as country managed to localize its examinations but failed to indiginise the medium of instruction. This common in many African countries, they advocate for the use of indigenous languages as mediums of instruction but they do not have policies to support their intentions and desires (Mtenje, 2008).

Despite all these challenges, teachers and pupils agreed on the need to use Shona as a medium of instruction in the primary school. They agreed that the use of Shona enhance understanding in pupils during learning. Interviewed teachers indicated that on several occasions they are forced to code-switch to Shona so that pupils could understand concepts not grasped in English. One interviewed grade seven teacher said, "*Kudzidzisa ndichishandisa ChiShona kunoita kuti vana vangu vasanetseke kunzwisisa zvandinenge ndichivadzidzisa*" (Teaching using Shona enables my pupils to understand easily what I will be teaching them). Researchers also observed a high level of participation in classes they visited whenever the teacher allowed pupils to give their answers in Shona. All the teachers interviewed (100%) admitted that although they would desire to teach their pupils purely in English, circumstances such as the inability of most pupils to express themselves in English do force them to use Shona when teaching. One teacher who was observed teaching English had this to say, "*Ichokwadi kuti dzimwe nguva tinotoshandisa ChiShona kuti vana vanzwisise kunyangwe zvazvo zvisingakukurudzirwi kuchidzidzo ichi.*" (Yes, at times we are forced to code-switch to Shona for pupils to understand although it is not encouraged in the subject.). The researcher also observed that code-switching from English to Shona was more prevalent during Maths lessons. Sticking to English would compromise performance in the subject since the language of instruction (English) was not familiar to these rural pupils. This is a pointer towards the need for an effective language of instruction, the mother tongue because concepts are best understood when taught in the learner's language. No wonder why the study found out that participation was high whenever pupils were allowed to express their thoughts in Shona. This is because language is often regarded as an integrating force, a means by which participation is facilitated (Magwa, 2000). Prah (2000) says that there is no way pupils can do exceptionally well in a foreign language since all education can be best given through the medium of the learners' own language.

Although headmasters, teachers and pupils concurred on the advantages of using Shona as a medium of instruction, they also expressed their unending desire to use English. This was mainly because grade seven examinations are in English hence pupils need to be taught using the language of examination. All the headmasters 100% (5/5) interviewed said that schools are now ranged according to their performance at grade 7 examinations, as such those schools which do not perform well in their grade 7 examinations risk losing their pupils to other schools known for recording good pass rates. In addition to that one headmaster indicated that excelling students stand a good chance of getting bursaries for their secondary education. Teaching using English to a majority of the school heads offers a good opportunity for their pupils to pass their examinations. They also claimed that English has more appeal and market than Shona. One grade seven pupil said, "*Ndinoda kudzidziswa neChiRungu nekuti chinoita kuti ndiwane basa ndapedza chikoro*" (I want to be taught through the English medium because it gives me employment opportunities.). About 90% (45/50) of the pupils who filled in the questionnaires indicated that learning through the medium of English enhances their chances

of getting employment. No wonder why Alexander (2000) postulates that unless African languages are given market value, no amount of policy change at school level can guarantee their use in high status functions and, thus eventual escape from the dominance and the hegemony of English. One headmaster indicated that there is absence of a strong political will on the government to genuinely promote and develop indigenous languages to appreciable levels like using them as media of instruction in institutions of learning.

The researchers also noted that there was a general negative attitude towards the use of Shona as medium of instruction among headmasters and teachers. The same attitude was also evident to grade seven pupils interviewed by the researcher. The researchers found out that the problem begins at home where some parents look down upon their own language with shame and see them as unworthy of their children use and learn. This colonial mentality was also highlighted during a lecture on Educational Issues in 1983 by Zimbabwe's Permanent Secretary of Education and Culture. When asked about what language his children spoke at home, Permanent Secretary Sibanda replied, "...without English you are doomed. My children speak only English at home. Shona is a language that is dying out (Meyer, 1998, p. 70). If such comments come from the very people who must be at the forefront of advocating for the indiginisation of the medium of instruction, it makes the whole issue complicated. No wonder why Ansre (1979) in Phillipson (1992) says that the minds and lives of speakers of African Languages are dominated by other languages to the point that they believe that they can only use foreign languages when it comes to more advanced aspects of life such as education. It appears there is need for mental decolonization for people to appreciate that Shona can be used as medium of instruction just like English. Mkandawire (2005) says, people need to be convinced that these languages which are world languages of communication today, were once considered "languages of barbarians," unfit for the communication of knowledge at the time when Greek and Latin were the languages of civilization par excellence.

All the headmasters interviewed thus 5 out of 5 (100%) indicated that in order for Shona to be meaningfully promoted particularly in the domain of education, it is not enough to simply have language policies that allow for the use of these languages in this domain, but there must be willingness on the part of the government to make a deliberate effort to increase the market value of Shona as a language. One teacher said that the fact that a pupil is considered to have passed Ordinary level if he or she has five subjects including English language is a sure sign that English is regarded more important than Shona. He went on to say that even on the job market, a pass in English is a prerequisite for any employment opportunity or academic pursuit. Alexander (Ibid) says there must be an articulated programme of job creation and employment on the basis of indigenous language proficiencies as part of the affirmative action.

The shortage of textbooks written in Shona to be used in other subjects is one challenge that was highlighted by teachers as a reason as to why they opted to continue using English as the medium of instruction despite the 2006 Education Act giving the provision of using Shona as a medium of instruction. One teacher interviewed said, "*Hazvibviri kuti tidzidzise tichishandisa Shona nekuti hapana mabhuku emuzvidzidzo zvisiri Shona ari mumutauro uyu.*" (It is not practical for us to teach using Shona because there are no books in Shona for the respective subjects). This complicates the whole issue of indigenizing the language of instruction in schools. Most teachers who were interviewed were expressing the need to have books in various subjects be printed in Shona before the policy is implemented. Their sentiments concur with those of Coombs (1985) who says that the infrastructure in the school system is based on English as the medium of instruction, there are a number of African languages without a written form and this makes the practice of indigenizing the language of instruction very expensive. Of course Shona has gone greater strides in trying to amass enough books to be used but there is a long way to go before it can effectively be used as medium of instruction in schools. Books such as dictionaries and grammar are now in Shona but they are not enough if Shona is to be given the high status of being the language of education.

IV. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study concludes that generally Shona is not opted for as medium of instruction in the primary schools of the district. This is mainly because some headmasters and teachers are not aware of the development. They do not have any idea pertaining to the introduction of Shona as language of instruction from grade 4 upwards. There is lack of follow up mechanisms to the implementation of the policy by the ministry of Education, Sport, Arts and Culture. To some, the use of Shona in the teaching of other subjects is still a bit challenging since textbooks and examinations are through the medium of English. From the research, it was also noted that there are still a few people who have a negative attitude towards the use of Shona as a medium of instruction in the education fraternity. However, most of the teachers and pupils pointed out the need for indigenizing the language of education in primary schooling. All participants admitted the prevalence of code-switching during the teaching and learning process mainly to enhance understanding in pupils. Teachers felt that sticking to the official medium of instruction would also hinder communication in the classroom. The study therefore, recommends that:

- the policy should be clear on the use of Shona as medium of instruction
- the ministry should make sure that policies reach the targeted people
- the language of instruction should be the language of the exam.
- there is need to increase the market value of Shona.
- there must be a serious follow up to make sure there is full implementation of any language policy put in place.

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Maradze Viriri, is a high school teacher, who holds a Master of Education Degree in ChiShona, a Masters Degree of Educational Management, a Graduate Certificate in Education and a Bachelor of Arts General Degree. He is interested in researching on educational, language and cultural issues.

Eunitah Viriri, is a lecturer at Great Zimbabwe University and is a holder of a Master of Education Degree in ChiShona, a Graduate Diploma in Education and a Bachelor of Arts General Degree. In terms of research, she is interested in language and cultural issues.

Why Are We Angry? A Corpus-linguistic Investigation of the Emotion *Anger**

Yi Xiao

School of Foreign Languages, Southwest University, Chongqing, China;
School of Foreign Languages, Chongqing Three Gorges University, Chongqing, China

Hang Su

Department of English, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, UK

Abstract—This study explores how the emotion *anger* is construed through language patterns and what are the causes of the emotion *anger* from a corpus linguistic perspective. It is demonstrated that grammar patterns are frequently used to construe emotions; and grammar patterns inform us the trigger of a specific emotion. It is then illustrated that the emotion *anger* is elicited by (*physical or verbal*) behaviour, (*natural/abstract*) phenomenon, mental state, and text, which would offer insights into emotion regulation. What is highlighted, most importantly, is that linguistic analysis of affective expressions is complementary to emotion research conducted from psychological perspective.

Index Terms—corpus linguistics, *anger*, grammar patterns, trigger, complementarity

I. INTRODUCTION

A simple search of *we are angry* in Google returns 672,000,000 hits (on 25 Nov. 2013), which clearly shows that *anger* is frequently talked about in our daily life. Important indeed is the emotion *anger* which is considered as one of the basic emotions in psychology (see Ekman, 1994, 2003). Consequently, much attention has been paid to the study of the emotion *anger* (e.g. Ekman, 2003; Clore & Centerbar, 2004; Schieman, 2006; Ford & Tamir, 2012; Huntsinger, 2013). However, even though studies in both emotion psychology and linguistic research have shown that language plays an important role in conceptualising and understanding emotions (see Niemeier & Dirven, 1997; Fussel, 2002; Gendron, 2012), only very few studies have focused on a linguistic analysis of emotion terms (e.g. Halliday, 1998; Weigand, 2004; Bednarek, 2008; Romano et al, 2013), let alone the emotion *anger*. Consequently, it is necessary and worthwhile to analyse emotional or affective expressions from a linguistic perspective, which could contribute to bettering our understanding of emotions and further assisting emotion regulation. The present study therefore attempts to investigate the emotion *anger* from a corpus-linguistic perspective, with an aim to complement emotion research conducted in the psychological tradition.

II. 'WISDOM' EMBEDDED IN LANGUAGE

Language is one of the main ways in which emotion is expressed, it is true, though, that emotions can be expressed either verbally or nonverbally (for studies on nonverbal expression of emotions, see Joseph, 2004; Feng & O'Halloran, 2012). As far as linguistic expressions of emotions are concerned, it is believed that the cause of one specific type of emotion can be revealed through analysing those affective expressions associated with it. This is because there is much knowledge (or wisdom) embedded in naturally-occurring language, as suggested in Saucier & Goldberg (1996). In fact, Whorf (1956) has argued that language influences our conceptualisation and cognition of the world; and Austin has noted that all the distinctions worth drawing are embodied in "our common stock of words" (Austin, 1957, p. 8). These studies support the view that 'wisdom' is embedded in language.

This philosophical belief is the foundation for the lexical approach to personality research (Saucier & Goldberg, 1996). The lexical approach hypothesises that the significant and widespread personality traits are encoded in natural language (Saucier & Goldberg, 1996); or more straightforwardly, "[a]ll significant individual differences are embodied in language" (De Raad, 2000, p. 16). Researchers who are in favour of this approach thus advocate that personality traits can be identified through linguistic analysis. Following this viewpoint, researchers in personality psychology developed the Five Factor Model (FFM) of personality, whose validity and applicability has been supported in a number of studies (e.g. Saucier & Goldberg, 1996; Nofle & Robins, 2007; etc.).

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It has also long been suggested in emotion research that emotion and language are connected (e.g. Clore, Ortony & Foss, 1987; Niemeier & Dirven, 1997; Radden, 1998; Gendron et al, 2012; etc.). Researchers in this tradition hold the view that human beings cannot have a categorical perception of emotions, whereas the categorical perception can be induced when the facial expressions are paired with language (Roberson et al., 2007; Fugate et al, 2010). Following this suggestion, it would be arguable that a corpus linguistic investigation could be contributing to emotion research. In short, the upshot of this discussion is that linguistic analysis is an effective way to understand the world, be it personality or emotion, or anything else.

III. CORPUS AND METHODOLOGY

The corpus used for this study is the British National Corpus (BNC), and accessed through using the BNCweb interface - the CQP edition (see Hoffman et al, 2008). This corpus is compiled of samples of written (90%) and spoken (10%) language, with approximately 100 million tokens, which therefore guarantees that it is representative of how language is used in daily life. Basically, corpus queries can provide various information about how language is used. For example, the simple query of angry can provide information, such as whether it is more frequently used in spoken texts or written texts, gender differences, etc.

Spoken or Written:				
Category	No. of words	No. of hits	Dispersion (over files)	Frequency per million words
Written	87,903,571	3,852	1,030/3,140	43.82
Spoken	10,409,858	145	79/908	13.93
total	98,313,429	3,997	1,109/4,048	40.66

Figure 1. The distribution of the use of *angry* in spoken and written texts

Fig. 1 shows that *angry* are more often used in written texts, reflected by the normalized frequency, i.e. frequency per million words (43.82 vs 13.93).

Sex of Author:				
Category	No. of words	No. of hits	Dispersion (over files)	Frequency per million words
Female	14,588,254	1,499	257/414	102.75
Mixed	6,538,929	262	108/234	40.07
Male	30,662,031	1,070	341/920	34.9
total	51,789,214	2,831	706/1,568	54.66

Figure 2. The distribution of the use of *angry* according to sex of author

Fig. 2 shows that female authors like using *angry* much more than their male counterparts, as manifested by the normalized frequency (102.75 vs. 34.9) (cf. Schieman, 2006, p. 504). Other information, like how different people in different age groups or in different social classes use *angry* can also be found on the BNCweb interface.

This study is mainly concerned with *anger* construed as quality in terms of Halliday (1998) (see below). Accordingly, the analysis below is based on the hits of the query of *angry* in BNC. The query of *angry* returns 3997 hits in total, which is quite a large number to be manually analysed one by one. The concordance lines, therefore, are further restricted. The concordance lines analysed are those fitting into complementation patterns (see Hunston & Francis 1999), specifically the adjective complementation pattern in the present study.

The basic idea of a complementation pattern is that it links different elements, or in other words, a complementation pattern is a configuration of elements associated with one particular meaning. In the case of complementation pattern that are associated with affective meaning, it is typically a configuration of "Emoter + Emotion + Trigger" (trigger is a term similar to cause or stimuli) in terms of local grammar (see Bednarek 2008). The configuration makes it particularly suitable for investigating the cause of a specific emotion from a linguistic perspective, which is one of the research questions to be addressed (see below). For example, the following instances fit into the complementation pattern ADJ about, and the about-phrase indicates the trigger/cause of the emotion *anger*:

TABLE 1
EMOTER + EMOTION + TRIGGER CONFIGURATION

Emoter		Emotion	Trigger
n	v-link	ADJ	prep.
he	was	<i>angry</i>	about being spied on
I	used to be	<i>angry</i>	about hypocrisy and the cruelty of religion
he	was	<i>angry</i>	about the comment
she	seemed rather	<i>angry</i>	about something

In general, this study is guided by the following research questions: 1) What linguistic patterns are often used to construe *anger*; 2) What are the causes of the emotion *anger*; and 3) What are the implications. It needs to be pointed out that the investigation of the trigger of the emotion *anger* through analysing the complementation patterns is complemented by analysing a specific frame – *angry because*, which clearly explains why people feel *angry*. The

purpose is to find out to what extent the findings about the cause of *anger* provided by analysing complementation patterns is valid.

IV. CONSTRUING *ANGER* THROUGH LINGUISTIC PATTERNS

As abovementioned, a complementation pattern links different elements of a configuration, which make it particular suitable for the investigation of the causes of a specific emotion. Complementation patterns in this study are mainly formed of an adjective followed by prepositions, i.e. the prototypical form of complementation pattern is ADJ prep n. Prepositional phrases indicating circumstances (e.g. time period, place, and manner) are not considered as part of a complementation pattern. Conforming to this principle, 587 instances that are fitting into complementation patterns were identified and analysed. The following are some illustrative instances, which reveals the language patterns that are typically used to construe the emotion *anger*.

TABLE 2
ANGRY IN ADJ ABOUT

n	v-link	ADJ	about
The children	are	<i>angry</i>	about the stealing of bird's eggs
locals	are still	<i>angry</i>	about that delay
he	was still	<i>angry</i>	about the coat

TABLE 3
ANGRY IN ADJ AT

n	v-link	ADJ	at
he	got quite	<i>angry</i>	at the impossibility of ...
they	are particularly	<i>angry</i>	at the extensive use made of ...
Nicholson	is	<i>angry</i>	at a magazine article ...

TABLE 4
ANGRY IN ADJ FOR

n	v-link	ADJ	for
But I	was also	<i>angry</i>	for myself, because ...
but we	are	<i>angry</i>	for being penalised for ...
he	looked just a bit	<i>angry</i>	for outright defiance ...

TABLE 5
ANGRY IN ADJ OVER

n	v-link	ADJ	over
I	am	<i>angry</i>	over an act of injustice ...
They	are	<i>angry</i>	over plans aimed at encouraging...
Villagers	are	<i>angry</i>	over a proposed deal ...

TABLE 6
ANGRY IN ADJ TO-INF.

n	v-link	ADJ	to-inf.
I	was very very	<i>angry</i>	to read Batty's comments ...
I	was that	<i>angry</i>	to actually say something cos ...
I	pretended to be	<i>angry</i>	to punish her

TABLE 7
ANGRY IN ADJ WITH

n	v-link	ADJ	with
she	gets	<i>angry</i>	with the children ...
I	was	<i>angry</i>	with the hijackers...
I	feel very	<i>angry</i>	with the whole government ...

Though *angry* can co-occur with various prepositions, the frequency of the co-occurrence with different prepositions are different. The Figure below shows the distribution of *anger* construed through different language patterns.

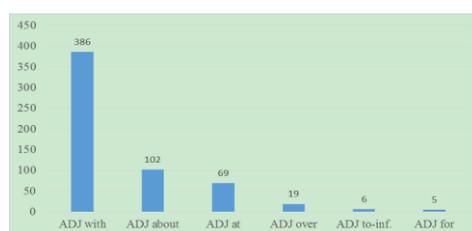


Figure 3. Language patterns and *angry*¹

¹ Instances in which *anger* is treated as the 'cause' of other actions are excluded. For the distinction between 'emotion as cause' and 'cause of emotion' see Dirven (1997).

V. TANGIBLISING THE INTANGIBLE: DECODING THE CAUSE OF *ANGER*

There have been some studies focusing on the investigation of the conceptualisation of emotions through looking at the prepositions the emotion terms co-occur with (e.g. Dirven, 1997; Osmond, 1997; Radden, 1998). For example, Dirven (1997) investigates the causes (the cause of emotions) and effects of emotions (emotions as cause), which is termed as ‘emotional causality’, through studying how emotional causality is expressed by English prepositional phrases. He argues that the prepositions such as *at*, *about* and *over* are often used to construe the stimulus triggering the emotion. According to Dirven (1997), the triggers of different types of emotions can be detected from the prepositional phrases, for instance, *at* implies that the cause of emotions as a target; *about* implies that the cause of emotions as abstract motion; *over* implies that the cause of emotions as concrete motion. Similarly, Osmond (1997) and Radden (1998) also examine the co-occurrence of emotion terms with prepositions.

These studies (Dirven, 1997; Osmond, 1997; Radden, 1998) are actually addressing the choice of the preposition for the construal of emotion from a cognitive perspective. They argue that the expression of emotive meaning is related to how they are conceptualised spatially and therefore the conceptualisation of emotion can be revealed by studying the prepositional phrase. For instance, they suggest that the emotion is conceptualised as container is construed with *in*, the emotion construed as companion is construed with *with*, for those are conceptualised as front and back regions are construed by *for* and *out of*. It seems that they are more focused on why a preposition is chosen to construe specific emotion/s (the answer is that because they denote different spatial meaning or because they are conceptualised differently). It is interesting to have these findings, yet it might also potentially be problematic (because, obviously, this approach cannot explain why the same emotion term can occur with different prepositions, like ‘angry’ can co-occur with *at*, *with*, *for*, *that*, *about*, etc.). Nevertheless, the current study is not going to verify or falsify this approach as or not as a proper way to explain the use of prepositions with the construal of emotions, but it aims to explore the possibility of identifying the causes of emotions through analysing what the noun phrase following the preposition indicates.

In addition, it is worth mentioning Halliday (1998) who investigates the lexicogrammar of pain using evidence from a corpus compiled of typical everyday expressions. He finds that the emotion pain is categorised in various ways: it could be construed as process (e.g. hurt), quality (e.g. painful) and thing (e.g. pain), which indicates that every emotion is a complex domain of experience. When it comes to the emotion *anger*, it is also the case that it can be construed either as process (e.g. anger, annoy), thing (e.g. anger, annoyance), quality (e.g. angry, annoyed). However, as an exploratory study, only *anger* construed as an attribute is analysed, which is intended as a demonstration of how to decode the trigger of a specific emotion by analysing the linguistic expressions associated with it.

It has been admitted in emotion research that it is difficult to figure out why someone is angry from his/her facial expressions. For instance, Ekman states that “[w]hen you see that someone is angry, you don’t know what made the person angry” (Ekman, 2003, p. 159). This indicates that the trigger of a specific emotion, including those ‘basic’ emotions, cannot be inferred from emotion display (e.g. facial expression, gesture). However, it is assumed that we will ‘tell’ the others why we have a specific feeling when the emotion becomes the discourse topic. It is therefore arguable that the linguistic analysis of angry-expressions will contribute to our understanding of what causes the emotion *anger*.

It is indeed very difficult to define what exactly triggers a specific emotion. Unlike the triggers suggested in emotion research (such as frustration behaviour, social stress, aversive mental states, etc. see Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones 2004 for more details), appraisal research from the linguistic perspective suggests that there might be three types of triggers of affect: 1) behaviour, 2) phenomenon, and 3) texts/processes (cf. Martin & White, 2005, p. 43). However, concordance analysis suggests that these triggers cannot fully explain the cause of *anger*. Consequently, the triggers of emotion need to be reconsidered. Bringing together those triggers proposed in both emotion research and linguistic research, we identified the five types of triggers of the emotion *anger*: 1) behaviour, 2) phenomenon, 3) mental states, 4) text and 5) vague (cannot tell what causes the emotion *anger*), which will be discussed respectively.

Apparently, researches from both psychological and linguistic perspectives agree that ‘behaviour’ causes emotion. In the current study, behaviour includes both verbal behaviour (e.g. *asking*, *telling*) and physical behaviour (e.g. *being spied*, *stealing*). What is more, this study considers all sentient beings as behaviour because it is arguable that when we say we are angry with/at someone, it is not someone who causes the *anger*, but it must be because of the behaviour someone did or someone who did not do what he was supposed to do. Illustrative examples are given below:

TABLE 8:
ANGRY TRIGGERED BY BEHAVIOUR

Perhaps he was	<i>angry</i>	about being spied on ...
She is	<i>angry</i>	at the way it portrays handicapped people...
Suddenly she was	<i>angry</i>	at everyone for involving her in all this

The second type of trigger is ‘phenomenon’. Martin and White (2005) have not clarified what they mean by saying that emotion is reactions to behaviour, text/process and phenomenon. Whereas ‘behaviour’ is more self-explanatory, the other two are less so. In the current study, phenomenon refers to those abstract things (e.g. *plans*, *proposals*), facts and situations, for instance:

TABLE 9:
ANGRY TRIGGERED BY PHENOMENON

I used to be	<i>angry</i>	about hypocrisy and the cruelty of religion ...
because he was	<i>angry</i>	at the child's existence...
They're	<i>angry</i>	over plans aimed at encouraging parents ...

Similar to findings from emotion research, the corpus data suggests that sometimes *anger* is triggered by mental affairs or states, such as thoughts, decision, attitude, etc. 'mental state' is therefore proposed to explain cases where *anger* is triggered by cognitive factors, e.g. *attitudes, thoughts*. For instance:

TABLE 10:
ANGRY TRIGGERED BY MENTAL STATE

Staff are	<i>angry</i>	at the thought ...
she felt	<i>angry</i>	at the idea being thrust on her ...
I was	<i>angry</i>	with what I thought about ...

It appears that there is an overlapping between the trigger labelled as 'verbal behaviour' and 'text'. Nevertheless, they are not the same thing. 'text' mainly deals with those things presented in the written form, for example, report, what is said in a newspaper, letter, etc. Though instances in which *anger* is triggered by 'text' is rare, there are a few, for instance:

TABLE 11:
ANGRY TRIGGERED BY TEXT

he was	<i>angry</i>	about the comments
Mr Clarke is ... extremely	<i>angry</i>	about the report which said he was ...
I was very	<i>angry</i>	about this letter

In addition, the corpus data also shows that sometimes we, as the Emoter (i.e. who are experiencing the emotion, see Bednarek 2008), do not know why we are angry, in which case the trigger is categorised as 'vague'. Examples are given as follows,

TABLE 12
VAGUE TRIGGER OF ANGRY

I suspect the singer is	<i>angry</i>	about something
he has never been	<i>angry</i>	about anything
she seemed rather	<i>angry</i>	about something

Considering the vagueness of emotion triggers, it might be considered as evidence to support the argument that vagueness is not a phenomenon unique to language use, but it might be a universal phenomenon existing in human experience.

The following table shows the proportion of *anger* elicited by different types of triggers (see Table 13)

TABLE 13
ANGRY ELICITED BY DIFFERENT TYPES OF TRIGGERS

Trigger	Data	Number	Percentage
behaviour		405	68.99%
phenomenon		111	18.91%
mental state		37	6.30%
vague		25	4.26%
text		9	1.54%

Clearly, it shows that *anger* is most frequently triggered by behaviour, which is consistent with findings from psychological researches. It also shows that abstract things and situations can also be the cause of *anger*. Complementary to Berkowitz and Harmon-Jones (2004), corpus analysis also shows that not only other negative emotions can trigger *anger*, various kinds of mental states (e.g. *thoughts, decision*) can also be *anger* determinants. What is more, it is demonstrated that even we, the Emoter, sometimes do not know why we are angry or what we are angry about.

But to what extent are the findings valid? In other words, does the analysis reflect and reveal exactly the triggers of *anger*. In order to address this issue, we further analysed instances fitting into the frame angry because which are explicitly explaining why someone is angry. The query of angry because returns 53 hits and six instances (48 – 53) are excluded: two are repeating the same instance, one is explaining the reason why it is kinder to cry than to be angry, the other three instances do not fit into the pattern (i.e. they are in the pattern angry because of).

1	H7V	to see us , but rather	<i>angry because</i>	another of his shoes had disappeared	phenomenon
2	AT1	He used to say he got	<i>angry because</i>	he cared so much . He	mental state
3	FSE	. He wondered if Alexei was	<i>angry because</i>	he had been beaten again ,	behaviour
4	H7V	said. I was upset and	<i>angry because</i>	he had not told me his	behaviour
5	FRU	rode away . Although I was	<i>angry because</i>	he had smiled at Flavia ,	behaviour
6	G1Y	six feet high and you are	<i>angry because</i>	he is not seven .]	phenomenon
7	B0U	a German is not necessarily	<i>angry because</i>	he is shouting , and so	behaviour
8	HWL	. I could tell he was	<i>angry because</i>	he was red in the face	phenomenon
9	CFC	. Gillespie was jealous and	<i>angry because</i>	his wife Kay , 28 ,	behaviour
10	HH1	. [I thought you were	<i>angry because</i>	I 'd run away .]	behaviour
11	ED4	your emotions : [I 'm	<i>angry because</i>	I 'm disappointed ,] or	mental state
12	HJH	s very territorial . She 's	<i>angry because</i>	I didn't consult her before	behaviour
13	JY7	she said . [He is	<i>angry because</i>	I did not keep my promise	behaviour
14	KDW	he says it makes me so	<i>angry because</i>	I don't know the voices	behaviour
15	HJ3	feel angry too . I feel	<i>angry because</i>	I know even this war will	mental state
16	FRU	. [Oh , she 's	<i>angry because</i>	I never do anything useful ,	behaviour
17	KDW	side , I get a bit	<i>angry because</i>	I see what society does to	phenomenon
18	ASA	of the circumstances ; I was	<i>angry because</i>	I thought we were going to	mental state
19	K5L	house all day . I 'm	<i>angry because</i>	I was told it would be	behaviour
20	K5L	divorce.] [I 'm	<i>angry because</i>	I was told it would be	behaviour
21	G15	under Stalin . They were	<i>angry because</i>	it was carried out unofficially --	behaviour
22	CBC	in Dances With Wolves are	<i>angry because</i>	it will divert money from their	phenomenon
23	K5L	this . [I 'm also	<i>angry because</i>	my husband isn't working so	behaviour
24	B21	them. We become inwardly	<i>angry because</i>	our partner fails to live up	behaviour
25	FP7	her fear . He 'd been	<i>angry because</i>	Pascoe had rewritten his script.	behaviour
26	HHA	up. She 'd only been	<i>angry because</i>	she 'd been so unaccountably shaken	behaviour
27	G06] said my mother , getting	<i>angry because</i>	she wasn't used to converse	behaviour
28	FPU	house. My sister was very	<i>angry because</i>	she was not invited as well	behaviour
29	FRH	Computers -- Whither ?] was	<i>angry because</i>	the ape recordings had thieved some	behaviour
30	K3K	fight the plans . They are	<i>angry because</i>	the site is a greenfield open	phenomenon
31	G3P	Situation : A parent is very	<i>angry because</i>	their son or daughter has arrived	behaviour
32	KRL	of people who come in are	<i>angry because</i>	they can't get anywhere .	phenomenon
33	CEJ	, they would make the people	<i>angry because</i>	they considered John to be a	mental state
34	HU0	ransacked his room and were	<i>angry because</i>	they couldn't find anything .	phenomenon
35	CK6	television . Catholics are only	<i>angry because</i>	they feel threatened and so there	mental state
36	A6V	workers in section 61 were	<i>angry because</i>	they felt , firstly , that	mental state
37	EBT	those on the list who were	<i>angry because</i>	they had been made liable to	behaviour
38	GWH	Hindley and Catherine were	<i>angry because</i>	they had not received any presents	phenomenon
39	E9U	, said some commuters were	<i>angry because</i>	they normally used the carriage	behaviour
40	CH3	The home fans were	<i>angry because</i>	they thought Andy Ansah was offside	mental state
41	C89	was four and she got really	<i>angry because</i>	they were wee tiny tubes and	phenomenon
42	G06	.] I knew she was	<i>angry because</i>	this appraisal reflected badly on her	phenomenon
43	K55	town . Masters said he was	<i>angry because</i>	vandals had smashed his door .	behaviour
44	HH3	make things worse . We get	<i>angry because</i>	we cannot understand , because	mental state
45	EWC	I 'm not going to get	<i>angry because</i>	you call me stupid names .	behaviour
46	JYD	convincing . [I 'm just	<i>angry because</i>	you want me to stop seeing	behaviour
47	HA6	denied hotly . [I 'm	<i>angry because</i>	-- because you think you can	mental state
48	FRD	my church .] People were	<i>angry because</i>	of that . A man called	
49	ASA	in a bunker . He was	<i>angry because</i>	of the circumstances; I was	
50	EAA	extremely frustrated and	<i>angry because</i>	of the number of controls head	
51	CFL	was four and she got really	<i>angry because</i>	they were wee tiny tubes and	
52	G0T	kinder to cry than to be	<i>angry because</i>	, they claimed , if they	
53	HGK	journalist .] [He is	<i>angry because</i>	I will not work all day	

We carefully read all the instances, and categorised the trigger types based on what is indicated by *because- clause* accordingly. The results are presented in Table 14.

TABLE 14
RESULTS OF ANALYSING ANGRY BECAUSE

Trigger	Number	Percentage
behaviour	26	55.32%
phenomenon	11	23.40%
mental state	10	21.28%
vague	/	/
text	/	/

It is clear that the result is to a great extent consistent with the findings from analysing the complementation patterns. It shows that most of the time we are angry because we or other person do not behave properly. It also demonstrates that we are angry because of unsatisfactory situations or facts and because of aversive mental states.

VI. IMPLICATIONS

It has been clearly illustrated and illuminated that *anger* is often elicited by behaviour, though phenomena or situations and mental states can also cause anger. Both verbal behaviours, such as insulting, shouting, and physical behaviours, such as stealing, interruption, can potentially elicit *anger*. Therefore, it is suggested that we should behave, verbally and physically, with decency and dignity so that we can live harmoniously in a society which is replete with joyfulness and peacefulness.

Most importantly, the identification of the cause of a specific emotion would greatly contribute to regulating that specific emotion. It has been shown that emotion regulation is one of the hottest topics in emotion research (see Gross, 2007, 2013; Kuppens, 2010; Brans et al., 2013). Emotion regulation is a process through which an emotion can be dampened, intensified, or simply maintained (see Rimé 2007, p. 466). It is important because it influences our mental and physical health, and even helps to make a better world, for example, researchers are attempting to extend these findings to global conflicts, such as the ongoing conflict in Cyprus (e.g. Halperin et al., 2012; Brans et al., 2013).

It is assumed that a complete understanding of the causes of emotions will contribute to successful emotion regulation. It has been suggested that inadequate understanding of the cause of a specific emotion might lead to failure of emotion regulation. Consequently, to regulate emotion, one must accurately track the ongoing (or anticipated) emotional responses either explicitly or implicitly; and to track the emotional response requires an understanding of what causes the emotional reaction. However, it is noted that most of the studies to date on emotion causations are mainly conducted from a psychological perspective. Though useful these studies are, it is believed that the investigation of emotion causation from a linguistic perspective would be complementary to psychological studies. In other words, it is believed that linguistic analysis of a specific emotion term can reveal more detailed information about what causes that specific emotion, as demonstrated above, and can contribute to successful emotion regulation.

What is more, it is also important to understand the consequences of a specific emotion because emotion regulation does not only mean the avoidance of negative emotions. Generally, people tend to decrease negative emotions and to increase positive emotions. However, it has been also pointed out that negative emotions (such as *anger*, *sadness*) are not necessarily a bad thing (Ford & Tamir, 2012). On the contrary, negative emotions can sometimes function positively, for example, *anger* when collecting debts and in a fight (see Ford & Tamir, 2012), and vice versa, i.e. positive emotions can have negative effects, for example, amusement during meetings (see Gruber et al, 2011).

It does not matter very much whether we are trying to approach or avoid a specific emotion; successful avoidance or failure of emotion regulation is what matters. It is believed that successful emotion regulation is possible provided that we have a complete understanding of what elicits emotions. In terms of the current study, the linguistic analysis informs us more about why we are angry, which will further contribute to emotion regulation of *anger*, i.e. the emotion *anger* can be successfully approached when feeling angry is helpful or avoided when feeling angry is bad.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study has explored the language patterns that are frequently used to construe the emotion *anger* and the causes of the emotion *anger* (mainly on anger construed as quality) from a corpus linguistic perspective, with an aim to complement psychological investigation of *anger* causation. Through analysing expressions in which the adjective *angry* occurs, it has identified the language patterns that are frequently used to express *anger*. Subsequently, the causes of the emotion *anger* have been revealed, i.e. *anger* could be triggered by behaviour, phenomenon, mental state, and text. It has also been demonstrated that occasionally we do not know why we are angry.

Emotion regulation requires a better understanding of emotion causation. It is believed the causes of emotion are encoded in naturally occurring language, which therefore can be revealed through analysing expressions that are associated with emotions. It is argued that linguistic analysis of emotion expressions is complementary to psychological investigation of emotion causation, which would ultimately contribute to successful emotion regulation.

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Yi Xiao is currently a lecturer at the Chongqing Three Gorges University. She is also a PhD candidate at the Southwest University. Her research interests includes systemic functional linguistics and discourse analysis.

Hang Su is currently a PhD researcher at the University of Birmingham. His research interests includes corpus linguistics, systemic functional linguistics and discourse analysis.

College English Network Teaching and Learning Model Oriented by Critical Thinking Problems through Community of Practice

Li Wei

Liaoning Police Academy, Dalian, China

Abstract—Critical thinking is a kind of higher-levelled thinking model which emphasizes the following skills as conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating information gathered from or generated by observation, experience reflection, reasoning, or communication. Critical thinking is also an important skill for the modern college students to master and apply in their study, research and future profession. This kind of skill can be trained and developed in any kind of educational patterns. Formal and informal English teaching and learning is an effective and practical approach. Relying on the information technology and communicative tool, three-stepped college English network teaching and learning model oriented by critical thinking problems through community of practice has been applied in Liaoning Police Academy for a couple of years. This three-stepped model includes: design and release of pre-class central questions, conducting in-class group collaborative learning through discussion and exploration, and carrying out after-class network reflective learning through accomplishing Viewpoint Composition or Reflective Diary. These three steps of teaching and learning centre around exploring, discussing, and answering 10 critical thinking questions advanced by English teachers' community of practice. After this unique and effective training program, most of college students are passionate for discussing and exploring those deep-levelled questions rather than repeating or imitating those simple and unchallenging questions, and hence, their critical thinking skills are enhanced to a perfect realm. English teachers should remember that an important purpose of teaching English is to develop students' critical thinking skill through putting forward sufficient questions covering language and cultural issues.

Index Terms—critical thinking, community of practice, three-stepped College English teaching and learning model

I. INTRODUCTION

In the book of Developing a Thinking Skills curriculum, Beyer emphasized that our graduates should be able to make well-reasoned decisions, solve problems skillfully, and make carefully thought out judgments about the worth, accuracy, and value of information, ideas, claims, and propositions. (Beyer, 1988) It is evident that the purpose of the education is not to make students grasp amounts of knowledge, but to help them master bountiful skills to analyze the problems with logical and critical thinking to judge their particular qualities and features, solving the problems in the end individually or collectively.

Among various thinking skills, critical thinking competence has been widely acknowledged as the core and indispensable one contributing to the creative and comprehensive development of the educated. Critical thinking training is a long and complex process based on universal intellectual values that transcend subject matter divisions: clarity, accuracy, precision, consistency, relevance, sound evidence, good reasons, depth, breadth, and fairness. It requires the educated master the basic skill of reasoning covering purpose, assumptions, concepts, empirical grounding, reasoning leading to conclusions, implications and consequences, objections from alternative viewpoints, and frame of reference.

College English teaching effects has the positive relative relationship with English teachers' critical thinking skill. In recent years, academic experts home and abroad began to focus on the condition of teachers' critical thinking skill and advocate that teacher preparation curriculum should attach to the importance of developing their own skills. Some researchers probed into its training approaches, such as case study, log method, and network discussion. The training on students' critical thinking skill through college English teaching and learning, however, hasn't been further explored and practiced. The paper mainly discusses the approaches and methods to train and develop students' critical thinking abilities through network college English teaching and learning pattern oriented by critical problems.

II. THEORETICAL STUDY OF CRITICAL THINKING CONCEPT AND ITS COMBINATION WITH NETWORK COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

A. The Analysis of Critical Theory and Critical Thinking

John Dewey (1859-1952) converted the descriptions of the processes of thinking into educational theory, who argued that quality education should go beyond memorizing facts to teach the processes of learning. Under the guidance of this educational concept, inquiring minds and questioning spirits are admired and promoted in the modern classroom. The modern philosophers of education have advanced Dewey's ideas that development of rational thinking should be a primary goal of schools.

Cognitive psychologists used observation as a primary research technique to advance the theory that cognitive processes develop based on experience. Vygotsky has recently amplified and classified the important relationship of experience, social relationships, and learning. (Vygotsky, 1978) Philosopher Richard Paul clarified the field of critical thinking in *Dimensions of Thinking: A passionate drive for clarity, accuracy, and fair-mindedness, a fervor for getting to the bottom of things, to the deepest root issues, for listening, sympathetically to opposite points of view, a compelling drive to seek out evidence, -----*. (Paul, 1988) The National Council for Excellence in Critical Thinking defines critical thinking as follows: it is the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action. Critical thinking can be seen as having two components: a set of information and belief generating and processing skills and abilities; and the habit, based upon intellectual commitment, of using those skills and abilities to guide behavior.

B. The Speciality of Critical Thinking in Higher Education and College English Teaching

The main form of critical thinking is dialogue and self-reflection. The concept of dialogue derives from ancient Greece, and the concept of self-reflection from ancient oriental countries. The Dialogue Education contradicting with Monologue Education came into popularity gradually. The real pitfall of the modern education is that one authoritative monologue education substitutes for classical education characteristic of free dialogue education. (Cheng & Xia, 2012) One of the speciality of higher education lies in the introduction of scientific research into teaching and learning process. As a result, the goal of the higher education is to train the students' scientific spirits and creative thinking habits, possessing some certain self-study abilities so as to update their knowledge and improve their capabilities in the future professions. (Cheng & Kang, 2010)

As to the Chinese college English teaching, most of English teachers don't have abundant critical thinking abilities, which mainly attributes to several domestic elements restricting their CT development: the Chinese traditional cultures have been cultivating these English teachers, influencing their growth in characters and values. They learn to obey their parents and teachers with few discussions and ambiguous evaluations. English teaching objectives and contents always put linguistic skills training as the first priority, setting a very small proportion on the humanistic education promoting CT development, (Hu & Sun, 2006) which results in the poor improvement in CT abilities for teachers and students. In fact, the present popular college English teaching model featured by teacher-center, vocabulary, grammar and simple structure teaching, five-skill training cannot challenge English teachers' cognitive skills or promote their improvement in faculty of thinking.

C. The Analysis of Community of Practice

Community of Practice, firstly advanced by Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger, refers to a group of people connected with each other based upon the common interests and shared capabilities in the practical activities. (Wenger, 2002) This group of people shares their learning experience and knowledge in informal and creative forms so as to examine the problems appeared in this learning team with specific perspective and search for the solutions to the problems creatively. As a matter of fact, Community of Practice is the term of Situational Cognition Education with its emphasis on knowledge construction, meaning negotiation, and team members' cooperation. There are three core elements for this community including the common domain, the common community, and the common practice. This community of practice is not only a community with common ideals and interests, but, above all, a practical community characterized by mutual engagement, joint enterprise and shared repertoire. (Ruan, 2014)

III. CONSTRUCTION AND PRACTICE OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING AND LEARNING PATTERN ORIENTED BY CRITICAL PROBLEMS THROUGH COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

A. Construction of College English Teaching and Learning Community of Practice

Based on the basic principles of community of practice, the author established English teaching community and English learning community. English teaching community named after Sharing & Improving Online Teaching Community is mainly made up of 10 English teachers from five universities and English Learning community titled with Growing-up Online Learning Community is composed of 78 students from 7 universities. These two community members have common domain. The author relies on QQ communicative platform to set up 10 learning groups according to their different ideals and interests. These 10 learning groups conduct English topic reading and information sharing in their favourite fields. Therefore, the previous big class is divided into 10 interest groups who can accomplish teacher's pre-learning tasks and in-class activities. Similarly, the teaching community is divided into 5 groups with different teaching concepts and approaches. These group members exchange their teaching experience and ideas in the same field. Fig. 1 and 2 are recorded activities of these two communities. The community members also have the same

community in which the group members establish the relationship of mutual discussion, learning from each other, and sharing knowledge and information. The belonging sense of each community has been enhanced greatly. English learning and teaching isn't confined to the physical space of classroom, but instead, cyberspace connects the students and teachers closely and tightly.



Fig.1: Group activity about CET 4 writing in Growing-up learning community.

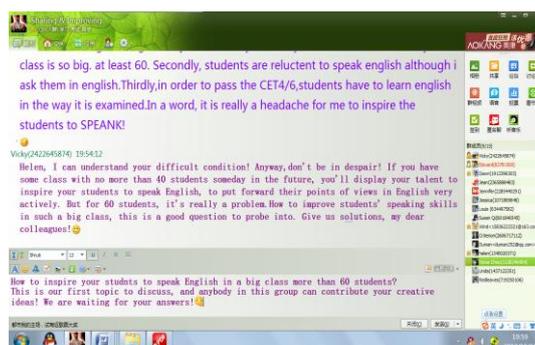


Fig.2: Interaction between Helen and Vicky, English teachers from two universities in Sharing & Improving English Teaching community.

B. Design of Three-stepped College English Teaching and Learning Model Oriented by Critical Problems Centred on Language and Cultural Issues

Step 1: design and release of pre-class central questions. English teachers must understand grammatical, pragmatical, and cross-cultural knowledge very deeply before teaching a new unit. English teachers from English Teaching Community have to design language questions, focusing on inductive, appraisal and analytical abilities rather than simple and repeated imitation of the language, and cultural questions stressing appraisal, deductive and analytical ones in terms of cultural development, cultural characteristics, cultural comparison and cross-cultural communication. All these questions should match with five-skill training in deduction, induction, evaluation, reasoning, and analysis. The author takes the Integrated Course 2 of New College English published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press as an example, designing 5 language questions and 5 cultural counterparts as the pre-class learning tasks which necessarily cover the training of five thinking abilities. These questions are formed through heated discussion and cooperation of English Teaching Community. Each community member can put forward 10 relative questions, and then the qualified 10 ones are selected for release. Three days before learning the new unit, these well-chosen questions are uploaded onto the English Learning Community or other digital platform. Students conduct network preview of the text, self-search, deep-leveled thinking, and at last, the group discussion to form the group answers for each of questions.

Now let's take a close look at these 10 questions designed for Unit One: Learning: Chinese Style. Five questions for language issues are: What does the text begin with? Write down differences in approaches to learning between the Chinese and Americans; What's the function of the anecdote? How do you understand the "standing on the shoulders of giants" phenomenon? How does the author draw his conclusion in the end of the text? (How does the author wind up the text?). Five questions for cultural issues as follows: What did the Chinese colleagues think of the key-slot incident? What examples does the author give to illustrate childhood education in the arts of China? What does the author think of Teaching by Holding His Hand? How does the author think of the Chinese attitude towards creativity? What are the advantages and disadvantages of Eastern (Chinese) and Western (American) learning styles? Table 1 presents these 10 questions belonging to five particular training areas in induction, deduction, appraisal, reasoning, and analysis. Fig 3 and 4 record the releasing of these 10 questions characteristic of critical thinking training in English Learning Community and heated discussions among community members.

TABLE 1:
PRE-CLASS QUESTIONS FOR LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL ISSUES IN LEARNING: CHINESE STYLE

Abilities	Central Questions for language Issues	Central Questions for Cultural Issues
Inductive ability	What does the text begin with?	What did the Chinese colleagues think of the key-slot incident?
Deductive ability	Write down differences in approaches to learning between the Chinese and Americans.	What examples does the author give to illustrate childhood education in the arts of China?
Appraisal ability	What's the function of the anecdote?	What does the author think of Teaching by Holding His Hand?
Reasoning ability	How do you understand the "standing on the shoulders of giants" phenomenon?	How does the author think of the Chinese attitude towards creativity?
Analytical ability	How does the author draw his conclusion in the end of the text? (How does the author wind up the text?)	What are the advantages and disadvantages of Eastern (Chinese) and Western (American) learning styles?

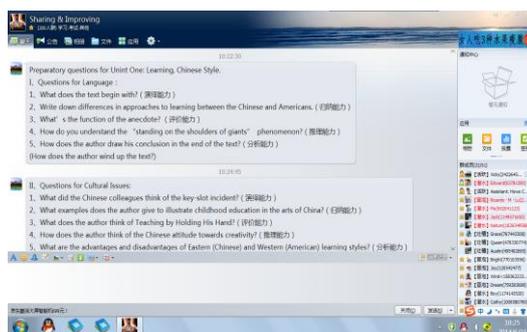


Fig.3: The release of 10 questions before learning Unit One: Learning: Chinese Style

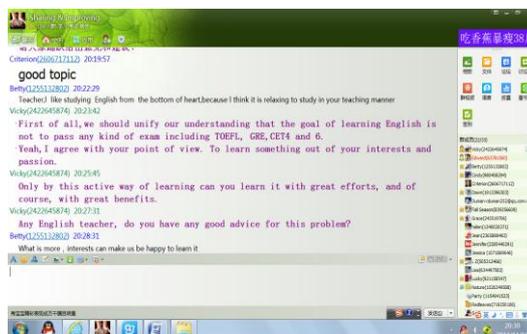


Fig.4: Heated discussions among community members centered around pre-class questions

Step 2: conducting in-class group collaborative learning through discussion and exploration. Students spent three days previewing the new lesson through multi-media including college network English learning platform, English Learning Community, micro-message group, English teachers' QQ Zone and micro-blogs to pre-learn the new learning materials thoroughly and deeply, providing the first-round answers for 10 questions reflecting critical thinking training through online communication with their group members of 10 groups and also with English teachers in order to explore the deep-leveled connotation and significance of the questions. New questions will be taken into the class owing to the critical thinking about each question. In the English class, the students from 10 groups can discuss 10 questions freely and publicly (the number of the group members range from 2 to 6, Fig 5 is a good case in point). After group members put forward their points of views very actively, a group representative will be invited to generalize their viewpoints. If the opinions meet with disagreements, then an open discussion comes into play. English teacher is the organizer, guide and evaluator in the process of this 3C's comprehensive training. College English class should be changed from a traditional situation that teacher teaches and students take notes answering simple and recurring questions which prevents higher-leveled thinking abilities. Instead, the students' creative and critical thinking about those pre-learning questions with discussion, answering, searching for the optimum solutions, and presenting new questions has become the major frame of the new college English teaching and learning pattern. Under this new teaching model featured by self-exploration and group collaboration, the teachers put more emphasis on training and developing the students' critical and creative thinking abilities through designing higher-levelled analytical questions which are the highest-level question for critical thinking. On teaching the new unit, the class oriented by analytical questions fulfill the thinking and exploring learning focusing on critical thinking, collaborative discussion and cross-cultural communicative abilities.



Fig.5: In-class group discussions about 10 pre-class questions in Class 2 Grade 1 of Criminal Technology Department

TABLE 2:
ANSWERS FOR PRE-CLASS QUESTIONS FOR LANGUAGE AND CULTURAL ISSUES IN LEARNING: CHINESE STYLE

Answers Abilities	Answers for Central Questions for language Issues	Answers for Central Questions for Cultural Issues
Inductive ability	The text begins with an anecdote.	Most of the colleagues displayed the same attitude as the staff at the Jinling Hotel.
Deductive ability	(1) ways to learn to accomplish a task; (2) attitudes towards creativity and skills	(1) Children at the age of 5 or 6 painting flowers, fish and animals skillfully; (2) Calligraphers aged 9 or 10 can produce excellent works.
Appraisal ability	It is directly relevant to the author's assigned tasks in China including investigating early childhood education and comparing two learning styles.	It can be applied to the mastering of the arts which can take place by continual careful shaping and molding.
Reasoning ability	It was first recorded in the 12 th century and it was later famously used by Issac Newton which means the reason why I can see a litter further or achieve greater success is that I stand on the shoulders of Giants or I obtain the great essence from previous theories and achievements.	They don't pay more attention to creativity than Americans who put priority in developing children's creativity at an early age.
Analytical ability	He winds up the text with a suggestion in the form of a question rather than an answer.	Open answers from different perspectives.

Step 3: Carrying out after-class network reflective learning through accomplishing **Viewpoint Composition** or **Reflective Diary**. The main purpose of writing these two kinds of compositions is to encourage the students to describe the concepts accurately, to cite the evidences effectively and to make the logical reasoning strictly. Once the students finish their writing assignment, they upload their products to the community of practice for four-dimension assessment including self-assessment, peer assessment, teachers' assessment, and public assessment. This kind of positive writing output is the profound reflection and wide expansion of the intensive reading, and this reflection and understanding of the new materials is the best approach to train students' critical thinking skill and their English cultural thinking. As to the text of Learning: Chinese Styles, the author assigned two topics for the students to write: *The Optimum Way of Learning: from Chinese and American Perspective* and *Understanding of the Western and Eastern Education and Learning Approach*. Fig. 6 is Zhou Fuhao's writing titled Creativity and Basic Skills e-mailed to his English teacher through QQ mailbox for the third dimension assessment.

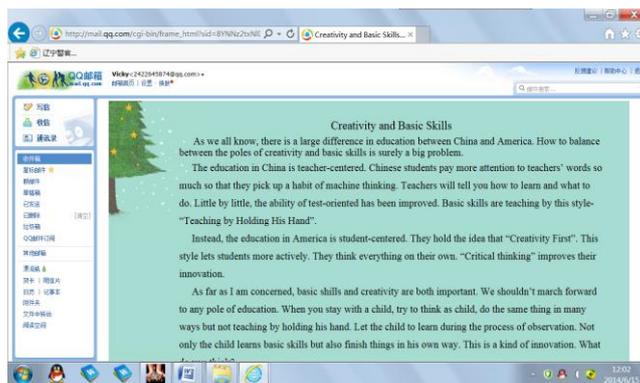


Fig.6: Zhou Fuhao e-mailed his composition to his English teacher for teacher's assessment.

Creativity and Basic Skills

As we all know, there is a huge difference in education between China and America. How to balance between the poles of creativity and basic skills is surely a big problem.

The education in China is teacher-centered. Chinese students pay more attention to teachers' words so much so that they pick up a habit of machine thinking. Teachers will tell you how to learn and what to do. Little by little, the ability of test-oriented has been improved. Basic skills are teaching by this style- "Teaching by Holding His Hand".

Instead, the education in America is student-centered. They hold the idea that "Creativity First". This style lets students more actively. They think everything on their own. "Critical thinking" improves their innovation.

As far as I am concerned, basic skills and creativity are both important. We shouldn't march forward to any pole of education. When you stay with a child, try to think as child, do the same thing in many ways but not teaching by holding his hand. Let the child to learn during the process of observation. Not only the child learns basic skills but also finish things in his own way. This is a kind of innovation. What do you think?

It's well-known to us that Chinese students tend not to think in critical manner, but rather, they tend to think in a middle way without direct disagreement or open discussion, which results in the shortage of creative talents with abundant critical thinking abilities. The unique three-step design of English teaching pattern oriented by critical thinking problems just compensates for this teaching deficiency. Although there are some mistakes or flaws in this viewpoint composition, we should admit that Zhou's critical thinking on learning approaches has been reflected through English teaching pattern oriented by critical problems. Maybe his critical thinking ability hasn't reached a high level, but we do believe that after long-term cultivation and regular training his critical thinking skill can be enhanced to the acme of perfection. This is only an initiative example of scores of writings aimed at developing students' critical thinking ability. So long as this English teaching pattern can be applied into the normal English class, turning into the normalized teaching pattern, we are reasonable to believe that most of the students will be equipped with critical thinking ability, learning to solve the problems with critical theory.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

English teaching is a rather complicated cognitive activity. In the process of setting up the curriculum objectives, (Herrick, 1962) conducting teaching plans, (Taylor, 1970) designing learning tasks, (Mondol, 1973) taking part in teacher-to-student inter-activities, (Peterson, 1988) judging the students' learning problems, (Carbone, 1980) and fulfilling teaching assessment, (Johnson, 1972) English teachers must employ critical thinking skill to accomplish the above teaching goals. As far as critical thinking education is concerned, only English teachers possess sufficient critical thinking skill can they play an exemplary role for the students applying this kind of skill in their learning, (Mayfield, 2001) make an accurate judgment on the students' critical thinking skills, and adjust their teaching contents, teaching progress and strategies to ensure that the students' critical thinking abilities can be developed significantly. (Roy et al., 2005) To design an English lesson seriously full of appropriate critical thinking problems through pre-class questions release and discussion and after-class assessments for reflective writing assignments by means of online learning community of practice is a very effective and practical approach to train the college students' critical thinking skills in English network teaching and learning process in China.

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Li Wei, born in Feb. 1972 in Liaoyang, China. BA of English, Liaoning Normal University, 1993, Master of English, Liaoning Normal University, 2007. She is a professor in Liaoning Police Academy, the author of one EI indexed paper. She has published more than 40 papers in Chinese academic journals including World Ethno-national Studies, Shandong Social Sciences, Social Sciences in Xinjiang, Academy, and 20 English papers published in international journals and international conference proceedings. Her concentration centers around the Multicultural education, the Canadian Studies and network assisted Foreign Language Teaching.

Professor Wei is a candidate for the Police Liaison Officers of the Public Security Ministry of China.

Stylistic Functions of ‘Discollocation’ in Soyinka’s Novels: A Systemic-functional Analysis

Edmund Bamiro

Dept. of English, Redeemer’s University, Mowe, Ogun State, Nigeria

Abstract—The present study employs the theoretical framework of systemic-functional grammar to probe the stylistic functions of ‘discollocation’ in the novels of Wole Soyinka, the Nobel Laureate for Literature in 1986. Discollocation is analyzed in relation to ideational metaphors, metaphors of mood, and the textual metafunction. In light of several critics’ contention that, compared to the style of another of Soyinka’s contemporaries, Chinua Achebe, Soyinka’s diction is often obscure and impenetrable, this study validates such critics’ claim. The study submits that although discollocation aids Soyinka in foregrounding and comparing ideas, this stylistic device may slow down the pace of reading comprehension. However, more studies are needed on the psycholinguistic implications of discollocation in Soyinka’s writing.

Index Terms—stylistics, discollocation, systemic-functional grammar, ideational metaphor, metaphor as mood, textual metafunction

I. INTRODUCTION

Collocation, in systemic-functional grammar, is an indispensable notion in lexical cohesion. According to Halliday (1994), “... there are ... instances of lexical cohesion which do not depend on any general semantic relationship ... but rather on a particular association between the items in question – a tendency to co-occur. This ‘co-occurrence tendency’ is known as collocation” (p. 312).

Collocational theory itself is traceable to Firth (1934-1951) who argued that “You shall know a word by the company it keeps” (p. 179). His familiar example was that of *ass* which occurred in ‘You silly ___’, ‘Don’t be such an ___’, and with a limited set of adjectives such as *silly*, *obstinate*, *stupid*, and *awful*. For Firth, this keeping company, which he called “collocation” was part of the meaning of a word.

Following Firth and Halliday, several systemic-functional linguists have written at length on the subject. For example, Spencer and Gregory (1970) insist that “collocation is an important concept to have in mind when studying the language of literature” (p. 79). They further specify that

Collocation is set up to account for the tendency of certain items in a language to occur close to each other, a tendency not completely explained by the grammar. For example, the item *economy* is likely to occur in the same linguistic environment as items such as *affairs*, *policy*, *plan*, *program*, *disaster*, etc. These items are termed the collocates of *economy* which, because it is the item under examination, is itself termed the nodal item. (Spencer and Gregory, 1970, p. 78)

Also, according to Robinett (1985):

In its simplest terms, it (i.e. collocation) is the arrangement or juxtaposition of words. Words quite often co-occur in close proximity with a high degree of frequency. Learning these collocations will be useful to students. This process of considering groupings of words involves the consideration of the whole context in which a word occurs. Thus, learning the word *car* might involve learning some of the words that collocate with it: *driver*, *accelerate*, *stop*, *seat belt*; *gas* (*oline*), *oil*, *lubrication*, *service*; *windshield*, *brakes*, *insurance*, *collision*. (p. 121)

The term collocation is similar to Wardhaugh’s (1969, p. 133) “probabilities of occurrence”. Although the systemic-functional conception of collocation is generally limited to lexis, in a larger sense the “probabilities of occurrence” may include syntactic signals of subject-verb word order, nouns following prepositions, nouns following a definite or indefinite article, an adjective or adverb regularly following the adverb *very*, etc. The concept of collocation is also akin to the idea of “mutual expectancy” described by Allen (1973, p. 15-19) as our ability to guess what should come next in connected discourse. Syntactic items such as sequence signals (conjunctive adverbs, pronouns, etc.) play an important part in providing such expectancy clues. If eventually linked with the literary critic’s ideal conception of style, collocation is analogous to “style considered as the best words in the best order” (Bateson, 1979, p. 100).

I have gone into this considerable detail about collocation so as to provide a background for my discussion of discollocation in the novels of Wole Soyinka. ‘Discollocation’, as used in this study, is similar to Spencer and Gregory’s (1970) “unusual collocations” (p. 90), Leech’s (1970) “collocative clash” (p. 120), and Carter’s (1982) “unexpected collocations” (p. 30). Spencer and Gregory (1970) remark that collocation is an important concept to have in mind when studying the language of literature because “The creative writer often achieves some of his [sic] effects through the interaction between usual and unusual collocations, and through the creation of new, and therefore

stylistically significant, collocations” (p. 79). They furnish some examples of discollocation in Dylan Thomas’s verse: “a grief ago”; “once below a time”; “happy as the heart was long”; “all the sun long”; “it was Adam and maiden”.

Leech (1966) indicates that discollocation – which he once saw in terms of lexical deviation – studied with reference to the frequency collocations, or groups of lexical items in proximity, is a matter of gradience. Consequently, “One would have no hesitation in dubbing the collocation damp smile as deviant, but it would have to be placed on a scale of lesser-to-greater deviation on the lines of:

- (1) broad smile (most normal)
- (2) free smile
- (3) damp smile
- (4) high smile (most deviant)” (Leech, 1966, p. 143).

In their discussion of collocation, Spencer and Gregory (1970) emphasize that “when compared to the referential criterion of meaning, the formal criterion of collocation has this in its favour: it is more observational and objective” (p. 79). Consequently, Carter (1982, pp. 19-51) devised tests to check for informants’ sense of the degree to which certain words belong together in W.H. Auden’s poem, “Oxford”. Among others, the following lexical items were not predicted and might be deemed to be unexpected collocations in the company of surrounding words in the poem: ‘agile babies’; ‘high-strung students’; ‘fidget and poke’; ‘Eros Paidogogos’; ‘Talkative city’, etc. However, Carter (1982) acknowledges the problems of these kinds of tests designed to elicit literary judgements (pp. 19-51). He accepts that “the results of the tests are conditioned by the nature of the tests themselves, the selection of items for testing (other responses to the poem might require different tests) and by the arbitrary, albeit necessary, imposition of a norm” (Carter, 1982, p. 35).

II. METHODOLOGY

My analysis focuses on Soyinka’s two novels, *The Interpreters* (1966) (hereafter, *Int.*) and *Season of Anomy* (1973) (hereafter, *SOA*). The Nobel laureate for Literature in 1986, literary critics generally agree that the problem with Soyinka’s style inheres in his difficult lexis and syntax. It would then appear that part of the problem with Soyinka’s difficult style lies in various discollocations noted in his two novels.

The theoretical framework adopted for the analysis is Systemic-Functional Grammar (SFG). SFG is the brainchild of the British linguist, Michael Halliday. The precursor of SFG is Scale-and-Category linguistics. Especially during the 1960s, the kind of grammar proposed by Halliday formally incorporated a semantic and functional dimension and it became known as systemic-functional grammar or systemic grammar for short. In proposing SFG, Halliday’s central thesis is that meaning or semantics cannot be divorced from syntax. In other words, syntactic statements are essentially semantic statements. SFG thus interprets language as being an enormous systems network of meaning potential. The task of the grammar is to specify the total grid of options available to a speaker of the language. SFG does not draw any distinction of principle between the meaning potential and the use of that potential in a given context. More importantly, in contrast to scale-and-category grammar, SFG claims that any sentence or clause in English performs three kinds of functions simultaneously: the ideational, interpersonal, and textual metafunctions.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Discollocations in Soyinka’s novels are noted largely at the nominal group structure with a few examples occurring at the rank of the clause. In the nominal group structure, discollocation is a result of a semantic ‘tension’ or incongruity between the ‘Epithet’ (more commonly known as ‘Modifier’ in traditional/structural/transformational grammars) and the ‘Thing’ (‘Head’ or ‘Headword’ in traditional/structural/transformational grammars), the latter being the semantic core of the nominal group. In other words, discollocation of this kind is a matter of incongruous relationships. Numerous examples of this type of incongruous relationship are attested in Soyinka’s novels and it is almost impossible to make a frequency count of all the instances. However, before going into specific functional analysis of this kind of discollocation, some examples are furnished below. The first two examples are from *The Interpreters*, while the remaining are from *Season of Anomy*:

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|-------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. hard shadows (p. 10) | 19. infectious calm (p. 240) |
| 2. hard mists (p. 15) | 20. turbulent quest (p. 240) |
| 3. silenced cries (p. 90) | 21. extravagant haloes (p. 268) |
| 4. staring sockets (p. 90) | 22. stubborn hope (p. 269) |
| 5. empty visions (p. 90) | 23. lidless eyes (p. 295) |
| 6. puzzled death (p. 91) | 24. sedate lunacy (p. 312) |
| 7. living death (p. 306) | 25. buried past (p. 316) |
| 8. luscious mudbath (p. 174) | 26. symbolic dust (p. 126) |
| 9. metal bestiary (p. 174) | 27. hungry prowl (p. 128) |
| 10. iron mastodons (p. 174) | 28. armed serpents (p. 133) |
| 11. succulent odours (p. 242) | 29. febrile dark (p. 151) |
| 12. restful shadows (p. 148) | 30. feral tingle (p. 167) |

- | | |
|------------------------------------|--------------------------------|
| 13. dark intuitions (p. 150) | 31. caustic flights (p. 293) |
| 14. spurious grandeur (p. 158) | 32. varnished skull (p. 164) |
| 15. homicidal hate (p. 164) | 33. astonished wings (p. 194) |
| 16. barkless height (p. 175) | 34. leaden arms (p. 308) |
| 17. distanced wishfulness (p. 198) | 35. seated ring (p. 312) |
| 18. weighted inertia (p. 220) | 36. eloquence of eyes (p. 268) |

I pointed out earlier that discollocation at the nominal group structure is a result of a semantic incongruity or anomaly between the 'Epithet' and the 'Thing'. It then follows that discollocation may be explained in terms of grammatical metaphor as conceptualized in SFG: that is, the discollocations represent the writer's effort to present congruent or 'normal' experience in a rather 'incongruent' or 'anomalous' mode. Consequently, discollocations invite the reader to reword or replace the incongruent modes of meaning in a more congruent way.

It is thus suggested that a fruitful way of analyzing discollocations, which result from an incongruous relationship between the 'Epithet' and the 'Thing', is to posit a condition of grammatical metaphor. The examples listed above are, therefore, analyzable as ideational metaphors, metaphors of mood and they also generally fulfill a textual metafunction.

A. *Discollocation as Ideational Metaphors*

The examples of discollocations above are all instances of ideational metaphors because given our knowledge of the world, they simply describe unlikely states of affairs. These unlikely states of affairs are brought about by a collocative clash between the 'Epithet' and the 'Thing'. Given our knowledge of the world, we all know that 'shadows' are not 'hard', 'mists' are not 'hard', 'sockets' do not 'stare', the 'dead' can never be 'puzzled', a 'hope' is not 'stubborn', etc. However, by deliberately rendering these states of affairs in 'incongruent' or 'metaphorical' terms, Soyinka is asking us to scrutinize these states of affairs. In this kind of situation, we might follow Halliday's injunction that the discollocations have to be "unscrambled".

Similar to other types of ideational metaphors discussed by Halliday (1994, pp. 321-332), the "unscrambling" of some of our examples listed above could result in congruent forms negotiated through the complex exercise of rewording. Although working within a different grammatical orientation which emphasizes "an inventory of regular relational principles describing metaphoric extensions" as well as "a feature extension rule eliminating selectional clashes", this is how Norrick (1981, pp. 220-224) posits that discollocations or what he terms "transferred adjectives" should be derived. For example, in Keats's

(1) "And silent was the flock in woolly fold" (The Eve of St. Agnes, p. 4)

Norrick (1981) reasons that "not the fold is literally woolly, but rather the flock or its members". Norrick (1981) thus proposes to derive a construction like (1) above from normally interpretable underlying structures by means of an over-extension of an otherwise regular syntactic process which preposes an adjective from within a relative clause or prepositional phrase modifying a noun to attributive position before it (p. 221). Consequently, (1) above is derived from the phrase

(2) creature which has a woolly hide,

whereby the "syntactic process places woolly before creature and deletes the remainder of the clause" (Norrick 221); woolly fold can then be derived in parallel fashion from (3):

(3) fold which contains woolly creatures.

However, the problem with Norrick's proposal is that it is based on a notion (derived from generative semantics) that disregards the totality of the context in which a linguistic element occurs. Moreover, given the complex nature of discollocations, as opposed to other kinds of grammatical metaphors discussed by Halliday (1994), 'rewording' of the type suggested by Norrick becomes a reductionist tendency in that the discollocations lose their erstwhile communicative force. In this connection, Black (1981) argues that no literal paraphrase would have "the same power to inform and enlighten as the original" nor "give the insight that the metaphor did" (pp. 78-79, original emphasis); a literal comparison supposedly equivalent to a good metaphor would lack "the ambience and suggestiveness and the imposed 'view' of the primary subject upon which a metaphor's power to illuminate depends" (Black, 1982, p. 32).

I would, therefore, suggest that the 'unscrambling' of the examples has to be negotiated in the context in which they occur. It is in this sense that my extension of the concept of ideational metaphor to include discollocation should be construed as a complex transfer of experiential meaning from one lexical item to another, which has to be negotiated within the context of communication. Consequently, the 'Epithets' involved in discollocation are involved in a complex metaphoric transfer of meaning involving the 'Thing', however, with the totality of the context playing a major decisive role.

An exegesis of some of the discollocations listed earlier will suffice to buttress my claim that the unscrambling or decoding has to be negotiated in context and that no amount of rewording or paraphrasing will capture the meaning packed into these modes of expression. For example, part of the meaning of 'hard mists' involves grasping the complex role 'rain' is playing in that context. In fact, later in *The Interpreters* (p. 155), one of the protagonists, Sekoni, was to die in a road accident due to the slippery road after rainfall. Symbolically, then, rain becomes 'hard mists', an element insensitive to human tragedy in specific contexts. 'Restful shadows' describe the atmosphere of serenity that pervades a particular locale, while 'luscious mudbath', 'metal bestiary', and 'iron mastodons' capture the conflict between forces of modernity represented by the 'Epithets' of technology (luscious, metal, iron) and the unvarnished, pristine innocence

of the villagers represented by the 'Thing' (mudbath, bestiary, mastodons). Note, however, that at a higher level of abstraction, 'metal bestiary' and 'iron mastodons' refer to such things as cranes and caterpillars. By yoking together a web of complex images, Soyinka is able

to convey such a complex experience of life that no reductionist strategy of rewording and paraphrase could ever hope to capture. Or how do we interpret the discollocation in 'eloquence of eyes' where lexical items from two different sensory areas are brought into communion? -- in this case 'eloquence' [+sound] and 'eyes' [+visual]. In the same way, 'hungry prowls' and 'armed serpents' signify a whole complex atmosphere of social decay and use of naked power; 'astonished wings' describes the action of a flock of egrets which one of the protagonists had disturbed, while 'seated ring' is a recapitulation of "Seated in a ring were the inmates of the lunatic yard" (SOA, p. 311; my emphasis).

B. *Discollocations as Metaphors of Mood*

In addition to functioning as vehicles of the writer's complex experiences, discollocations are interpersonal metaphors associated with mood in that they aid in expressing the writer's feelings, attitudes, and opinions towards the states of affairs described by the discollocations.

In certain contexts, the writer's attitudes are carried by one of the lexical items involved in the discollocation: 'spurious grandeur'; 'dark intuitions'; 'homicidal hate'; etc. However, in most cases, the context suggests the mood. For instance, with reference to the list of examples furnished earlier, Soyinka's attitudes towards and the assessment of what is being communicated range from awe ('hard shadows'), to horror ('silenced cries', 'staring sockets'), indignation ('empty visions', 'puzzled dead'), hopelessness ('living death', 'luscious mudbath', 'metal bestiary'), contentment ('restful shadows'), powerlessness ('symbolic dust'), and apprehension ('hard mists', 'hungry prowls', 'armed serpents', 'febrile dark', 'feral tingle', 'astonished wings').

C. *Discollocation and the Textual Metafunction*

The textual function of discollocations at the nominal group structure involves (a) thematization and (b) information condensation. As I have indicated several times already, discollocation at the nominal group structure is a result of a semantic tension or incongruity between the 'Epithet' and 'Thing'. Consequently, this incongruity directs our attention to these forms and it as if the writer is asking us to scrutinize these modes of expression. Discollocations thus bring salient messages to the 'fore'. However, I am using "thematization" in the sense of "foregrounding" as posited by Mukarovsky. The basic tenets of foregrounding are well-known and, according to Leech (1970):

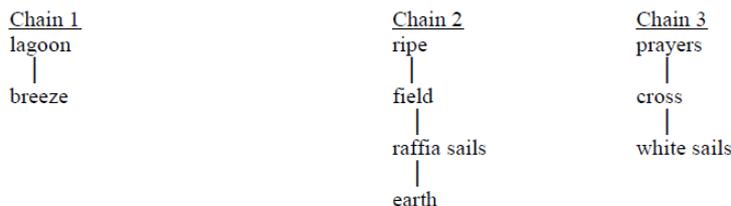
Foregrounding, or motivated deviation from linguistic or other socially accepted norms, has been claimed to be a basic principle of aesthetic communication. ... [W]hether or not the concept is applicable to any great extent to other art forms, it is certainly valuable, if not essential, for the study of poetic language. The norms of the language are in this dimension of analysis regarded as a "background" against which features which are prominent because of their abnormality are placed in focus. In making choices which are not permissible in terms of the accepted code, the poet extends, or transcends the normal communicative resources of his [sic] tongue. (pp. 121-122, my emphasis)

Discollocations also fulfill an "elliptical" role in the larger context of the discourse. In this direction, they help the author compress his ideas and condense the ideational content of what is being communicated. In some cases, this information condensation is explicit as in the example 'seated ring' which is indeed a reduction of "Seated in a ring were the inmates of the lunatic yard" (SOA, p. 311). However, in most cases, what is lost as a result of the compression offered by discollocations have to be deduced, inferred, or presupposed from the context of communication. In these instances, the reader is invited to look back to what has been mentioned earlier in the discourse and in some cases what is yet to come. For example, the discollocations 'luscious mudbath', 'metal bestiary', and 'iron mastodons' presuppose a knowledge of the conflict between forces of modernity and those who want to see the pristine innocence of the villages untarnished. It is this textual metafunction of discollocations that locates them in the category of "compounding process".

Other discollocations are attested at the rank of the clause in Soyinka's novels. The following are three examples:

(1) In spite of the small group which stood alienated by the side of the lagoon, oblivious of their presence, a ripe field of corn swept past again and again, pausing for prayers at the door. Then the breeze would swell once more, white sails and light raffia sails on mushed earth, and a hundred hands lifted Noah and the cross till they felt themselves routed and grounded superfluous (Int., p. 181).

The discollocation in this passage is as a result of disjunction in the semantic field. The notions of "co-extension" and "similarity chains", as formulated by Hasan (1984, pp. 181-219), are useful here. At least, at the rank of the clause, we expect the lexical items to show strong collocational associations in which case the lexical items, especially the content words, form similarity chains and thus contribute to the cohesive harmony of the message. We can thus construct the similarity chains of the passage above, as follows:



Even if there is a correspondence between chains 1 and 3, given the fact that Soyinka is describing an event of prayer by the lagoon, chain 2 does not easily fit into this experience domain, thereby resulting in a discollocation. The reader is also asked to work out the meaning of ‘white sails’ which is a metonymy for the kind of costume worn by the supplicants.

(2) Metal on concrete jars my drink lobes (Int., p. 7, my emphasis).

Similar to the experience domain in ‘eloquence of eyes’, there is a discollocation among jars, drink, and lobes. While the mental process represented by jars collocates significantly with lobes (synecdoche for ear), drink does not seem to fit into the whole picture. However, a close scrutiny reveals that by bringing together drink [+alimentary] and lobe [+auditory], the author is able to communicate, forcefully, the peculiar sensibility of one of the characters, Sagoe.

(3) The silence erupted in his ears. ... (SOA, p. 174, my emphasis).

This is contrary to our expectation because, normally, ‘silence’ does not ‘erupt’. However, the context in which the discollocation occurs suggests that the construction serves to express Ofeyi’s (the principal protagonist in the novel’s) disgust and apprehension of the destruction of the serenity of his village by forces of modernity.

The three examples above are some of the several discollocations which occur at the clausal rank in Soyinka’s novels.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

This study has employed SFG to probe the stylistic functions of discollocation in Soyinka’s novels, paying close attention to discollocations as ideational metaphors, metaphors of mood, and the textual metafunction implied in the use of discollocations. My analysis has demonstrated how it is possible to apply SFG to the analysis of lexis, particularly discollocation. To the best of my knowledge, my analysis is one of the very few attempts to study discollocation within the SFG framework and thus provides a seminal analysis on how the systemic-functional notions of ‘metafunction’ and ‘grammatical metaphor’ can be extended to lexical analysis.

As indicated in the study, several critics of African English literature are of the view that, compared to the style of a writer like Chinua Achebe, Soyinka’s diction is often obscure and impenetrable. My analysis of discollocation in Soyinka’s novels seems to justify these critics’ claims although this is not to say that Achebe has consistently remained fairly simple and lucid in his lexical choices.

However, Soyinka’s lexis is more complex and obscure than Achebe. His novels contain more difficult words (lexical markedness) and he employs more compounds, conversions, and discollocations. We have to realize that, although from the writer’s perspective, in keeping with the principle of economy of expression, devices such as discollocation not only help the writer in thematization but also aid in compressing ideas, from the reader’s perspective, they ultimately slow down the pace of reading comprehension since, in the final analysis, readers are left on their own to work out the implicit meanings or supply the missing links. In other words, there is a trade-off implied in the use of a device like discollocation: what the writer gains by way of economy of expression the reader loses in terms of easy comprehension. Consequently, studies are needed on the psycholinguistic implications of discollocations in Soyinka’s novels, especially an objective measurement of reading difficulty associated with the processing of such linguistic devices in his novels.

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Edmund Bamiro obtained the degrees of B.A. in English (First Class Honours, 1982) from the University of Maiduguri, Nigeria; M.A. in English Language (1986) from the University of Lagos, Nigeria; Ph.D. in Linguistics (1990) from the International Christian University, Tokyo, Japan; and Ph.D. in English (1997) from the University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Canada.

He has taught in various universities such as the University of Maiduguri, Nigeria; University of Port Harcourt, Nigeria; Adekunle Ajasin University, Nigeria; The College of the Bahamas; University of Saskatchewan, Canada; and University of Windsor, Ontario, Canada. His research interests are English Linguistics, Stylists, and World Englishes, with particular reference African and Caribbean Englishes.

Prof. Bamiro is a member of professional societies, such as the International Association for World Englishes, the Canadian Association of University and College Teachers of English and the American society of Geolinguistics.

Restructuring a New Approach of Pun Translation Strategy*

Chengzhi Zhang (Corresponding Author)

School of Foreign Languages, Hebei University, Baoding, Hebei, China

Goh Sang Seong

School of Humanities, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Suzana Hj. Muhammad

School of Humanities, Universiti Sains Malaysia, Penang, Malaysia

Abstract—The objective of the paper is to examine Delabastita's approach of pun translation strategies in English-Chinese translation. 121 puns in Shakespeare Sonnets and their nine Chinese translations are taken as the research corpus. Nida's CAM was taken to analyze the puns' meanings. The research identified a new strategy some major defects in his approach. And a new approach of pun translation strategy is proposed.

Index Terms—Shakespeare's Sonnets, pun, translation strategy

Many scholars attest that puns are difficult to translate. Newmark (2001, p. 12) indicates "Puns made by punning poets are most difficult to translate, since they are limited by meter. Often the puns simply have to be sacrificed". Reiss (2000, p. 169) admits, "In translation puns and other kinds of play with language will have to be ignored to a great extent so as to keep the content invariant." Han Dihou (1969, p. 37) even claims that "The problem of pun cannot be resolved by any translation theory." Nevertheless, Delabastita (1993) proposes an approach of pun translation strategies, which brings a theoretical breakthrough into the translation of puns.

I. DELABASTITA'S APPROACH OF PUN TRANSLATION STRATEGIES

Delabastita (1993, pp. 191-218) proposes 9 strategies for the translation of puns:

- (1) pun to pun; in which the ST pun was transferred into a TT pun, which may or may not share the same properties of the ST pun.
- (2) pun to non-pun, in which the original pun was transferred into a TT word or phrase, which may preserve one or more senses of the original pun. In this category, there are three possibilities: non-selective non-pun, selective non-pun, and diffuse paraphrase
 - (i) *Nonselective non-pun*. Both of the original meanings are rendered -hence the term non-selective - but in a non-punning conjunction.
 - (ii) *selective non-pun*. One of the two linguistic meanings of the S.T. pun has been selected and translated more or less equivalently, while the other has been selected - hence the term selective.
 - (iii) *Diffuse paraphrase*. The original meanings have been translated 'beyond recognition due to the rather free treatment of the entire punning passage.
- (3) pun to punoid, in which the translator has perceived the original pun, and tried to recreate its effect by using some other wordplay-related rhetorical devices, such as repetition, assonance, irony allusion, and etc.
- (4) zero translation, in which the original pun is simply omitted
- (5) Direct copy: in which the translator reproduces the ST pun in its original form, i.e. without actually "translating" it.
- (6) Transference, like (5) direct copy. The difference is that it imposes source language signified on a target language text, while the method of direct copy brings the original signifiers into the T.T. without any necessary concern about the semantic consequences of it.
- (7) Addition: non-pun to pun. The T.T. contains wordplay which the ST does not have. Its purpose is to compensate the loss of those puns that the translator is unable to render appropriately in their original position.
- (8) Addition (new textual material): zero to pun. The translator added in T.T. a new pun which is impossible to identify a counterpart in the S.T.

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(9) editorial technique. It includes a whole range of phenomena: articles by the translator published in a periodical or in a volume; introduction, epilogue and etc. within the volume; footnotes and endnotes; parentheses within the primary text, but distinguished from it by means of square brackets, italics, etc.

His proposal is fairly influential in pun translation. Chang Nam Fung (2003, p. 33) asserts that Delabastita's theory can also be applied in English-Chinese translation. However, Delabastita's corpus is Hamlet's Dutch, French and German translations, instead of English-Chinese translation. And his approach has never been examined in English-Chinese translation. Therefore, this paper aims to discuss the application of Delabastita's approach in the context of English-Chinese translation.

II. METHODOLOGY AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The analysis examines the 121 puns in Shakespeare Sonnets and its nine Chinese translations, namely, Tu An's version (1981), Yu Erchang's version (2002), Liang Shiqiu's version (2002), Yang Xiling's version (1980), Liang Zongdai's version (1983), Cao Minglun's version (1995), Gu Zhengkun's version (1998), Ruan Shen's version (2001), Jin Fashen's version (2004). Shakespeare Sonnets is chosen as the research corpus because Shakespeare is identified to be a master of puns himself. As Drabble (2000, p. 825) states, "(Shakespeare was) greatly given to punning, both in comic and in serious contexts". Li Xinhua (2000, p. 198) points out, "Shakespeare was a great master of creating puns. According to incomplete statistics, Shakespeare had created more than 3,000 puns in his works." In addition, Shakespeare Sonnets is a great piece in English literature and even world literature. What's more, there are at least 9 complete Chinese versions, which provide rich research data for the study.

The original meanings of puns are mainly identified by the editions of Ingram & Redpath (1978), Stephen Booth (1977) and Helen Vendler (1997). According to Larudee's (1973) definition, pun is a play on words, in which two or more meanings are expressed in one form. And one unique feature of pun is that it incorporates two or more disparate yet acceptable messages in one form, and the form plays a very important role. Therefore, the essential nature of a pun is two or more meanings in one form. The form refers to the sound. And the meanings and form are two major constituents of a pun. It will be used to help identify the pun in SS, analyze the translation of puns in terms of form (sound), meaning and form plus meaning. Componential Analysis of Meaning (CAM) of Nida (1973) will be utilized to analyze the translatability meaning, whereas the Chinese Pinyin and IPA will be applied to analyze the translation of form (sound). Delabastita's (1993) strategies will be applied in identifying the translation strategies of puns in Shakespeare's Sonnets.

III. TRANSLATION STRATEGIES

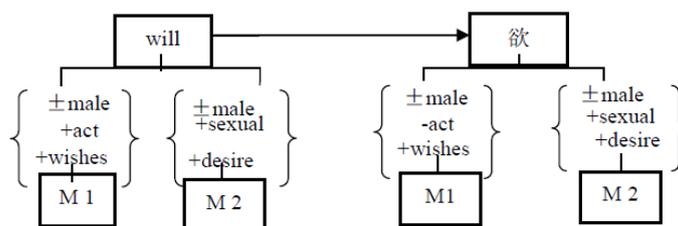
The research finds that the following strategies of Delabastita's approach have been identified among the 121 puns' nine Chinese translations.

A. Pun-pun Strategy

In the first line of Sonnet 135,

Whoever hath her wish, thou hast thy 'Will' (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 313)

Will is a semantic pun, which conveys two meanings: (M1) wishes; (M2) lust (ibid, p.312). One renders the pun as 欲(yu, wishes) (Cao Minglun, 1995, p. 204). Figure 1 shows the meaning features of both the original pun and the translation.



糊弄，乐在骗里纵情

Figure 1 CAM of will and 欲

Figure 1 shows that 欲(yu, wishes) conveys two meanings, the first meaning preserves the original M1, because its meaning components are completely the same to those of M1: [±male], [+act], [+wishes]. The second meaning preserves the original M2, because its meaning components are completely the same to those of M2: [±male], [+sexual], and [+desire]. As it conveys two meanings in one form, thus it is also a pun. And both of the original meanings have been successfully preserved by the pun. Thus, it is a pun-pun strategy.

B. Pun to Non-pun Strategy

Delabastita divides the strategy into three subtypes: (i) *nonselective non-pun*, (ii) *selective non-pun strategy*, and (iii) *diffuse paraphrase*. All of the three subtypes are identified in the study.

(i) *Nonselective Non-pun*

In the 5th line of Sonnet 43,

Then thou, whose shadow shadows doth make bright (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 101).

Shadow is a semantic pun, which conveys 2 meanings: (M1) image; (M2) darkness (ibid, p.100). One renders the pun as 黑影(heiying, black shadow) (Tu An, 1981, p. 43). Figure 2 shows the meaning features of both the original pun and the translation.

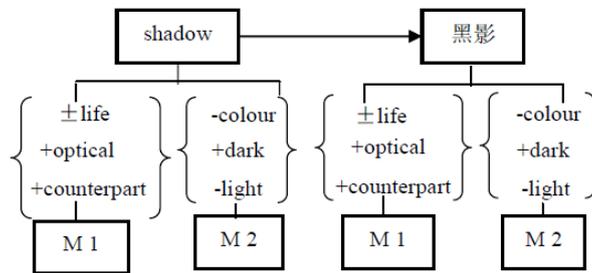


Figure 2 CAM of shadow and 黑影

Figure 2 shows that 黑影(heiying, black shadow) conveys two meaning, the first meaning preserves the original M1, because its meaning components are the same to those of M1: [\pm life], [+optical], and [+counterpart]; The second meaning preserves the original M2, because its meaning components are the same to those of M2: [-colour], [+dark], and [-light]. However, it is not a pun itself. The two independent characters happen to convey each of the original meaning. And both of the original meanings are successfully preserved in this non-pun phrase. Thus, it is a nonselective non-pun strategy.

(ii) *Selective Non-pun Strategy*

In the 14th line of Sonnet 138,

And in our faults by lies we flatter'd be (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 319)

Lie is a semantic pun, which conveys two meanings: (M1) To tell a lie; (M2) To sleep with another man (Booth, 1977, pp. 477-478). One renders the pun as 撒谎(sahuang, tell a lie) (Jin Fashen, 2004, p. 138). Figure 3 shows the meaning features of both the original pun and the translation.

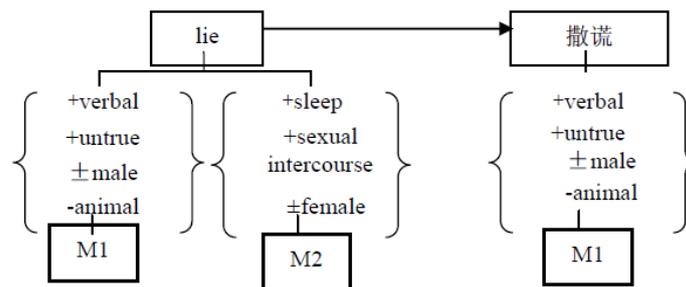


Figure 3 CAM of lie and 撒谎

Figure 3 shows that 撒谎(sahuang, tell a lie) preserved only the first meaning, since its meaning components are the same to those of the original M1, while the second meaning is lost in translation. And it is not a pun itself. Therefore, it is selective non-pun strategy.

In the 2nd line of Sonnet 134,

And I myself am mortgaged to thy will, (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 311) .

Will is a semantic pun, which has two meanings: (M1) wishes; (M2) lust. One rendered the pun as 意愿(yiyuan, wishes) (Tu An, 1981, p. 134). Figure 4 shows the meaning features of both the original pun and the translation.

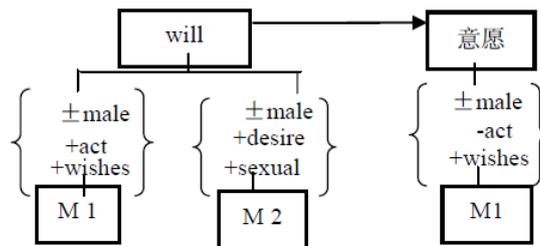


Figure 4 CAM of will and 意愿

Figure 4 shows that 意愿 (yiyuan, wishes) preserved only the first meaning, since its meaning components are the same to those of the original M1, while the second meaning is lost in translation. It is not a pun itself. Therefore, it is selective non-pun strategy.

(iii) Diffuse Paraphrase

For example, in the 14th line of Sonnet 138,

And in our faults by lies we flatter'd be (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 319).

Lie is a semantic pun, which conveys two meanings: (M1) To tell a lie; (M2) To sleep with another man (ibid, p318).

One renders the pun as 糊弄, 乐在骗里纵情 (hunong, lezai pianli zongqing, cheat each other, pleased to enjoy ourselves in lies) (Gu Zhengkun, 1998, p. 277). Figure 5 shows the meaning features of both the original pun and the translation.

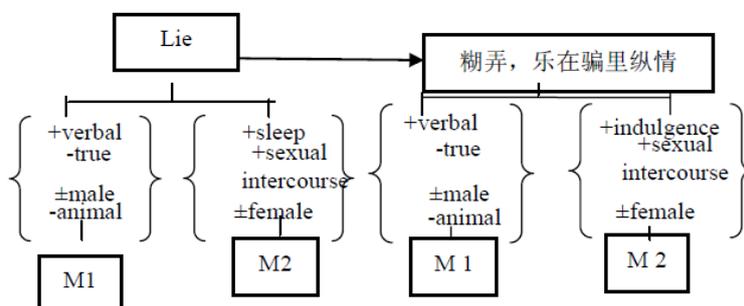


Figure 5 CAM of lie and 糊弄, 乐在骗里纵情

Figure 5 shows that it conveys two meanings. The first meaning is conveyed through “糊弄” and “骗”, meaning to deceive, which preserved the original M1 (to tell a lie), since their meaning components are the same to those of M1. The second meaning is conveyed by “乐在...纵情”, whose meaning components is the same to those of the original M2. The translation preserves the original two meanings. Both “糊弄” and “骗” are literal translations of the first meaning, while “乐在骗里纵情” is virtually a paraphrase of the second meaning. As it is a rather free treatment of the original pun, its translation strategy is diffuse paraphrase.

C. Zero Translation

In the 4th line of Sonnet 30,

And with old woes new wail my dear time's waste: (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 75).

Dear is a semantic pun, which conveys two meanings: (M1)costly; (M2) held in high esteem(ibid , 1978, p. 360).

One renders the line as:

再度因时间摧毁了好宝贝而哀伤 : (Tu An, 1981, p. 30)

Again because time destroy good treasure thus wail

Clearly, none of the original meanings exist in the translation. No counterpart to the original pun could be identified in the translation. Therefore, it is a zero translation.

In the 10th line of Sonnet 151,

As his triumphant prize. Proud of this pride (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 349).

Proud is a semantic pun, which has four meanings: (M1)vainglorious; (M2) splendid, gorgeous; (M3)lustful; (M4) swollen (Booth, 1977, p. 528). One renders the line as:

你是他凯旋的奖品, 夙愿得偿 (Jin Fashen, 2004, p. 151).

you are his victory prize, dream realized

No counterpart to the original pun could be identified in the translation. Therefore, it is a zero translation, which preserves neither the meaning nor the form of the original pun.

D. Editorial Techniques

Editorial techniques in fact help translators to establish a second level of communication, which allows them to introduce the background knowledge or to reflect and comment on the translation. It includes “a whole range of phenomena: articles by the translator published in a periodical or in a volume; introduction, epilogue and etc. within the volume; footnotes and endnotes; parentheses within the primary text, but distinguished from it by means of square brackets, italics, etc” (Delabastita, 1993, p. 218). In this study, the following techniques are identified: quotation marks, footnotes, endnotes, and bold font as well.

1. Quotation Marks

For example, in the 8th line of Sonnet 148,

Love’s eye is not so true as all men’s ‘No’ (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 349).

The homonymic pun, eye, conveys two meanings: (M1) eye; (M2) yes (Booth, 1977, p. 521). One translates this line into this,

爱“眼力”并没有众人那么真：不， (Jin Fashen, 2004, p. 148)

Love “eye power” not others so true: no

He renders “eye” as 眼力 (yanli, meaning power of eyes or eyesight), which preserves only the first meaning, however, the point here is the translator added a pair of quotation marks to his translation, which is to stress the word and attract readers’ attention. Quotation marks are a subtype of editorial techniques, which belongs to the ninth strategy.

2. Footnote

For example, in the 12th line of Sonnet 151,

Yet who knows not conscience is born of love? (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 349).

The pun lies in conscience, which conveys two meanings: (M1) ability to recognize right and wrong; (M2) knowledge of sex (ibid, p349). One renders the line as:

可谁不知晓良知是由爱心唤醒？ (Cao Minglun, 1995, p. 238).

But who not know conscience is by love waken?

He renders “conscience” as “良知”, which successfully preserves the original meanings through a semantic pun. Furthermore, he also makes a foot note to his translation, “Conscience is a pun. On one hand, it expressed the then popular concept that love exalts the lover. On the other hand, man of letters in that age often use it as the euphemism of con in French, which implies sexual intercourse, therefore, conscience means knowledge of con”(ibid, p241). Footnotes are editorial techniques in puns’ translation, which belongs to the ninth strategy of Delabastita’s approach.

3. Endnote

For example in the 1st line of Sonnet 135,

Whoever hath her wish, thou hast thy ‘Will’ (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 313)

The pun word “will” conveys two meanings: (M1) wishes; (M2) lust (Booth, 1977, p. 466). One rendered the line as:

不管别人如何，你是欲望满足了 (Liang Shiqiu, 2002, p. 183).

No matter others how, your desire satisfied

He renders “will” as 欲望 (yuwang, sexual desire), which preserves the second meanings only, however, Liang makes an endnote, “Will is a pun here, it may refer to the poet himself, or his friend, or the lady’s husband. Also it means desire” (Liang Shiqiu, 2002, p. 225). Endnotes help readers to understand the pun. *Endnotes, like footnotes, are editorial techniques in puns’ translation, which belongs to the ninth strategy of Delabastita’s approach.*

4. Bold Font

In the 14th line of Sonnet 136,

And then thou lovest me, for my name is ‘Will’ (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 315).

Shakespeare puns on “will”, which conveys four meanings: (M1) wishes; (M2) lust; (M3) sex organ; (M4) William (Booth, 1977, p. 466). Yang’s translation is:

那你就爱我，因为我名叫威廉：意愿。 (Yang Xiling, 1980, p. 136)

You will love me, because my name is **William: Will**

He rendered “will” as 威廉：意愿 (weilian: yiyuan, William and wishes). Furthermore, the translation, 威廉：意愿 (weilian: yiyuan, William and wishes) was printed in bold fonts, which is to stress the word and draw readers’ attention. Here the translator virtually used an editorial technique, bold fonts, to help with his translation. It is a subtype of the ninth strategy.

E. Summary

Table 1 shows the translation strategies used by all the nine translators.

TABLE 1
TRANSLATION STRATEGIES BY THE NINE TRANSLATORS

Strategies translator	(1)	(2)			(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	#	Transliteration
		i	ii	iii									
Tu An	5	1	98	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	3	0	6
Yu Erchang	3	4	73	0	0	20	0	0	0	0	15	0	14
Liang Shiqiu	1	0	84	0	0	20	0	0	0	0	4	0	6
Yang Xiling	3	0	97	1	0	9	0	0	0	0	2	1	2
Liang Zongdai	2	0	95	0	0	12	0	0	0	0	4	0	0
Cao Minglun	17	1	84	0	0	12	0	0	0	0	5	0	0
Gu Zhengkun	21	0	71	3	0	15	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Ruan Shen	6	1	86	0	0	15	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
Jin Fashen	2	2	89	0	0	16	0	0	0	0	13	0	0
total	60	9	777	4	0	127	0	0	0	0	46	2	29

Table 1 shows: (1) The third, the fifth, the sixth, the seventh and the eighth strategies are not identified among the nine translations of the 121 puns. (2) There are two translations which cannot fit into any category of Delabastita's approach, see Column #. (3) Delabastita's approach misses one strategy: transliteration, which has been used by five translators for 29 times.

1. Unexplainable Examples

In case where a pun conveys three or more meanings, a translator preserves two or more of the original meanings through a non-pun phrase. It might be classified as a subtype of pun-to-non-pun strategy, however, it is different to its three subtypes. The three subcategories are based on the hypothesis that the original pun has two meanings only. In case where a pun has three or more meanings, his approach would not be available. For example, in the 10th line of Sonnet 151,

As his triumphant prize. Proud of this pride, (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 349)

Proud is a semantic pun, which has four meanings: (M1) vainglorious; (M2) splendid, gorgeous; (M3) lustful; (M4) swollen (Booth, 1977, p. 528). One rendered the pun as 欲念膨胀(yunian pengzhang, lust expanded) (Ruan Shen, 2001, p. 303). Figure 6 shows the meaning features of both the original pun and its translation.

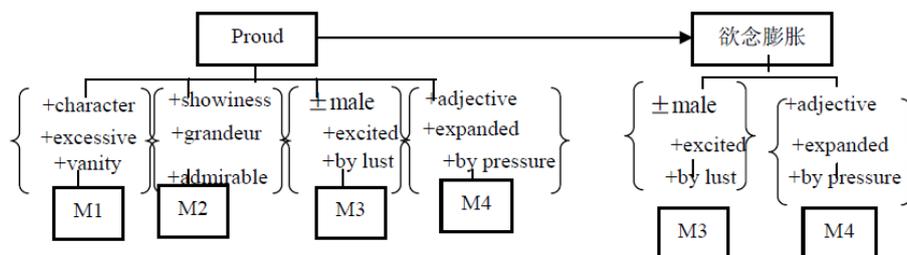


Figure 6 CAM of proud and 欲念膨胀

Figure 6 shows 欲念膨胀(yunian pengzhang, lust expanded) conveys two meanings, one is associated with sexual lust, which is equivalent to M3, because they both contains the kernel component of [+by lust]; the other means to expand, which is equivalent to M4, because both contains the kernel meaning component of [+expanded]. Regrettably, it fails to preserve the other two meanings. It renders the original pun into a non-pun phrase, thus it seems best to classify it as a pun-to-nonpun strategy. However, none of the three subcategories of pun-to-nonpun strategy could match it, since the original pun conveys 4 meanings. Delabastita's approach can not explain this translation.

2. Missed Strategy: Transliteration

In the 1st line of Sonnet 135,

Whoever hath her wish, thou hast thy 'Will' (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 313).

Will is a semantic pun, which has two meanings: (M1) wishes; (M2) lust (Booth, 1977, p. 466). Its form, International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), is [wil]. A translator renders the pun as 玩儿(wan'er, play) (Yu Erchang, 2002, p. 271), which is very close in pronunciation to the original pun's form. It is a transliteration to the original pun which preserves the form but loses the meaning of the original pun.

For another example, in the 5th line of Sonnet 136,

'Will' will fulfil the treasure of thy love, (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 315).

Will is a mixed pun, which has four meanings: (M1) wishes; (M2) lust; (M3) sex organ; (M4) William (Booth, 1977, p. 466). Its form, International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), is [wil]. One renders the pun as 威尔(Wei'er, meaningless) (Tu An, 1981, p. 136), which is very close to the original pronunciation. Virtually it is a transliteration to the original pun. Though the original meanings are lost, the form is preserved successfully. Thus, it is a transliteration strategy. Similarly, another translator renders it as 威廉 (weilian, William) (Liang Shiqiu, 2002, p. 185), which is also a

transliteration of the pun. However, Delabastita's approach does not mention transliteration as a translation strategy of puns at all.

Transliteration is similar to (5) Direct copy in nature. By using the strategy of direct copy, the translator reproduces the ST pun in its original form, i.e. without actually translating it at all. Both are applied to preserve primarily the form of the original pun. Due to the great linguistic difference between English and Chinese, direct copy is rarely acceptable in English-Chinese translation of puns.

IV. WEAKNESSES IN DELABASTITA'S APPROACH

In the research, the following weaknesses are found in Delabastita's approach.

(i) Non-selective *non-pun* and (iii) diffuse paraphrase shall be told apart from (ii) selective non-pun, because the former preserves two or more meanings while the latter preserves one meaning only. Though Delabastita categorizes them all into the second strategy, they are essentially different. As a pun conveys two or more meanings, both (i) and (iii) suggest the translator must have identified the puns, and have taken some measures to preserve two or more of the original meanings, whereas (ii) might imply that the translator might have failed to recognize the puns and thus preserves one meaning only, therefore, they are totally different from (iii) in nature. What's more, as Table 2 shows, among the 790 cases where the second strategy is used, (ii) is used for 777 times, while (i) and (iii) are used altogether 13 times only. Both (i) and (iii) are used much less than (ii).

TABLE 2
THE NUMBER THAT EACH OF THE SECOND STRATEGIES IS USED

Strategies	i	ii	iii
items			
total	9	777	4

Table 2 implies that the vast majority of puns in Shakespeare Sonnets might have been ignored by translators, and that only in very few cases, the translators have identified the puns and made efforts to preserve the meanings. This deserves more attention considering the fact that Shakespeare is a great punster, and that he uses a lot of puns in his sonnets. Therefore, it is necessary to tell (i) and (iii) from (ii), first for the difference in nature, secondly for the purpose of drawing translators' attention.

(i) Non-selective *non-pun* and (ii) selective non-pun are not well termed and needs modification. The following are how Delabastita (1993, pp. 202-204) defines the two terms:

(i) Non-selective *non-pun*. Both s1 (ST) and s2 (ST) are rendered -hence the term non-selective - but in a non-punning conjunction.

(ii) Selective non-pun. One of the two linguistic meanings of the ST pun has been selected and translated more or less equivalently, while the other has been selected - hence the term selective.

S1 and S2 refer to two different meanings. Delabastita here suggests that puns convey two meanings only. Thus, (i) Non-selective *non-pun* means both S1 and S2 are preserved in translation, while (ii) Selective non-pun means one of the original meanings is selected to be preserved. However, many puns have three or more meanings. Take Shakespeare Sonnets as an example, according to the researcher's observation, there are 18 puns with three meanings and 12 puns with four meanings, which altogether constitute 24.7% of the total 121 puns. Therefore, his definition is inaccurate. It is also confusing in classifying the translation strategies. For example, in the 10th line of Sonnet 151/10,

As his triumphant prize. Proud of this pride, (Ingram & Redpath, 1978, p. 349)

The pun word, proud, has four meanings: (M1) vainglorious; (M2) splendid, gorgeous; (M3) lustful; (M4) swollen, tumescent(Booth, 1977, p. 528). One renders the line as:

视你为战利品, 欲念膨胀 (Ruan Shen, 2001, p. 303)

Regard you as trophy, lust swollen

The original pun is rendered as 欲念膨胀 (yunian pengzhang, lust is swollen). The first two characters preserve the third meaning, while the other two characters conveys the fourth meaning. It is not a pun, but it preserves two of the four original meanings. The problem emerges. Obviously, it is unpersuasive to put it under (i), since the pun conveys 4 meanings and the translator does select two meanings to preserve, nor under (ii), since it preserves two meanings instead of one. Virtually, in cases where a pun conveys three or more meanings, it is difficult to identify the translation strategies due to the poor definition.

Delabastita terms the second strategy as pun>non-pun, which is also a poor term, especially considering he terms the first strategy as "pun>pun". By such classification, there would be two categories of pun translation strategies only, either pun>pun or pun>non-pun, as all other strategies, (except (9), which is not a translation strategy in nature, but a compensation instead), namely, (3), (4), (5), (6), (7) and (8), shall be regarded as subtypes of the latter.

Delabastita's eighth strategy, addition, is virtually not a strategy of translating puns. He defines it as "zero to pun", in which the translator adds in T.T. a new pun "which is impossible to identify a counterpart in the S.T." (Delabastita, 1993, p. 217) that is, the translator translates the original, which is not a pun at all, with a pun. The precondition of any

pun translation strategy is that the ST must be a pun. Without this, pun translation strategy could not possibly be applied. Judged by this, the eighth strategy shall not be considered as a pun translation strategy at all.

Delabastita's approach is based on Hamlet's Dutch, French and German translations, instead of English-Chinese translation, thus bears some Eurocentric bias, that is why the other four strategies are not applied in the nine versions, and that a new strategy is missed in his approach. Thus a new approach is needed. For the reasons above and on the basis of his approach and this research, a new approach of pun's translating strategies is proposed, which will diminish the weak points in Delabastita's strategies. Its basic principle is that the translation strategies of puns shall be divided into two categories: translating strategies and supporting strategies.

V. A NEW APPROACH OF PUN TRANSLATION STRATEGIES FROM ENGLISH INTO CHINESE

Pun translation strategies are composed of two categories: translating strategies and supporting strategies.

A. Translating Strategies

Translating strategies aims to preserve the form, meaning, or both of the original pun, which consist of five subcategories, pun-to-pun strategy, two-meaning strategy, one-meaning strategy, zero-meaning strategy, and transliteration.

Pun to pun, in which the SL pun is translated into a TL pun, which may or may not preserve all the meanings of the SL pun. It is basically the same to Delabastita's first strategy. In this study, among the 121 pun's nine translations, the strategy is used for 59 times altogether by nine translators. The strategy may preserve all of the original meanings. However, it may also lose some meanings. As long as the translation is a pun, it shall be classified as pun-to-pun strategy. Its advantage is that it helps preserved the original's rhetoric feature.

Two-meaning strategy¹, in which the TT fragment, which is not a pun itself, preserves two or more of the original meanings. It is equivalent to Delabastita's (i) selective non-pun and (iii) diffuse paraphrase of the second strategy. When the translator identifies the original pun and feels difficult to render it into a TL pun, this strategy helps.

One-meaning strategy, in which only one of the original meanings conveyed by the SL pun is preserved and the other meaning or meanings are lost. It is basically the same to Delabastita's (ii) selective non-pun of the second strategy.

Zero-meaning strategy, in which no counterpart to the original pun can be found or the original pun is simply omitted in the translation. It is equivalent to Delabastita's zero translation strategy.

Transliteration, in which the pun is translated by some Chinese characters which has the same or similar pronunciation with the original. Usually, the original meanings are lost in transliteration unless the pun happens to be the name of a person or a place.

Each translating strategy should be used alone, except transliteration, which could be applied along with pun-to-pun strategy, two-meaning strategy, or one-meaning strategy. For example, in the 14th line of Sonnet 136, one rendered "will" as 威廉 : 意愿 (weilian yiyuan, William and wishes) (Yang Xiling, 1980, p. 136) see 3.3.4, in which transliteration is used together with two-meaning strategy.

B. Supporting Strategies

This study identifies supporting strategies as a wide range of editorial techniques including footnotes, endnotes, special fonts, quotation marks, the introduction and epilogue within the volume and etc. They are not at all the translations of the original pun, and preserve nothing of the original pun, the form, the meaning and F+M. Like the ninth strategy of Delabastita's, it establishes a second level of communication between a translator and his readers. Its objectives are to stress the translation, to call readers' attention, to compensate what is lost in translation, and to comment on the translation and etc., through a wide range of editorial techniques, such as footnotes, endnotes, special fonts and etc. Each supporting strategy cannot be used alone, instead, it has to be used along with translating strategies as supporting services. In addition, in each case, a translator could use two or more supporting strategies.

Notes:

1. Theoretically, there might be three- or four-, or more-meaning strategies. In case where a pun has three or four or more meanings, a translator may rendered the pun through non-pun phrase which preserves three, or four, or more meanings. However, it was not identified in the research.

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¹ Theoretically, there might be three- or four-, or more-meaning strategies. In case where a pun has three or four or more meanings, a translator may rendered the pun through non-pun phrase which preserves three, or four, or more meanings. However, it was not identified in the research.

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Chengzhi Zhang, born on May 2, 1979, in Hubei, China. He earned his B. A. of English Language and Literature, M.A. in translation Studies from Hebei University, China. He earned his PHD in Translation studies from Universiti Sains Malaysia in 2014.

Dr. Zhang Chengzhi is currently an associate professor in Hebei University, China. His areas of specialization include literary translation, translation technology, corpus translation, financial translation, translation history and etc.



Goh Sang Seong earns his B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. in Translation Studies from Universiti Sains Malaysia (USM). His Areas of Specialisation includes Translation Studies; Chinese-Malay Translation.

Dr. Goh is now a senior lecturer in Malay Language, Translation and Interpreting Department, School of Humanities, Universiti Sains Malaysia.



Suzana Hj. Muhammad, earned her B.A. of English Education, M.A of English Literature in USA and her Ph.D in Literary Criticism from Indiana Univ. Of Pennsylvania, USA. Her Areas of Specialisation include British and American Literature, Literary Theory & Criticism, Feminism and Women Writers.

Dr. Suzana is currently a senior lecturer in English Language Studies Department, School of Humanities, Universiti Sains Malaysia.

A Survey on ESP Teaching in Changchun University of Science and Technology

Jifeng Cao

Changchun University of Science and Technology, Changchun, China

Abstract—A quantitative research on ESP teaching in Changchun University of Science and Technology was conducted. The survey shows most students are concerned about ESP teachers' English competence and subject knowledge, which are the two most important elements involved in ESP teachers' qualification. The author emphatically discusses how to improve the situation. In the long run, if more subject specialists are sent abroad for further study, they will be more qualified for ESP teaching; in the short run, joint teaching between subject specialists and language teachers could be an effective way to solve the problem. But it also involves some undecided factors.

Index Terms—ESP teaching, joint teaching, effect

I. INTRODUCTION TO ENGLISH FOR SPECIFIC PURPOSES

English is currently the most commonly used language in the world, especially in science and technology. In the published literature, nearly 60% is written in English, out of the remaining 40%, 50% of the articles consist of English abstracts. English literature of science and technology does not necessarily come from English countries. With the development of science and technology, English has broken the national boundaries as the most effective tool for the spread and communication of science and technology in most of the research journals (Belcher & Johns & Paltridge, 2011). In non-English speaking countries, such as Japan and the Netherlands appear a large number of English journals for the sake of research and scientific study. There are also many kinds of English magazines in our country. At present, the rapid development of science and technology bring about the quick updating of knowledge. Without the aid of English as a great tool, we can enter the world of information technology or keep up with the development of science and technology. In such a special era, sharing knowledge is vitally necessary (Dudley-Evans & John, 1998). From this perspective, ESP courses taught in university is a great help for students' career in the future.

Theoretically, a lot of articles refer to the origins of English for Specific Purposes. Mainly, three factors contribute to the emergence of ESP: the demands of a Brave New World, a revolution in linguistics, and focus on the learner (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). English for specific purposes (ESP) is totally different from specialized English. Based on the theory of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners. For example, Hotel English as ESP is aiming to teach staff members working in a hotel so that they can give better services to people who come for business or visiting.

II. ESP TEACHING IN CHANGCHUN UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

ESP is taught in many universities of the world. Changchun University of Science and Technology is a provincial key university, which has been founded since 1958. Changchun University of Science and Technology has been aiming to develop talented students with better structure of multidisciplinary knowledge. Based on its educational philosophy and teaching features, ESP is an indispensable and important subject which can be combined with others to provide students with better structural knowledge.

In Changchun University of Science and Technology, the English course can be roughly described in the following chart.

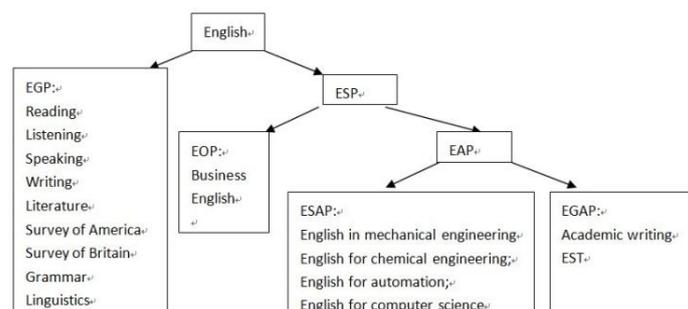


Figure 1. The main ESP courses taught in Changchun University of Science and Technology

As we can see from the chart, there are several ESP courses provided to the students. For English majors, the main ESP course is English for science and technology. and for normal students, the ESP course are specifically designed according to their different majors, such as optical engineering English, English in mechanical engineering, English in electronics and so forth. These courses are designed in accordance with students' studying field and their majors. The purpose is simple. After finishing learning these courses, students could take use of English in their communication and learning process, especially when they step into society. Therefore, these courses not only focus on enlarging student's vocabulary of English but also aim to improve students' listening and speaking (Candlin & Edelhoff, 1982). Hopefully, they can join English lectures, seminars and similar academic or non-academic activities. Apart from the above mentioned points, reading is also an important training activity even though most students are good at reading. The features of the ESP courses in Changchun University of Science and Technology include the following part: First, as to listening, the curriculum focuses on understanding lectures so that students are able to grasp lecturer's opinions, bring forward questions to lecturers and make arguments with the lecturer. Second, as to speaking, it centers on developing students' abilities required for taking part in seminars and presentations. For example, they need to know when they deliver a presentation they need catch the audience's attention by using necessary skills and they also need to communicate themselves clear during the presentation, so that the audience can understand him or her completely. Third, as to reading, the curriculum emphasizes understanding different styles of articles. When reading an article, the students are required to grasp the meaning of difficult sentences and also their structures (Harmer, 1983). And the articles could originate from different sources such as books, journals, magazine and even internet. Fourth, as to writing, the curriculum intends to explain how to write article involving different background knowledge. How to organize the structure of various styles of article is also an important part of the course so that students can produce high quality articles with ease. Fifth, as to the part of vocabulary, the curriculum usually sets a good list of words and expressions for students to learn and acquire. The most frequently used words and expressions are emphasized during the teaching process so that students have clear idea about the key words and their expressions. Sixth, these courses are designed to present systematic approach to developing academic skills through relevant content. Seventh, all courses intend to focus on receptive skills (reading and listening) to activate productive skills (writing and speaking) in subject area. Eighth, all the courses are designed to combine language and academic skills teaching. Ninth, further self-study or homework is a necessary part for the course designing (Robinson, 1980). The entire above mentioned are the universal requirements for the ESP courses for students in different majors.

III. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND METHODOLOGY

According to Cai Jigang and Liao Leichao, because there are not enough well-trained teachers who are both proficient in English and good at subject knowledge, ESP courses have gradually been push into a corner without being seen and valued by many universities. Now, there is a tendency that bilingual courses come to stage in most universities. Considering the demand for ESP courses, great efforts should be paid to improve the quality of ESP teaching and researching. Additionally, more funds need to be put into the field of training to get better ESP teachers in the near future (Cai & Liao, 2010).

Whether Cai Jigang's research is universally practicable or whether it is suitable for the situation in Changchun University of Science and Technology is the author's strong concern which arouses the author's intention to do the research. These ESP courses have been performed for many years in Changchun University of Science and Technology. The basic reason for starting these courses is to provide students with better structural knowledge and better career. So many years have passed by and things for education have changed dramatically. It's reasonable for us to reconsider the purpose for providing these courses to students and the way to present them. That's the most important reason why we make this research.

Additionally, according to our investigation, both the higher vocational college and university present ESP courses in China, but the features are different. The former mostly presents English for occupational purposes such as secretarial English, tourism English, English in nursing, English used in exhibition, etc., aiming to make students to be prepared for the job through the pre-service training. Higher vocational college presents ESP courses for the service of relevant of industry, so the teaching activities developed soon and are very popular with students in higher vocational colleges.

The author adopts questionnaires and interviews as the research method in the survey. Nowadays, questionnaires and interviews are often used in the survey of people opinions for some issues. Questionnaires outweigh many other methods of research. Firstly, questionnaires don't require a big sum of money; secondly, they only need questioners to make some ticks or write a few line of words, so it has less requirements for the questioner; thirdly, because mostly the questionnaires are made of multiple choices, it's easy to convert the information from the questionnaire to another form of data which are easy to process.

However, there is also an apparent shortcoming for questionnaires. Sometimes, people who fill in the questionnaires may be too careless to understand the questions so that the real opinions may not be expressed by the way of filling out a questionnaire.

Therefore, when we design a questionnaire we need to follow some basic principle so as to avoid the shortcomings of this style of survey.

Firstly, the answer of statements in the questionnaire should not lead to a specific one.

- Secondly, spell-check is very important because it shows respect to the participant.
- Thirdly, statements in the questionnaire should be definite and not ambiguous.
- Fourthly, be careful about wording and make statements easy for the respondent to understand.
- Fifthly, do not use negative statements or double negative statements in the questionnaire.

Questionnaire consists of 20 questions. The 20 questions consist of the following issues that the author wants to explore: first, are students satisfied with ESP courses globally? Second, what do students think of the teaching materials for the ESP courses? Third, do students think the present length of time for ESP courses is suitable or it needs to be rearranged? Fourth, what do students think of the ESP teachers' teaching strategy and teaching methods? Fifth, what do students think of ESP teachers English competence and subject knowledge.

The questionnaire uses Likert scale to scale responses in the survey research. The format of a typical five-level Likert item is taken and the respondents are asked to evaluate according to the level of agreement or disagreement is measured. Specifically, if they strongly disagree, they are supposed to choose 1; and 2 for disagree; 3 for neither agree nor disagree; 4 for agree; 5 for strongly agree.

As for the research subjects, they include both English majors and non-English major students from grade 2011 who are taking ESP courses for this semester. For English majors, the main ESP course is English for science and technology; for non-English major students, the ESP courses include engineering English, optical English and other courses. In order to study whether there are differences between the opinions of English major students' and those of non-English major students', English major students are marked as group 1 while non-English majors group 2. The questionnaires are randomly delivered to the group students and totally 200 questionnaires are given out. 188 valid questionnaires are taken back and the return rate is 94%, which is enough for the analysis of the result.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1 shows the one-sample T test result about students' response to the statement "my ESP teacher is generally very good one compared with other subject teachers"

TABLE 1:
MY ESP TEACHER IS GENERALLY VERY GOOD ONE COMPARED WITH OTHER SUBJECT TEACHERS.

One-Sample Statistics						
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean		
q2	188	3.2287	.95672	.06978		

One-Sample Test						
Test Value = 3						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
q2	3.278	187	.001	.22872	.0911	.3664

We presume that student neither agree nor disagree with this statement. But it turns out not to be. The average of the result is greater than 3. Because $p < 0.05$, so we can infer that students believe outstanding professional teachers are insufficient. Since qualified teachers for ESP courses need to be proficient in spoken English but also have a good mastery of professional knowledge. This requirement is simply too high for most teachers and even those who have experience in studying abroad. This should be a severe problem to solve. Therefore, more talented teachers should be selected and sent to prestigious universities in English spoken countries for better training. After the target-based training, there could appear more qualified teachers for the ESP courses.

TABLE 2:
THE ESP TEXTBOOK USED NOW IS VERY SUITABLE FOR THE CLASSROOM TEACHING

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
q5	188	3.2500	1.05782	.07715

One-Sample Test						
Test Value = 3						
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
q5	3.240	187	.001	.25000	.0978	.4022

Table 2 shows the one-sample T test result about students' response to the statement "the ESP textbook used now is very suitable for the classroom teaching". We also presume that student neither agree nor disagree with this statement. But the average of the result is greater than 3 as well. Because $p < 0.05$, so we can infer that students believe the teaching materials are improper for the class. The author believes the lack of a unified teaching material is a big problem for ESP teaching. The ESP teaching materials usually come from the following ways. First, teachers select some more professional and related articles from a certain source such as research journals (Hedge, 2002). After translating all the articles, teachers usually add some scattered notes to the articles in order to provide students with better background information. Because of the teacher's level of understanding, habits and reasons, such teaching materials are not used in wide range. Second, teachers choose published books as the teaching material. The information and knowledge present in the published book have been structural beforehand for a specific group of students, so these materials are not fully suitable for the students in CUST. And ESP teachers tend to take part of the materials out of the published book as teaching materials in ESP classes, which mean the book cannot be efficiently taken good use of (Cunningsworth, 1984). Additionally, since teachers' English level is different, they will have different when they choose the published books. And different choices of teaching material also can make a big difference for the effect of ESP classes. Sometimes ESP teachers will ask such a question as "Do ESP textbooks really exist?" This is central question we need to address. One of the problems that ESP teachers are confronted with is that they need produce a course for students in a very short period of time. Because of the time limit, it's very difficult for ESP teachers to analyze learners' need effectively or develop high-quality material for the course. So nowadays what we call ESP courses mostly don't live up to its name. In order to solve the problem, more resources need to be available for ESP teachers.

TABLE 3:
I THINK I LEARNED NECESSARY SKILLS FOR SUCCESSFUL COMMUNICATION IN A PROFESSIONAL TARGET SETTING THROUGH THE COURSE LEARNING.

One-Sample Statistics ^a				
	N ^b	Mean ^c	Std. Deviation ^d	Std. Error Mean ^e
q6 ^f	188	3.3883	1.03069	.07517

One-Sample Test ^a						
Test Value = 3						
	t ^b	df ^c	Sig. (2-tailed) ^d	Mean Difference ^e	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference ^f	
					Lower ^g	Upper ^h
q6 ^f	5.166	187	.000	.38830	.2400	.5366

Table 3 shows the one-sample T test result about students' response to the statement "I think I learned necessary skills for successful communication in a professional target setting through the course learning". We presume that student neither agree nor disagree with this statement. As we can see the average number of the result is greater than 3, too. Because $p < 0.05$, so we can infer that students believe students don't agree with the idea that they acquire in ESP class necessary communicational skills for specific language environment. There are two abilities necessary for successful communication in a professional target setting. The first one is that students are able to take good use of the words they learned from the course when they are in communication. They need not only know the meaning and usage of the words they learn in class, but also use them effectively in their communication. The second one is that they are able to realize what words are not suitable for daily conversation. For example, when they talk about current event over coffee time, they should realize that there is no need to use the words or expression that they learned from the ESP course. What's more, it's even unreasonable if they use the ESP words and expressions by accident. That will also be taken as a failure for their study. Or we can say that can be categorized into some kind of negative transfer. In order to make students possess these two kinds of abilities, ESP teachers need to pay more efforts when they design the course or train students in ESP class. Therefore, it will be extremely difficult for any individual to accomplish this task. Close cooperation between language teachers and subject experts will be meaningful to some extent. They can make a list, before the course design, of the possible problems they are going to face in accordance with their experience (Grant, 1987). Problem-driven approach of course designing could lead to better ideas when ESP teachers develop the course. In this way, the training part for the above mentioned two abilities could be more effectively developed.

TABLE 4:
THE TEACHING METHOD FOR THE ESP COURSE IS SUITABLE FOR MY LEARNING.

One-Sample Statistics ^a				
	N ^a	Mean ^a	Std. Deviation ^a	Std. Error Mean ^a
q8 ^a	188	2.1915	1.14019	.08316

One-Sample Test ^a						
Test Value = 3						
	t ^a	df ^a	Sig. (2-tailed) ^a	Mean Difference ^a	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference ^a	
					Lower ^a	Upper ^a
q8 ^a	-9.723	187	.000	-.80851	-.9726	-.6445

Table 4 shows the one-sample T test result about students’ response to the statement “the teaching method for the ESP course is suitable for my learning.” We presume that student neither agree nor disagree with this statement. As we can see the average number of the result is greater than 3, too. Because $p < 0.05$, so we can infer that students believe students have complaints about the teaching method used in ESP class. At present, a majority of teachers do not change the traditional teaching method when they deliver the ESP class. For example, the most frequently performed teaching activities are reading new words, translating long or difficult sentences in the whole text. The class atmosphere is usually boring. And the students tend to lose their interests forty minutes later which cause inefficient class performance. Additionally, for those students who have poorer understanding about the background knowledge and who are not competitive in English languages, they lose their interests and activeness in a quick way. According to the author’s understanding, this issue is closely related to the teachers’ professional level. Usually this phenomenon occurs less often in the talented teacher’s class. So the key to solve the problem is to improve teachers’ ability in teaching and organizing the class, and English proficiency as well.

TABLE 5:
Q12, MY ESP TEACHER’S ENGLISH IS VERY GOOD; Q13, MY ESP TEACHER HAS RICH SUBJECT KNOWLEDGE IN THIS FIELD.

One-Sample Test ^a						
Test Value = 3						
	t ^a	df ^a	Sig. (2-tailed) ^a	Mean Difference ^a	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference ^a	
					Lower ^a	Upper ^a
q12 ^a	5.090	96	.000	.32979	.2020	.4576
q13 ^a	-10.746	90	.000	.75000	.6123	.8877

TABLE 6:
Q12 MY ESP TEACHER’S ENGLISH IS VERY GOOD; Q13, MY ESP TEACHER HAS RICH SUBJECT KNOWLEDGE IN THIS FIELD.

One-Sample Test ^a						
Test Value = 3						
	t ^a	df ^a	Sig. (2-tailed) ^a	Mean Difference ^a	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference ^a	
					Lower ^a	Upper ^a
q12 ^a	-5.929	90	.000	.43617	.2911	.5813
q13 ^a	4.902	96	.000	.40957	.2447	.5744

Table 5 and table 6 show the one-sample T test results about students’ response to the statement “my ESP teacher’s English is very good” and “My ESP teacher has rich subject knowledge in this field”. It’s interesting to find that Group 1 and Group 2 shows totally opposite opinion on these two statements. Group 1 stands for English majors while Group 3 stands for non-English majors. So we can infer from the result of the test that English majors think ESP teacher’s English level is high enough for the course while the ESP teacher is weak in the mastery of subject knowledge. As for non-English major, their response is opposite to that of non-English majors’. It seems unreasonable to get this kind of result. but after further investigation, we find that in CUST the tradition is like this: the ESP teacher for English majors is language teach with some background knowledge to the subject while the ESP teacher for non-English majors is subject specialist whose English level is higher than other subject specialists. The response from the students will set us thinking. Maybe we should send language teachers to a certain department for learning more subject knowledge and subject specialist abroad to improve their English level. This suggestion may work eventually. But it also takes time.

Then can we figure out a way to solve the problem quickly and effectively. The author believes joint teaching could be the answer. Virtually joint teaching had been practiced abroad early in the development of ESP teaching so as to get a better teaching result. By joint teaching we mean subject specialists cooperate with language teachers, the main purpose of the cooperation is that subject specialists could help language teachers in ESP teaching since subject specialists have better understanding of the subject taught while language teachers have better mastery of the language. And this way of teaching has been still in use today in some countries. In this form of cooperation, subject specialists can help language teaching in the following way:

- First, help describe the scene in the target language and provide information on possible learning difficulties;
- Second, offering a reading list, including the recommended professional magazine, charts, etc;
- Third, help collect teaching materials;
- Fourth, help make short video or tapes involving the professional content;
- Fifth, help students to do professional knowledge lecture and organize small academic seminars.

Apart from the content of the cooperation, we also need to discuss the form of it. We usually can divide the cooperation into two types, namely, in class and out of class. The subject specialist can join the teaching activities in class working as an informant. Or they can discuss how to conduct the class out of the class with language teachers. For example, they can work together to analyze the objective of the teaching activity, design class activities, collect and sort out teaching materials, organize seminars and etc.

As to how to make the above mentioned joint-teaching successful, the author reckons that it lies in whether it can be a process of mutual improvement. On one hand, language teacher can help subject specialists deliver class content to students in English; on the other hand, subject specialists help language teachers in widening the horizon of knowledge and developing career. In order to achieve this purpose, both language teachers and subject specialist are supposed to have common interests in the subject they taught (Basturkmen, 2005). They need to have positive attitude. And also they need to be open-minded to accept this form of cooperation. The last but not least, there needs to be clear line between the responsibility of subject specialists' and that of language teachers'

V. CONCLUSION

The author in this article briefly introduces the background and development of ESP teaching and its practice in Changchun University of Science and Technology. Based on the results of the survey, students in CUST think both good mastery of English and necessary subject knowledge are the most important two qualifications for ESP teachers. To make the situation better, subject specialists can go abroad for further study to improve their capabilities in ESP teaching in the long run. In the short run, joint teaching between language teachers and subject specialist could be a shortcut to improve the situation. But cooperative teaching is a very complex process which involves many factors. Therefore, further study on joint teaching should be conducted as soon as possible.

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Jifeng Cao was born in Panjin, Liaoning Province, China on September 5th, 1978, who has got a degree of Master of Arts in foreign linguistics and applied linguistics from Changchun University of Science and Technology, Changchun, Jilin Province, China in 2009.

As a Lecturer, he teaches English for science and technology for the English major at School of Foreign Languages, Changchun University of Science and Technology. Two published articles are as follows: [1] Should the Basic verbs "get" and "put" be Learned First for College Students in Their Spoken English Class? (Global Academic Research Association Limited, *Journal of Culture & International Languages* 2013); [2] Will Interaction between Teacher and Students Affect Students' Attitudes toward EST Learning? (Global Academic Research Association Limited, *Journal of EFL Learning and Teaching* 2013). Previous research interests are Linguistics. At present he focuses on ESP teaching.

A Corpus-based Study on the Influence of L1 on EFL Learners' Use of Prepositions

Huei-Chun Yuan

Department of English, National Taiwan Normal University, Taipei, Taiwan

Abstract—The present study is a corpus-based study which aims to investigate the occurrence of salient first language (Chinese¹) features found in learners' second language (English) written productions. AntConc (version 3.2.4) was adopted to analyze the learners' written data and to establish various categories of preposition misuses and L1 features. Tango² was employed to provide suggestions for correction. Essentially, findings demonstrate that EFL learners may unconsciously produce L2 writings with L1 characteristics in their sentence productions. Results showed that the ten most frequently misused prepositions were *by, at, in, to, for, on, about, of, with, and as*. According to the results, it is suggested that, in regard to writing, teachers and educators can teach the use of prepositions through collocations to facilitate learners' knowledge and understanding for different prepositions through different contexts. The significance of the study is to raise learners' awareness as well as to provide reference for instruction for language teachers and educators.

Index Terms—first language (L1) transfer, preposition, interlanguage, written production

I. INTRODUCTION

With the growing pace of globalization and internationalization, English has become a dominant language in Taiwan. Learners at all ages possess their needs to master the language. However, due to various external factors, it has been argued that learners tend to perform better with receptive skills than productive skills. For some learners, receptive skills are mastered earlier than productive skills. Notwithstanding, it is without doubt that proficient productive skills lead to successful and fluent communication.

In Taiwan, how to enhance learners' competence in English writing has constantly been discussed. With the lack of opportunity to perform written communication with foreigners outside the classroom setting and complexity of elements in the syntax, lexis, and discourse level (Bennui, 2008), English writing continues to be a challenging subject for many learners. Furthermore, Bennui (2008) stated that many teachers tend to neglect the problem of learners' mother tongue and culture interfering in their English written productions. These types of problems may often occur for English L2 learners, especially when their L1 does not own a similar grammar system (Barrett and Chen, 2011).

Thus, the goal of the present study aims to detect L1 features found from learners' written productions, specifically in terms of learners' preposition usages. Detecting misuses is a principle means to solving the problem. It may help to raise learners' awareness as well as to provide reference for instruction for language teachers and educators.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Difficult Elements of English Grammar

Among the elements of English grammar, articles and prepositions have often been claimed as the most common grammatical error made by non-native speakers and may apparently be the most difficult elements of English for non-native speakers to master (Chodorow, Gamon, and Tetreault, 2010). In written discourse, articles and prepositions altogether account for 20% to 50% of all grammar errors made by second language learners (Dalgish, 1985; Diab, 1997; Izumi et al., 2003). Tetreault and Chodorow (2008) found that prepositions are among the most common type of usage error in writings of English as second language (ESL) learners in China. These claims have proved evident in many EFL learners' writings. Previous studies have also verified these claims. For example, Barrett and Chen (2011) investigated the potential errors made by Taiwanese college students and found that learners encountered problems using English articles in terms of distinguishing between a definite and indefinite noun phrase. Results also presented that more errors were made with plural nouns than with mass/non-count nouns. Another study conducted by Mahmoodzadeh (2012) looked into the misusages of prepositions made by 53 adult Iranian EFL intermediate learners. A translation task was performed to measure the participants' usages of prepositions. The researcher reported that participants of the study made errors related to wrong use of prepositions (*wrong use*) and redundant use of prepositions (*redundancy*) more frequently than omission of prepositions. It was implied that Iranian EFL learners tend to suffer from producing English prepositions which are grammatically redundant or wrong.

¹ In the present study, "Chinese" refers to the official language used in the Republic of China, Taiwan.

² An online collocation dictionary provided by the Natural Language Processing Lab at the Department of Computer Science, National Tsing Hua University (source: <http://candle.fl.nthu.edu.tw/collocation/webform2.aspx>).

So far, a number of studies have investigated the misuse of prepositions made by non-native learners of English according to the types of preposition errors, for example Tetreault and Chodorow (2008) reported in their study types of preposition misuses including (1) *incorrect selection* (e.g., “we arrived *to* the station”), (2) *extraneous usage* (e.g., “he went *to* outside”), and (3) *incorrect omission* (e.g., “we are fond *null* beer”). From a different perspective, Huang and Chen (2011) discovered three main types of common preposition misuses in the Taiwanese learners’ corpus, including verb-preposition errors, preposition-noun errors, and adjective-preposition errors. Among the three types, preposition-noun errors ranked as the most frequent type of misuse, followed by verb-preposition errors, and lastly adjective-preposition errors. Although misuse of prepositions in written discourse is quite prevalent in the field, it continues to be an important issue for researchers, educators and teachers.

Research into prepositional errors has revealed that misuse of prepositions is quite common for EFL and ESL learners. One reason articles and prepositions may become quite problematic for EFL learners is because misuse of articles and prepositions do not easily cause communication breakdowns (Brender, 2002). However, in written context, inaccurate usages of articles and prepositions may cause a degree of ambiguity for the audience. In particular, prepositions are hard to master because it contains challenging and complex features in terms of their variety. They serve a great variety of linguistic functions (Tetreault & Chodorow, 2008).

Concept of Language Transfer

According to Kohn (1986), the general concept of transfer is widely known as the effect of the interference of EFL learners’ native language when producing L2 output. Transfer is also known as a process which involves learners’ interlanguage behavior towards input of knowledge and transformation of input data into production of meaningful output. From this perspective, transfer inevitably shapes learners’ production as well as process. In particular, this transfer portrays as one of the major factors to impede learners’ interlanguage competence and performance. The definition of transfer has been discussed by Odlin (1989) from a general principle stating that “transfer of language” not only is influenced by learners’ mother tongue but also is an interference of any other language learners possess knowledge on. This is also referred to as “cross-linguistic influence.” Moreover, Ringbom’s (1992) concept of transfer is known as “L1 transfer.” From a different perspective, Ringbom’s definition for L1 transfer is defined as “the influence of L1-based elements and L1-based procedures in understanding and producing L2 text” (Ringbom, 1992, p. 87). Thus, the concept of language transfer, also known as *L1 interference*, *cross-linguistic influence*, or *L1 transfer*, is a significant factor determining learners’ learning and acquisition.

Previous Studies on the Influence of L1

Language learners’ L1 continues to play a significant role in the acquisition of an L2 (Huang, 2010). Earlier research has reported on the emergence of mother-tongue influence found in non-native learners’ productions. For example, Mahmoodazdeh (2012) claimed that Iranian EFL learners tend to suffer from producing English prepositions which are grammatically redundant (e.g., went *to* home) or wrong (e.g., depends *to*) in a translation task. These types of problems may often occur for English L2 learners, especially if their L1 does not have such a system (Barrett and Chen, 2011). According to the study, it was suggested that Iranian syllabus designers and material developers consider the level of cross-linguistic difficulty in the selection of course books. Huang (2010) investigated the potential influence of L1 (Chinese) on L2 (English) communication with a group of Chinese-speaking English as an additional language (EAL) learners. It was encouraged that instructors raise their awareness of the similarities and differences between learners’ L1 and English to better inform their teaching. By the same token, Sersen (2011) conducted a study on increasing students’ awareness of their L1 influences to improve the quality of writing. Positive results implied that enhancing awareness of learners’ L1 influence can improve students’ quality in L2 writing.

Previous research has demonstrated that the interference of L1 inevitably occurs and may hinder fluent productions for L2 learners and will bring a degree of influence on learners’ L2 productions. However, seldom research on L1 transfer has been conducted on prepositions (Chodorow, Gamon, & Tetreault, 2010) specifically delving into the varieties of salient L1 (Chinese) features found from learners’ second language (English) written productions. Thus, the objective of the present study aims at detecting the various categories of L1 features found in learners’ L2 writings.

The research aims to look at the following questions.

RQ1. Which prepositions were misused the most?

RQ2. Which L1 features occurred in L2 learners’ misuse of prepositions?

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

Undergraduate EFL learners from two English writing classes participated in the study. During the time of the study, the participants were attending the second semester of Basic English Writing class. In the second semester, the two classes were required to write weekly journals as home assignments. The length of each entry ranged from 250 to 300 words. According to their journals, all participants showed evident of their proficiency to compose at least a paragraph-length of English writing.

Instruments

In the process of detecting the participants’ misuse of prepositions, AntConc (version 3.2.4) was adopted to analyze the learners’ written data and to establish various categories of preposition misuses that occurred from the learners’ data.

Moreover, Tango (retrieved from <http://candle.fl.nthu.edu.tw/collocation/webform2.aspx>) was employed to provide suggestions for correction.

Data Analysis

A 20,017-word database was compiled from two classes of EFL undergraduate learners' journal writings. The instructor encouraged students to adopt newly learned words and to fully express their reflections, thoughts, and intimate feelings without regard for incorrect grammar usages and incorrect sentence structures. This was to prevent learners from producing only simple lexical forms and easy sentence structures in the target language.

Journals were coded in the corpus-analysis for several reasons. First of all, writing journals enabled the participants to express their personal thoughts, frame of mind, and emotions through descriptions of various events, daily incidents, past experiences, and so on. Next, journal writing in nature better encouraged the participants to write autonomously and casually on a wide variety of topics compared to other types of academic writing.

After compiling the data, the ten most frequently used prepositions were drawn out for analysis. For each preposition, an error check was taken into practice. Preposition uses that were found quite vague and difficult to judge whether L1 influence was a factor were not included as an error and thus were not included as a part of the present data analysis.

IV. RESULTS

After compiling the participants' writings into the database, results of the analysis reveal that a substantial proportion of the words belonged to functions words. Content words, on the other hand, did not appear as frequent (shown in Table 1). While *the* was reported as the most frequent word used, *I* and *my* was highly ranked as the second and ninth most frequent word respectively. One reason *I* and *my* are ranked within the ten most frequent words may attribute to the genre of the writing texts, which included the participants' personal reflections about their daily events and past experiences.

TABLE 1.
TEN MOST FREQUENT WORDS USED

Rank	Word	Frequency	Rank	Word	Frequency
1	<i>the</i>	828	6	<i>of</i>	305
2	<i>I</i>	765	7	<i>is</i>	284
3	<i>to</i>	639	8	<i>in</i>	279
4	<i>and</i>	501	9	<i>my</i>	269
5	<i>a</i>	397	10	<i>was</i>	226

The ten most frequently used prepositions were analyzed through AntConc. In terms of frequency, results show that *to*, *of*, and *in* were the three most frequently used prepositions. Elicited from the database, *about*, *at*, and *from* occurred 55 times respectively (ranked as number nine).

To respond to the first research question, the identified misuses were calculated and presented in numbers of percentage. According to error rate, *by* (22.22%) appeared to be misused most frequently, followed by *at* (10.91%), *in* (8.60%), *to* (6.73%), and *for* (6.67%). Results are presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
FREQUENCY AND ERROR RATE OF PREPOSITIONS

Prepositions	Frequency Rank (Times of occurrence)	Error Rate	Rank of Error Rate
<i>to</i>	1 (649)	6.73%	4
<i>of</i>	2 (305)	4.26%	8
<i>in</i>	3 (279)	8.60%	3
<i>for</i>	4 (135)	6.67%	5
<i>with</i>	5 (110)	3.64%	9
<i>on</i>	6 (88)	5.68 %	6
<i>as</i>	7 (77)	2.6%	10
<i>up</i>	8 (58)	1.72%	12
<i>about</i>	9 (55)	5.45%	7
<i>at</i>	9 (55)	10.91%	2
<i>from</i>	9 (55)	1.8%	11
<i>by</i>	10 (54)	22.22%	1

Results reveal that *in*, *to*, and *for* appeared with high frequency usages; the ratio of errors made was 8.96% (25 occurrences), 6.73% (43 occurrences), and 6.67% (9 occurrences) respectively.

On the contrary, misuses for *about*, *as*, *from*, and *up* did not show salient features of L1, thus are not included in discussion on the occurrence of L1 features.

To proceed, the second research question explores which L1 features were detected among the misuse of prepositions. According to the corpus data, features of L1 were found when using the prepositions *by*, *at*, *in*, *to*, *for*, *on*, *of*, and *with*. Table 3 provides a summary of the usages of these prepositions and presents sentences produced by the participants. The usages of *by*, *at*, *in*, *to*, *for*, *on*, *of*, and *with* will be discussed in the following section respectively.

TABLE 3.
DETECTION OF L1 FEATURES

Preposition	Sentences
by	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. was scared <i>by</i> the movie (1) 2. not convenient for use <i>by</i> lacking menu button (13) 3. general tofu in other place <i>by</i> frying (16) 4. He was grown <i>by</i> a family (29) 5. he wanted to find her out <i>by</i> the image in his mind (30) 6. acquainted with a beautiful girl <i>by</i> playing game (53)
at	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. we were walking <i>at</i> there (2) 2. I just got salary <i>at</i> that day (4) 3. <i>At</i> last weekend, I go to (17) 4. because I <i>at</i> small has lived here (19) 5. <i>At</i> this activity, we can improve (29) 6. When you arrived <i>at</i> here (69)
in	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>In</i> these weeks (64) 2. the ambience <i>in</i> there (the ambience there) (125) 3. do the homework in class <i>in</i> usual time (177) 4. English class <i>in</i> our campus (184) 5. <i>In</i> the narrow campus were ancient buildings (209) 6. in my heart <i>in</i> that day (in my heart that day) (#260) 7. lots of couple <i>in</i> there (281) 8. we were asked to gather <i>in</i> a place first (285) 9. mountain <i>in</i> their campus (288) 10. the cats <i>in</i> here came from an animal holding center (292) 11. the adopt rule <i>in</i> here was strict (293) 12. <i>In</i> the Christmas time (295) 13. was born <i>in</i> December 25 (305) 14. <i>In</i> the first day (331)
to	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I recommend <i>to</i> Baotou if somebody needs (9) 2. I didn't go <i>to</i> anywhere (107) 3. Before went <i>to</i> there (151) 4. when I came <i>to</i> home (156) 5. When I went <i>to</i> there (255) 6. this good habit is hard <i>to</i> me to change (381) 7. bite my socks and take it <i>to</i> somewhere (401) 8. after we entered <i>to</i> the university (405) 9. is near <i>to</i> the core of Taipei City (436) 10. made a plan about going <i>to</i> somewhere in Taipei (446) 11. can go <i>to</i> there next (534) 12. asked for painting my girlfriend's portrait <i>to</i> me (539) 13. put them <i>to</i> a big plastic bag (544) 14. this store would be a best place <i>to</i> you (579) 15. I will go <i>to</i> after the midterm is finish (593)
for	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. just live <i>for</i> parents (24) 2. in order to <i>prepare</i> this mid-term exam (26; 355; 602; 610) 3. was assigned to the fourth team <i>for</i> playing games (140)
on	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. <i>on</i> the present moment (19) 2. I was <i>on</i> job (20)
of	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. This reunion was worth because I can learn from the talking <i>of</i> everybody. (2) 2. I joined the wedding ceremony <i>of</i> my cousin (11) 3. travel <i>of</i> the plan (45) 4. the teacher <i>of</i> English speech (53) 5. ignore the road <i>of</i> view and the people we met (59) 6. we can improve relation <i>of</i> each other by cooperation (138) 7. baseball field <i>of</i> themselves (189) 8. I need a environment <i>of</i> English (191) 9. confused about the reason <i>of</i> studying (205) 10. the other word <i>of</i> illustrations (255)
with	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. I think he is nothing different <i>with</i> us (14) 2. It's a story <i>with</i> family-ship, friendship (21) 3. you can marry <i>with</i> foreign (53) 4. I have to accompany <i>with</i> him (112)

Usages of *by*

Liu (2004) mentioned that learners tend to use *by* to express Chinese expressions for “*透過*” and “*用*.” The usage for “*透過*” (through, by, or from) was also found in the present study, for example, “he wanted to find her out *by* (*透過*) the image in his mind” and “acquainted with a beautiful girl *by* (*透過*) playing a game.” Moreover, findings of this study reveal that learners also use *by* to express Chinese expressions for “*被*” (used before the main verb to express the passive), for instance, “was scared *by* (*被*) the movie,” “He was grown *by* (*被*) a family.” In some cases, *by* was used to

express “由於” (owing to), for example, “not convenient for use *by* (由於) lacking menu button.” The occurrences of *by* are categorized in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
USAGES OF *BY*

Native expression	Sentences	Suggestions
透過、用 (through, by, or from)	he wanted to find her out <i>by</i> the image in his mind acquainted with a beautiful girl <i>by</i> playing a game general tofu in other place <i>by</i> frying	~from the image~ ~from playing~ ~are fried
被 (used before the main verb to express the passive)	was scared <i>by</i> the movie He was grown <i>by</i> a family	the movie scared me A family brought him up
由於 (owing to)	not convenient for use <i>by</i> lacking menu button	~to use because it lacks ~

Usages of *at*

Huang and Chen (2011) reported that Chinese and Taiwanese learners generally encounter difficulty using *in*, *on*, and *at* correctly. One reason is that the three prepositions can be used to express “在” in Chinese which indicates time or place. In the present study, misuses for *at* occurred most often when associated with time, places, and activities (shown in Table 5).

TABLE 5.
USAGES OF *AT*

Native expression	Sentences	Suggestions
在~時間(時候) (to present time)	I just got salary <i>at</i> that day At last weekend, I go to because I <i>at small</i> has lived here	~on that day (omit) because I lived here <i>when I was small</i>
在~地方 (to present places)	When you arrived <i>at</i> here we were walking <i>at</i> there	(omit) (omit)
在~活動 (to present activities)	At this activity, we can improve	From this activity~

Usages of *in*

According to the analysis, *in* was often misused when associated with place and time, for example, “*in* these weeks” and “the ambience *in* there.” Among the misuses, *in-place* was misused the most, for example, “*in* there/here” (four occurrences) and “*in* campus” (two occurrences). Features of L1 was detected here because “*in*” may refer to “在” which is often followed by time or place, for example, 在學校 (*at* school) or 在週末 (*on* the weekend). However, in L2, the prepositions may differ according to the following place or time. The categorization of uses and sentence examples are shown in Table 6.

TABLE 6.
USAGES OF *IN*

Native expression	Sentences	Suggestions
在~時間 (to present time)	<i>In</i> these weeks do the homework in class <i>in</i> usual time in my heart <i>in</i> that day <i>In</i> the Christmas time was born <i>in</i> December 25 <i>In</i> the first day	(omit) ~usually ~on that day At Christmas time ~on December 25 On the first day
在~地方 (to present places)	the ambience <i>in</i> there lots of couple <i>in</i> there the cats <i>in</i> here came from an animal holding center the adopt rule <i>in</i> here was strict English class <i>in</i> our campus <i>In</i> the narrow campus were ancient buildings mountain <i>in</i> their campus we were asked to gather <i>in</i> a place first	(omit) (omit) (omit) (omit) ~on our campus On~ ~on their campus ~at a place first

Usages of *to*

According to the data, *to* was often used with *anywhere*, *somewhere*, *there*, and *home*. These cases show features of L1 because *to* can refer to “去” (indicating to go somewhere). In L1, “去” is often followed by a place (a destination) including “去任何地方” (anywhere), “去某個地方” (somewhere), “去那裡” (there), and “去家裡” (home). However, these grammatical structures are not appropriate uses in L2 but often are lexical reflections of learners’ L1 usages.

Moreover, examples from the data show that there were many occurrences of *to* used to express “對於” (about, for, regarding), “為了” (for, for the sake of, for the intention to), “於” (in, at, on, by, or from) in Chinese (examples are shown in Table 7).

TABLE 7.
USAGES OF *TO*

Native expression	Sentences	Suggestions
去~ (to go somewhere)	I recommend <i>to</i> Baotou if somebody needs	(omit)
	I didn't go <i>to</i> anywhere	(omit)
	Before went <i>to</i> there	(omit)
	when I came <i>to</i> home	(omit)
	When I went <i>to</i> there	(omit)
	bite my socks and take it <i>to</i> somewhere	(omit)
	after we entered <i>to</i> the university	(omit)
	is near <i>to</i> the core of Taipei City	(omit)
	made a plan about going <i>to</i> somewhere in Taipei	(omit)
	can go <i>to</i> there next	(omit)
	I will go <i>to</i> after the midterm is finish	~go there after~
對於~(人或事) (about, for, regarding)	this good habit is hard <i>to</i> me to change	~hard for me to~
	this store would be a best place <i>to</i> you	~place for you
為了~ (for, for the sake of, for the intention to)	asked for painting my girlfriend's portrait <i>to</i> me	~portrait for me
於~ (in, at, on, by, or from)	put them <i>to</i> a big plastic bag	~them in a big~

Usages of *for*

Features of L1 was found when learners used *for* to express “準備” (to prepare) and “為了” (for the sake of, for the intention of) in Chinese. Generally, “準備” refers to *prepare*, thus it was found that *for* was often missing (examples are shown in Table 8).

TABLE 8.
USAGES OF *FOR*

Native expression	Sentences	Suggestions
準備~ (to prepare)	in order to <i>prepare</i> this mid-term exam	~prepare for~
為了~ (for the sake of, for the intention of)	just live <i>for</i> parents	lead a life according to his/her parents' will
	was assigned to the fourth team <i>for</i> playing games	~fourth team <i>to</i> play the game

Usages of *on*

Learners' usages of *on* were similar to their usages of *at* and *in*. These prepositions often confuse learners because *at*, *in* and *on* can be used to express “在” in Chinese. Moreover, results reveal that *on* was also misused when associated with *time* as well as with concepts related to *be in the process of something*, which can be expressed by “在” in the learners' L1, for example, “I was *on* job.” The results are listed in Table 9 below.

TABLE 9.
USAGES OF *ON*

Native expression	Sentences	Suggestions
在~時間 (to present time)	<i>on</i> the present moment	<i>at</i> ~
在~工作 (concept related to job)	I was <i>on</i> job	I was <i>working</i> / I was <i>on duty</i>

Usages of *of*

Interestingly, results reveal that learners prefer using the *of-noun* structure when indicating possession in their sentences. Although not all occurrences are incorrect, some of the uses are quite redundant (e.g., I need an environment of English.) and are provided suggestions to enhance the fluency of the sentences (e.g., I need an English learning environment). As shown in Table 10 below, the majority of the usages can be explained as “~的” (to indicate possession, origin, or association) in L1.

TABLE 10.
USAGES OF *OF*

Native expression	Sentences	Suggestions
~的 (to indicate possession, origin, or association)	This reunion was worth because I can learn from the talking <i>of everybody</i> . I joined the wedding ceremony <i>of my cousin</i> travel <i>of the plan</i> the teacher <i>of English speech</i> ignore the road <i>of view</i> and the people we met we can improve relation <i>of each other</i> by cooperation baseball field <i>of themselves</i> I need an environment <i>of English</i> confused about the reason <i>of studying</i>	~I can learn from <i>everybody's sharing</i> . ~my <i>cousin's wedding</i> ceremony itinerary <i>of</i> the trip ~speech teacher (<i>omit</i>) ~view <i>of</i> the road~ ~our relationship their baseball field ~an English learning environment ~reasons <i>for</i> studying

Usages of *with*

Last but not least, not many misuses were found when using the preposition *with*. However, few features of L1 were detected. According to the learners' productions, *with* is often used to express “跟” or “有” (*to follow, to accompany, to have*) in Chinese. The examples are presented in Table 11.

TABLE 11.
USAGES OF *WITH*

Native expression	Sentences	Suggestions
跟~ (to follow, to accompany)	I think he is nothing different <i>with</i> us you can marry <i>with</i> foreign I have to accompany <i>with</i> him	~different <i>from</i> ~ ~marry (<i>omit</i>) a foreigner (<i>omit</i>)
有 (to have)	It's a story <i>with</i> family, friendship	It's a story <i>about</i> family and friendship.

V. DISCUSSION

The objective of the present study aims at investigating the occurrence of salient L1 (Chinese) features found in learners' L2 (English) written productions. To begin with, according to the error rates, results reveal the top ten misused prepositions, including *by, at, in, to, for, on, about, of, with, as, from, and up* (prepositions are listed according to error rates from high to low). Learners made least mistakes when using the prepositions *as, from, and up*. It was interestingly found that most of these prepositions were associated with collocations. These collocations were accurate and errorless, for instance, “*as usual, as well, regarded as, such as, as a result, as far as, as well as, might as well, as best as he can, as a matter of fact, comes from, different from, escape from, hear from, learn from, started from, suffered from, keep away from, bring up, catch up, cheer up, clean up, curl up, dress up, get up, grow up, heating up, jump up, lining up, make up, met up, pick up, stayed up, woke up, and to sum up.*” The results support the claim that producing collocations enhances comprehensive and fluent writing output and decreases misuses. Correspondingly, the interference of EFL learners' native language in this situation did not produce negative transfer. For other prepositions, not many collocations patterns were found.

Second, the features of L1 were detected and categorized among the misuse of prepositions for *by, at, in, to, for, on, of, with*. Salient L1 features were not found from the data when learners used prepositions including *about, as, from, and up*. *By* was ranked as the preposition with the highest error rate. Liu (2004) found that learners tend to use *by* to express Chinese expressions for “*透過*” and “*用*” (*through, by, or from*), while in the present study, the participants also used *by* to convey expressions for “*被*” (*used before the main verb to express the passive*) and “*由於*” (*owing to*). Because of its wide variety in usage and meaning in Chinese, it is easy to cause confusions for EFL learners.

Third, in the present study, prepositions *at, in, and on* were found most often misused to express the Chinese expression “*在*” which can be used in L1 to *indicate time, place, space, to be present, to be in the process of, and so on*. To be more specific, features of L1 were detected when *at* was associated with time (e.g., I just got salary *at that day*. 我在那一天領到薪水。), place (e.g., When you arrived *at here*. 當你到達(在)這裡。), and activity (e.g., *At this activity*, we can improve. 在這活動裡,我們能進步。) Moreover, the usage of *in* was also found most often misused when indicating time and place, for example, “*In the first day,...* (在第一天,...)” and “*...the ambience in there* (在那裡的氣氛...)” (refer to Table 6 for more examples). Similarly, some learners misused *on* when indicating time, for example, “*...on the present moment* (在目前的時間...)” Another occurrence was found when learners intend to express “*在*” in Chinese to imply *in the process of something*, for example, “I was *on job* (我在工作).” In Chinese context, “*在*” is widely used in general situations including time, places, in the process of, and so on; thus, differentiating different

situations for using prepositions *at*, *in*, and *on* may take extra effort for EFL learners. The results also correspond to Huang and Chen (2011) who reported that Chinese and Taiwanese learners generally encounter difficulty using *in*, *on*, and *at* correctly.

Next, the preposition *to* was the most frequently used preposition on the table according to the data. Surprisingly, learners did not commit considerable errors. Yet, the majority of L1 features and misuses were found when EFL learners associated *to* with places, specifically speaking, words like (*to*-) *anywhere*, *somewhere*, *there*, and *home*. Overall, L1 features used with *to* include “去” (indicating to go somewhere), “對於” (about, for, regarding), “為了” (for, for the sake of, for the intention to), and “於” (in, at, on, by, or from). Results fully support Liu’s (2004) claims that errors of *to* were detected as a characteristic usage of L1 transfer for Chinese learners.

Another salient feature of L1 was also detected when learners used the preposition *for*. Previous research mentioned that Chinese learners often use *for* to express “為了” (*for the sake of, for the intention of*) (Liu, 2004) which was also found in the present study. Although *for* shares similar meanings with “為了,” their grammatical usages are not consistently equivalent. During some situations, they are not replaceable, for example, “...just live *for* parents (為了過父母的志向生活).” The writer’s intention was “...lead a life according to my parents’ will.” In such a case, the logical meanings do not match although the L1 and L2 interpretations coordinate. To enhance EFL learners’ understanding for such cases, teachers could provide different context with different usages to help guide EFL learners. Rather than solely teaching a preposition, teachers could provide different descriptions to express similar meanings.

Last but not least, according to the data, there were not considerable errors made with the prepositions *of* and *with*. However, signs of L1 features such as direct translations were identified, for example, “**travel of the plan** (旅行的計劃),” “**ignore the road of the view**... (忽略路上的景色...),” and so on (examples are presented in Table 10). Although not all cases present incorrect grammar, the lexical structures are quite redundant. It was also found that learners prefer using the *of-noun* structure when indicating possession in their sentences, for instance, “I need an environment of English” (redundant); “I need an English learning environment” (better). Furthermore, *with* was often associated with the L1 expression “跟” and “有”. This is similar with the usage of *for*, when the L2 production does not fully convey the message; yet, the L1 and L2 interpretations coordinate.

To sum up, results of the present study demonstrate features of L1 among EFL learners’ use of prepositions. The emergence of L1 features in EFL learners’ productions may imply that learners unconsciously seek their L1 for guidance during writing. Thus, guidance while learning and engaging a variety of contexts are means to enhance learners’ knowledge for prepositions and to better perform writings with correct usages. The results of the study could be applied in instruction to raise learners’ awareness as well as to provide reference for language teachers and educators.

Implications

The implications of the study suggest that teachers and instructors provide guidance while learning and increase the engagement of a variety of contexts to enhance learners’ knowledge for prepositions and to better perform writings with correct usages. Moreover, raise learners’ awareness through explicit instruction and rather than solely teaching a single preposition, teachers could provide alternative descriptions to express similar meanings. Furthermore, encourage EFL learners to take use of prepositions through online collocational corpora may also assist individual and autonomous learning, for example, the British National Corpus [<http://www.natcorp.ox.ac.uk>], and the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English [<http://quod.lib.umich.edu/cgi/c/corpus/corpus?c=micase;page=simple>] (Huang, 2010).

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Huei-Chun Yuan is currently pursuing her PhD in TESOL at National Taiwan Normal University (Taipei). She received her M.A. degree in Applied Foreign Languages from National Taiwan University of Science and Technology (Taipei) in 2009. She is also an ESL instructor with six years of teaching experience. Her research interests include language assessment, short messaging service (SMS) language, and academic writing.

Context and Chinese Translation of English Titles —A Commentary on the Chinese Title of the '09 English Text of Han Suyin Award for Young Translators*

Xixiang Ke
Wuhan Textile University, China

Abstract—Context refers to various situations in which language communication takes place. Context analysis plays an indispensable role in the entire process of translation. The present paper attempts, via analyzing some English title translations, to indicate that the meaning of words should be accurately chosen, and that translations of English titles is based on adequate understanding of original context. The purpose is to heighten the awareness of translators that context can never be neglected, and that a good translation of English titles depends not only on translators' linguistic competence, their cultural and other related knowledge, but also the understanding of the context involved.

Index Terms—context, Chinese translation of English titles, principles of title translation

I. THE ORIGIN OF CONTEXT

The context theory was put forward by the linguist Malinowski in 1923. He believed that an utterance was closely connected with context, which was indispensable for the comprehension of language. Firth (1950) developed the theory by dividing the context into two, one being the linguistic, the other the social. In 1964, Firth's student, Halliday, the representative of systemic functional school, created the concept of "register", with field, mode and tenor, being the three parts of a linguistic context. What register reflects is context: field falls roughly into politics, science and techniques, literature and art etc; mode is divided into spoken language and written language; and the tenor includes social status, cultural background and relationships of the communicator. To him, if any one of the three changes, a new register will appear.

The American sociolinguist Hymes (1974) further developed the theory of context. He noted that how to use the social environment of language was an important symbol of mastering a language (Hou Guojin, 2003). Crystal (1991) believes that context is related to the entire background, either language or non-language. Language refers to a discourse-specific adjacent part of the unit which becomes the center of attention, such as a word, non-verbal part of the situational context, including the scene where the unit is used, the previously mentioned content which authors and readers are jointly aware of, as well as long-lasting belief system and discourse-related beliefs and presuppositions. Context includes both linguistic factors –discourse context and non-linguistic factors involving background knowledge, situational knowledge, shared knowledge, which will be discussed below.

Malinowski (1923), Firth (1950), Halliday (1989), Fishman (1965), Hymes (1974), Crystal (1991), all these linguists have described context from different perspectives. Their research can be roughly divided into two categories: one is to explain some factors that affect language participants, such as the broader social environment, cultural context, etc. This is discussed from the perspective of social and cultural environment. The other is to explain context from the background of language which participants share, and which enables listeners to understand what speakers intend to convey. This is the analysis of semantics from the perspective of psychological cognition. Cognitive context is the results of internalization of a variety of pragmatic factors through the human brain. According to Sperber and Wilson (1986), cognitive context is gathered together by many facts or assumptions that can be displayed. People use language to communicate by merely choosing relevant content from facts or assumptions. If the choices between the two sides are the same or similar, there will be overlapping, and it is the overlapping that forms shared cognitive context of communication. Chomsky, the representative of transformational linguist, also voice his ideas on context. He emphasized the function of the non-linguistic factors in studying semantics. Despite of different versions, their essence is identical (He Zhaoxiong & Jiang Yanmei 1997).

In a word, context is the environment in which language is used and develops. The communication with language—the transmitting and receiving of information, occurs only in particular environments and are influenced by and subject to

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them as well. These specific environments are the basis of human communication. People in society communicate on specific occasions, in a specific range, for specific purposes and with specific people. To put it in details, these environments include social and natural ones involving social status, sex, age of speaker and hearer as well as geographic, cultural, linguistic, ideological, social and customary background, thus these environments are termed context.

Nowadays, cultural context being highlighted attracts much attention. More and more scholars begin to study translation in a cultural perspective. They hold that translation activities should be viewed or evaluated based on the target culture and the accessibility of target readers. The reader response can be one of the criteria to judge the quality of translation.

II. CONTEXT AND TRANSLATION

Understanding a word relies on the context, because the explanatory power of the context touches any level of language communication, including pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, semantics, pragmatics, rhetoric, logic and discourse. The most basic function of context is to constraint and explain situational meaning and to remove ambiguities or vagueness (Chen Zhi'an & Wen Xu, 1997).

Pei Wen (2000) proposed the functions of context were as follows: display semantics, eliminate ambiguity, determine the referent, extend semantics, give the implication, create the opposite meaning, determine semantics, result in context ambiguity and produce associative meaning.

Newmark (2006) pointed out that the context in all translations was the most important factor, and its importance was greater than any law or theory, or basic word meaning. The understanding and expression are expanded based on the specific context. Semantics, determining the wording and phrasing, the chapter layout and stylistic form selection, is inseparable from the context. Therefore, the context forms the basis of a correct translation.

Therefore the relationship between context and translation is inseparable. People first of all understand the meaning of a word or a sentence in discourse. Thus, the discourse itself constitutes the environment of language components, which is called discourse context. Whether it is systemic functional linguistics focusing on broad cultural context and situational context, or cognitive context in pragmatics, both emphasize the role of context in understanding the meaning. Meaning in the context should come before translation. No context, no translation. Any translation should be contemplated in a certain context. Words do not possess meaning without context. Context provides the background for translators to understand the original, to choose translation strategies and diction.

III. TITLE TRANSLATION IN CONTEXT

In recent years, a large number of literary foreign works have been translated into Chinese. The title of a work is not an embellishment or a decoration; but something that can directly affect the body of the work, render the theme and heighten emotions. Titles and works should be on cooperative and dialogic terms, complementing each other, echoing each other to achieve the full meaning in mutual reference (Yu Jianhua, 2008).

A. Principles of Title Translation

The title, the "eye" of the article, is a summary or condenses on the content of work. It expresses the theme and the author's evaluation and judgment, such as being affirmative, negative, or critical. Good translations of titles can catch the eye quickly, thus achieving the purpose of communication. Whether titles can be accurately translated or not really counts. Generally speaking, good translation of a title should be in line with the following standards: (1) informative, revealing the themes and content of the work; (2) aesthetic, simple and neat, innovative and eye-catching; (3) imperative, stimulating a desire to read. Chinese translation of English titles not only involves the comprehensive ability of the translator's language, culture, art, creativity and imagination, but also concerns reader's aesthetic taste and capacity (Tang Jianduan, 2005). Good title translation should not only be faithful, fluent, but it should also represent the original ideas, style or spirit.

As for title translation, literal or free translation, which is better is not yet known. In fact, the two translation approaches have their own strengths, depending on specific situations. But no matter whether it is literal or free translation, translation should be faithful to the original in style or spirit. The title, like a flying kite, seemingly independent, is actually constrained. What restrains the title is context (Yu Jianhua, 2008). So the Chinese translation of title is not necessarily equivalent to the literal meaning of title. According to different contexts or different purposes, title translation can vary. What really matters is context, social or situational.

B. A Case Study: Translating the Title of an English Text

The title of English text of the '09 Han Suyin Award for Young Translators is "Beyond Life". It is the title of a literary work published by the American writer James Branch Cabell in 1919. (The old translation is *sheng huo zhi wa* (生活之外)). The original of this context is adapted from one of his essays.

Here is the introduction to the American writer James Branch Cabell.

James Branch Cabell was one of the great ironists of twentieth-century fantastic literature. His works were considered escapist and fit well in the culture of the 1920s, when his works were most popular. Interest in Cabell

declined in the 1930s, a decline that has been attributed in part to his failure to move out of his fantasy niche. Cabell saw art as an escape from life, but once the artist created his ideal world, he found that it is made up of the same elements that made the real one. He wrote fruitfully of the tensions between impossible dreams and the real world of economics.

He is good at writing satiric fictions. His works are considered as an escape from the reality. His novel *Jurgen* written in 1919 was a bestseller. The story took place in a fictional kingdom named Poictesme. The fictional kingdom is also taken as the story background in his other novels, including *The Crown of the Jest* written in 1920, *The High Place* in 1923, *The Silver Stallion* in 1926. Most of Cabell's works are moral fables. This is also in line with the American culture atmosphere in 1920s. 1920s is a special age in American history. The first World War ended in 1918. America benefited a lot from the war by which it won a precious opportunity for economic development. The cruelty of the war, made many people suspicious of traditional values, such as national honor, democracy, freedom of western ideology, thus lose faith in everything, indulging in seeking pleasures. The traditional Puritan Ethics crumbled and hedonism was beginning to flourish. As the writer Fitzgerald said, "this is an era of miracle, an era of art, an era of spending money like water, is also an age of satire." Fitzgerald called this era the "Jazz Age". Hidden behind the surface of the luxury is emptiness and helplessness.

His works make up a situational context. All his stories appear in an unrealistic world—a fictional kingdom. Judging from his works, it can be seen fantasy fills his heart and he has long been isolated from the world, the reality by himself and by the world around him. The statements such as "one of the great ironists of twentieth-century fantastic literature", "escapist," his failure to move out of his fantasy niche, "and" as an escape from life " reveal the social environment and emotional struggle that Cabell was confronted with and Cabell's maverick. His works began to lose attraction in 1930s, partly because of his negative attitude towards life or of sentiment haunting people as a result of Great Depression. Great Depression upset people, for which there was a great need for refreshing and encouraging works that can give people a way out or comfort. Whereas his works can not provide support to cheer them up. Social events such as the First World War and Great Depression constitute social context. All these help to understand translation.

Check the original of "Beyond Life", which is selected from two parts of a complete chapter in the original book, has 11 paragraphs. The English text of the 2009 Han Suyin Award consists of the middle parts, namely, 3 to 8. Here the first sentence of each paragraph is picked out for analysis.

The first sentence of Paragraph 3: *I want my life the only life of which I am assured to have symmetry or, in default of that, at least to acquire some clarity.*

The first sentence of Paragraph 4: *I have attempted to make the best of my material circumstances always; nor do I see today how any widely varying course could have been wiser or even feasible: but material things have nothing to do with that life which moves in me.*

The first sentence of Paragraph 5: *And I want beauty in my life. I have seen beauty in a sunset and in the woods of the spring and in the eyes of diverse women, but now these happy accidents of light and color no longer thrill me.*

The first sentence of Paragraph 6: *And tenderness, too—but does that appear a mawkish thing to desiderate in life?*

The first sentence of Paragraph 7: *And I very often wish that I could know the truth about just any one circumstance connected with my life.*

The first sentence of Paragraph 8: *Then, last of all, I desiderate urbanity. I believe this is the rarest quality in the world. Indeed, it probably does not exist anywhere.*

The word "life" has appeared in the first sentence of each paragraph. From these sentences, we deduce that the author has been seeking truth, tenderness and beauty in his life even though he knows the process of pursuit is full of ups and downs. The author has a strong desire to live in harmony. This can be inferred based on the discourse context—statement of the author *longing to live a life of balance, full of tenderness* and a life where beauty shines everywhere. However, all these that he desires seem to be beyond his reach. He is not so sure those he pursues do exist in reality that he can not go out of his own fantasy. That's the problem haunting him long.

The old translation of title, *Sheng huo zhi wai* (生活之外) is slightly dull and stiff, which appears not consistent with the style and the writing purpose. First of all, it is not striking. Second, it can not embody the theme and spirit of his work. Another translation, *Chao yue ren sheng* (超越人生), indicates the theme and interpretation of transcendence of life meaning, and how to achieve transcendence of life. This is what the title translation reminds us of. This version seems faithful to the original. But it does not indicate the content and sentiment of the original. The author is found to reveal no more than surpassing via thorough comprehension of the text. The author intends to not only embody his pursuit of life but show his hesitation, loss and pain during the process of pursuit. His social status and his pursuit of ideal life are in contradiction. The author can see the essence of life and the pursuit of the goal, but can not face or bridge the social gap, which is his source of pain. As a result, he indulges himself in his own fantasy. Based on the linguistic context, social and cultural context, the title can be translated into *Li xiang ren sheng* (理想人生 *An Ideal Life*) and *Mei li ren sheng* (美丽人生 *A Beautiful Life*), which seem not to comply with the literal meaning of title, but more in line with the original theme and conform to author's state of mind. As Andre Lefevere asserts, translation is a rewriting of an original text instead of involving only the research for the best linguistic equivalence. These two versions can achieve the functional or dynamic equivalence to the original, for it takes many factors into account, the author, the era, the culture and society involved. These factors are what we call contexts.

C. Chinese Translation of Title

In accordance with the principles of title translation, specific standards of title translation are cited as follows: (1) to meet the needs of contents of the original, reflect the original theme, highlight the original style; (2) to be concise, easy to remember; (3) to conform to Chinese language norms, and to suit Chinese taste. Lin Shu achieved success by adopting the approach of liberal translation for Western novels, thus has had a profound influence on the translation of foreign works in China (Zhou Ye & Sun Zhili, 2009).

Liberal translation has been valued in translation, especially in the translation of titles. Whether the strategy of literal translation or liberal translation should be adopted is not the focus in this paper. What follows is an analysis of examples on how translators go for or against the standards above, thus resulting in good or poor translations.

The American writer Fitzgerald's novel *The Great Gatsby* has many translations such as *Liao bu qi de gai ci bi* (了不起的盖茨比 *An Unrivaled Gatsby*), *Da ren wu, gai ci bi* (大人物盖茨比 *A VIP, Gatsby*), *Yong heng de ai* (永恒的爱 *Eternal Love*) and *Da heng xiao zhuan* (大亨小传 *A Brief Biography of the Great Gatsby*), *Liao bu qi de gai ci bi* (*An Unrivaled Gatsby*) reminds people of matchless King and the like, far from real image of Gatsby. *Yong heng de ai* (*An Eternal Love*) is too romantic and vague, which does not help to convey the theme. *Da ren wu, gai ci bi* (*A VIP, Gatsby*) seems to be slightly dull; *Da heng xiao zhuan* (*A Brief Biography of the Great Gatsby*) can express the intention of the original, and employs the rhetoric device of antithesis, which can be called a good example of translation in accordance with the context.

White Fang by Jack London in 1906, deals with the story of how a small pup is brought into the civilized world. There are 6 translations, including such three translations as *Bai ya* (白牙 *White Teeth*), *Xue hu* (雪虎 *Snow Tiger*) and *Ye xing nan xun* (野性难驯 *Wild and Difficult to Tame*). *Fang* refer to the fangs of an animal. *Bai ya* (*White Teeth*) is the literal translation. Taking into account the fact that *White Fang* is the name of the dog, this translation can hardly be substantiated. The translation *Xue hu* (*Snow Tiger*) is very creative, for "Xue hu" as the dog's name, complies with the Chinese way of naming the dog. Besides, *xue* means snow in Chinese. This reminds us of Arctic Wolf with white coat. The Chinese character *hu* retains a little dignity and power of fangs. While *Ye xing nan xun* (*Wild and Difficult to Tame*) is out of line with the pup in the novel, who eventually became a loyal dog and became very ferocious just at the end of the novel in order to save the benefactor. But the author intends to present the pup's courage and justice by describing this part, instead of indicating that the pup is difficult to tame. In addition, Jack London wanted to prove that the wild can be domesticated. This translation is self-defeating and contrary to the original idea. The translator does not thoroughly understand the central meaning of the original, or did not really understand the context. In a cartoon series based on the novel, the title was arbitrarily translated into *Bai Fang* (白芳), which sounds like a girl's name in Chinese, completely ignoring the context of the novel, and is a typical example of mistranslation (Yu Jianhua, 2008).

Mary Porter wrote *When the Moon Follows Me* which is a poetic prose. The author, who initially thought that only adults can comprehend the charm and romance of moonlight, did not expect her ten-year old son to sense that. For her, this is an amazing discovery. How to translate the title when translators realize this poetic theme? Should it be rendered into *Dang yue liang gen sui wo de shi hou* (当月亮跟随我的时候)? This version seems to be wordy, losing the flavor of poem, despite of being faithful. Taking into account the habits of the Chinese, this word-by-word translation is not favored, instead, we might as well render it into *Yue er ban wo xing* (月儿伴我行) via omitting the word "when", which is simple and poetic (Zhou Ye & Sun Zhili, 2009). The translation of this title takes into consideration the original style, situational context and the broad cultural context in which the target readers are in, thus it can be listed as one of the best title translation.

Dusty was translated into *Hui meng meng* (灰蒙蒙 *Gray*). In fact, its subtitle is *A Dog of Sheep Country*. The book is about a story of a dog named *Dusty*. The title *Dusty* should be translated into *Xiao gou da si ti* (小狗达斯提 *A Little Dog Named Dusty*). This translation based on the content of the book may be more appropriate compared with the previous translations. The *Hui meng meng* (*Gray*) is based only on the literal meaning of the title, which is obviously a mistranslation. Therefore, only by being familiar with the book, namely, by knowing the linguistic context and social context can we come up with translation which can be closely linked to central idea of the original and can vividly reveal the original content and spirit. The readers will not be confused by the former translation, which is superficially faithful but actually not equivalent.

There is an American film named *Everything You Always Wanted to Know About Sex But Afraid to Ask*. If translated literally, it may be lengthy and hard to remember. The film screened in Taiwan was translated into *Xing ai bao dian* (性爱宝典 *Instructions on Sex*), which sounds subtle and elegant in Chinese, concise and easy to remember, and this version takes Chinese culture into account and pay attention to target readers' response and acceptance, for Chinese tend to discuss sex implicitly. This translation may well be a good example. The translation of films *Ghost* and *Gone with the Wind* are also cases to the point. To achieve specific purposes, the translation is the rewriting of the original.

In a word, to take discourse context, social context, situational context and cultural context into consideration are essential in translation. Only in that way a satisfactory translation can be produced.

IV. CONCLUSION

Chinese translation of English titles is a subject that is expected to be studied further. When it comes to relevant translation principles, no matter what strategies, literal translation or free translation, domestication or foreignization are adopted, the language of a text and the whole non-verbal background should be taken into account. The title of movies, books, and literary works, the finishing touch, if translated inappropriately, it would fail to convey the main idea to readers to attract audience or to achieve purposes. In conclusion, it is essential to think comprehensively. Only if translators take context into account can they produce proper translations.

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Xixiang Ke was born in Wuhan, China in 1975. She received her Master's degree in linguistics from Wuhan University of Science and Technology, China in 2006.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Languages, Wuhan Textile University, Wuhan, China. Her research interests include translation theory and practice and language teaching.

The English Translation of Public Signs in Qingdao—From the Perspective of Eco-translatology*

Jing Ma

Foreign Language Department, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao 266001, China

Abstract—The success of 2014 Qingdao International Horticultural Exposition has drawn many visitors' attention of the world and has also greatly improved China's image in the global arena. Under this circumstance, the English public signs are increasingly important. However, there has been inadequate attention to the importance of C-E translation of public signs. The present situation of its usage is far from satisfaction. With regard to the above facts, the paper attempts to explore the translation of public signs in Qingdao from the perspective of Eco-translatology. After introducing the core concepts of Eco-translatology and translation principles of public signs, the author analyzes problems and causes of the translated public signs with different kinds of examples. In the end, the author puts forward several corresponding C—E translation strategies of public signs under the guidance of eco-translatology.

Index Terms—public signs, Eco-translatology, Qingdao

I. INTRODUCTION

Public signs are used as tools to help foreigners understand a place. Translation of public signs even influences the political, economic, social and cultural development of the place. A lot of translations have been done about public signs. However, the previous studies about translation of public signs are mainly about the relevance theory, Skopos theory, inter-textuality theory and the perspective of function and aesthetics, but eco-translatology with adaptation and selection as the focus is seldom applied.

The success of 2014 Qingdao International Horticultural Exposition has drawn many visitors' attention of the world and has also greatly improved China's image in the global arena. "From the earth, for the Earth", the theme of the Expo, which embodies that "earth" and "Earth" are regarded as the two topics that the world concerns. The mascot is named "Qingqing" which may indicate the city of Qingdao and the old Chinese saying that blue-green (qing) comes from but also excels blue. The design is a combination of natural landscape and ideals, inspired by such images as rolling waves, drifting clouds, lofty peaks and wavering tree crowns. Qingqing raises her hand to extend her sincere invitation and warm welcome to friends from the five continents and show Qingdao's positive and aspiring mentality as well as its confidence and resolution to deliver an international horticultural feast. The image of wavering trees indicates the theme of Expo 2014 "From the earth, for the Earth" and the idea of ecology and environment friendliness.

In Qingdao City, bilingual signs are offered in order to give foreigners' lots of convenience. However, problems of the translation exist everywhere. Therefore, it is of great necessity for researchers to improve the quality of the public signs. In terms of ecological translation study, there is a theory proposed by Hu Gengshen. Through applying ecological approach to study translation, it made a new explanation to the essence and process of translation. Therefore, based on the study of Eco-translatology, the paper attempts to apply it to the translation practice of public signs in Qingdao City.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A. An Overview of Eco-translatology

In light of Darwin's theory, Professor Hu Gengshen put forward Eco-translatology in 2001 in his paper "An Initial Exploration into an Approach to Translation as Adaptation and Selection". In 2008, Professor Hu published *Translation as Adaptation and Selection* which marked the establishment of Eco-Translatology.

As a strong interdisciplinary subject of ecology and translatology, this theory is understood to be an ecological approach to translation studies. Eco-translatology deems that the translation activity, as all the other activities in the natural world, should adapt to the "nature", which refers to every factor influencing the translation and is defined as "translational eco-environment". Hu Gengshen (2008) states that translational eco-environment refers to the situation and condition presented by the source language, source text, target language, target reader, and the social environment of the translator's time, etc. This theory also holds that the translator's selection of the target text is

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based on his or her multi-dimensional adaptation to the translational eco-environment. If the translator couldn't well adapt himself to the translational eco-environment, his choice of the target text would be doomed to fail from the very beginning.

"Adaptation" and "selection" are two core concepts through the whole theory of Eco-translatology. Under this theory framework, translation is defined as "a translator's adaptation and selection activities in a translational eco-environment." (Hu Gengshen, 2004, p.219) Therefore, the practice of translation highlights two stages, one is the stage of translator's adaptation, and the other is the stage of translator's selection.(Hu Genshen, 2004, p.121-127) On the one hand, it limits and restricts translator's best adaptation to itself; on the other hand, it is the basis of translator's adaptive selection of the translated text.

The first stage is the translator's adaptation. In order to survive, translators should fully understand the source text, perfectly adapt to the translational eco-environment, and simultaneously take the reader and consignor's thinking and feeling into consideration. The second stage is the translator's selection. It is true that the production of translation text is on the basis of translator's actively adaptation to the translational environment, but it is the translator that makes final choices. In a word, the adaptation of translators to the outside environment is the practice of "selective" adaptation, and the production of translation text is also practice of "adaptive" selection.

Eco-translatology forms its own approach to studying translation by researching the translation process from a macroscopic way. According to Eco-translatology, the evaluation standard of translation is the "degree of holistic adaptation and selection", (Hu Gengshen, 2004, p.144) which directs researchers to evaluate the quality of the translated versions from their translation processes and holds that the excellent translation results from the translator's perfect adaptation to the translational eco-environment and adaptive transformation from the three dimensions of language, culture, and communication. In that sense, a translation text can be evaluated in accordance with this standard.

B. *Researches on Public Sign Translation*

"Public signs are characters, words and graphic information that are closely related to people's life, environment and business, and intend to have the functions of notifying, directing, displaying, warning and labeling to the public." (Da & Lv, 2005, p.38) In the 21st century, with the deepening contact between China and other countries, China takes an increasingly important part in the international cooperation in economy and other fields. More and more public signs are written in both Chinese and English all over the cities in China.

The study of public sign translation enjoys a comparatively long history abroad, while in China it is still a new domain. Some scholars began to study the C-E translation of public signs from certain aspects only in the late 1980s. In the early studies of public sign translation, most essays focus on the collection of wrongly used public signs. As time goes on, researchers have done academic researches on the perspective of pragmatics, social semiotics and aesthetics and have explored the guiding principles and translation strategies and skills for public sign translation with related translation theories.

In 2002, Beijing International Studies University subsidized the study on "*C-E Public Signs Translation*" and set up a research center for public signs. And in 2003 the research center started the website of "*Study on C-E Public Signs on Line*". In 2004 C-E Public Signs Dictionary by Lv Hefa and Shan Liping was published. It is the first reference book concerning the translation of public signs from every aspect of social life, providing abundant authentic pictures of public signs. Besides, the first and second national seminars of public signs translation were successively held in 2005 and 2007. From then on, domestic research on public signs is increasingly standard and sound. For example, Deng Yan applies functional approach in the C-E translation of public signs and argues that different strategies should be adopted according to the intended purpose and function of the target text. Zhao Xiang generalized the current situation and existing problems in the translation of tourism public signs through many examples. Wei Zhirong and Ling Wei discuss the translation of language on public signs from the perspective of skopostheorie. Shi Jianhua discusses three special language characteristics of public signs and comes up with four strategies according to its characteristics and Peter Newmark's translation theory. The reviews of domestic related literatures on public signs translation are abundant. However, despite the fact that the academia attaches importance to it, the translation quality of public signs in our daily life is not satisfactory at all.

After a special review of public sign translation of specific cities in China, the author finds that there is no related public signs translation study in Qingdao under the guidance of the Eco-translatology. However, Qingdao stands at the forward position of the Eastern coastal cities in China; furthermore, Qingdao is becoming an important international metropolis. The situation of academic study in public translation field is far less satisfactory. Especially in 2014, with the World Horticulture Expo as a turning point, scholars and translators should seize the opportunity to deepen the study of public signs translation in Qingdao.

III. PROBLEMS IN C-E TRANSLATION OF PUBLIC SIGNS IN QINGDAO

Trying to collect and obtain the material of public sign translation, the author managed to travel around the whole city of Qingdao including Huangdao and Jiaonan, photographing and noting down the English versions of public signs. The existing public signs translation in Qingdao is far from satisfactory. From the research on these English versions of public signs, various problems, such as spelling mistakes, word-for-word translation, ambiguity, misunderstanding and

misapplication can be easily found among them. Some translations are too awkward to read. Some are so confusing that the readers feel at a loss. The paper probes into the problems in C-E translation of public signs from linguistic level, pragmatic level and cultural level.

A. *Problems on Linguistic Level*

Chinese belongs to the Sino-Tibetan language group, whereas English belongs to the Indo-European family. Chinese is a typical analytic language, while English is a synthetic language marked with inflexions. Linguistic translation errors are often due to deficiencies in the translator's source or target language competence (Nord, 2001, p.77). According to the author's research, linguistic translation errors in public signs mainly consist of the following kinds: spelling errors, grammatical errors, lexical errors and inconsistency in translation method.

1. Spelling errors

The spelling errors can be easily found in the public signs translation. This kind of errors will make a negative impression on the target readers because of the incapability and carelessness of translators or sign-makers. What's worse, these mistakes may be harmful to the image of Qingdao City. The following are some misspelling examples collected in Qingdao.

In the Sun Shine Department Store (青岛阳光百货), a piece of public sign “顾客止步” is incorrectly translated as “Stuff Only”. As a matter of fact, it should be translated into “Staff Only”. The word “Stuff” in the original version is rather ridiculous, which refers to matter, material, article, or activities of a specified. The misspelling error will make foreigners feel strange and confused and they will never guess the original meaning “Staff”. On a public telephone in Youke Convenience Store (友客便利店) near Weike Square (维客广场), “IC卡” is put into “Ic Card”. Apparently, the word “Ic” is a spelling error and the correct form is “IC Card”, for the word “IC” is the abbreviation of “integrated circuit”, and both of the two letters should be capitalized.

2. Grammatical errors

Words are the carrier of meaning. The roles of grammar are just the organizers of words during the process of translation. In the light of the angle of coherence rule, a satisfactory version of public signs translation should at least abide by the grammatical roles of target language. Because of the differences between Chinese and English grammatical rules, various kinds of grammar errors occur in the C-E translation of public signs. In Qingdao, it is very common to find grammatical errors in English versions of public signs, which are noticeable and eye-catching bringing much trouble in understanding.

The Chinese render for “Nonrecoverable” as “不可回收物”. However, the existing translation of “不可回收物” in China University of Petroleum (中国石油大学) is “No recoverable” or “Organism”. The problem of this public sign belongs to the error of part of speech.

3. Lexical errors

The translated public signs should be in accordance with habitual use of the target language, but some lexical mistakes exist seriously in public signs. Some examples are taken from some supermarkets in Qingdao, e.g. 干货 *Fuck Foods*; 干锅鱼头 *Fuck a fish head*; 一次性用品 *One time sex goods*.

They are very much ridiculous, and obviously the translation done by some people with a smattering of English. Try to imagine what foreigners will feel when they see signs with such filthy words.

4. Inconsistency in Translation Method

“Public signs are semantically characterized by specificity and unity. When one sign appears in any situation such as publications, publicity materials, guideboards or traffic signs, the translation should be consistent, otherwise it will confuse the readers.” (Tian & Zhang, 2010, p.176) However, inconsistency in translating public signs is very common in Qingdao. Some public signs are presented in Chinese and English while some in Chinese and pinyin. For example, “中山路” was translated as “ZHONGSHAN LU” on road signs but as “ZHONGSHAN ROAD” on bus. To foreigners who do not know Chinese, they may consider the translations as two different roads. This kind of problem, disobeying the international standard, would bring much inconvenience to foreign tourists. Therefore, in the translation of public signs, the translators should standardize and unify the translated terms to meet the tourists' demands.

B. *Problems on Pragmatic Level*

In communication activities, people with different cultural background probably have language barrier or misunderstanding. The pragmatic problem often appears between original text and translated text. There are many reasons that constitute the pragmatic errors. In a general way, these pragmatic errors are embodied in the incorrect expression and misunderstanding of both sides. Jenny Thomas (1983) points out that pragmatic failure means improper expression or expression method, or wrong collocation in the target language, which results in some unexpected effect. Here it refers to the fact that the translator imitates the mode of expression, the structure or the sound feature of the source language to produce the awkward language or translationese.

1. Word redundancy

The C-E translation of public signs should also be concise and accurate. That is to say, any word that doesn't function in the sentence should be edited out. However, in the C-E translation of public signs, the problem of word redundancy can be easily noticed in public. As a particular failure in the public sign translation, word redundancy goes against the

coherence rule and leads deviation. For example,

遇到火灾，勿用电梯 *When there is a fire, don't use the elevator!*

This one is from a residential area called “Harmonious City” in Qindao. The translation seems to be all right, but if we analyze it, we can find the error. First, it violates the principle of “terse” and gives a tedious impression to the public. Second, it leaves people with an unsafe feeling because it seems that the fire will happen at any time. So we had better employ the phrase “in case of” to get rid of the underlying meaning.

2. Chinglish

Chinglish is a kind of interlanguage formed by Chinese grammar and English words. It can be defined as English with Chinese characters. In the course of learning and using English, Chinese learners would be influenced by Chinese thinking pattern and culture, and then Chinglish is created. As for public sign translation, the translators sometimes mechanically apply Chinglish due to the negative transfer of their mother tongue, which would lead to the poor transference of information. Chinglish neglects the idiomatic use of English language and violates the intended function of public signs. In the learning process of English, Chinese learners get incorrect conclusion and deduction of language rules under the influence of Chinese thinking pattern. For example:

我国人口基数大，生育需要有计划 *The base of our country is large, so birth need plane*”.

This example is taken from a district government slogan. Here, the translator did a rigid word-for-word translation with typical Chinese way of thinking and expressing patterns without considering the target language conventions. The translation is not only grammatically incorrect, but it would puzzle the target readers who know little Chinese.

Another example, 小心其他场地球飞入 *Caution! Beware of Flying Ball from the other field.*

Although the original intention of the sign is to warn people against an accident, the underlying meaning is that the ball will hurt the players in this field at any time. The poor facility allows the balls to fly everywhere and even hurt people, which is a phenomenon that should not happen to foreigners. So what the owner of the gymnasium should do is to improve the facilities rather than to erect such a useless sign.

3. Word-for-word translation

The most common translation method of public signs is word-for-word translating source language with incorrect expressions. The reason should be that the translator does not understand the real meaning of source text, or ignores the cultural connotation of the original text. In most situations, the real meaning of a word is not its literal meaning. Only in the contextual environment can the word convey the exact pragmatic meaning.



(Picture 1)

The above example is taken from the park of Licun River in Qingdao. It tends to warn people of watching out in order to avoid falling down. However, the translation adopts word-for-word translation to tell people to be careful when dropping into the water, instead of warning people of their safety. “当心地滑” “*Caution, slip*” from a shopping mall named Jusco is another typical example of word-for-word translation. The translation neither conveys the meaning nor realizes the appellative function of the source text. The translator ignores the pragmatic linguistic function and the concise feature of public signs. Therefore, adopting the explicit and implicit linguistic form beyond the limitation of the original text makes the sign much more effective in addressing the warning.

C. Problems on Cultural Level

Language and culture are closely related. Westerners and Chinese people have different thinking mode and logic feature. Generally speaking, the logic thinking of Chinese people is circuitous, Chinese people is accustomed to expressing something in indirect way. While the logic thinking of western people is very simple, they express their thinking directly, yes or no, like or dislike, etc. Therefore, we must show our respect for different cultural practices and forms, and do our best to eliminate the conflict of cultures. Some signs use the English translation without considering cultural differences, which are sure to bring about the failure in delivering information properly.



Picture 2 is taken from a bus in Qingdao. The translation is too long and not habitually practiced in English speaking countries. In English, we usually use “she is in a family way” to describe a lady who is pregnant. It is a euphemism. In Britain and the United States, such signs on these seats are labeled with “Courtesy Seats”. These seats have a similar function in China and in the West, so it is better to use this version to avoid cultural conflict. Another example, “圣象地板 *Saint Elephant floor*”, We can see the white elephant have a high status in Buddhist temples. Actually, “elephant” is treated as a symbol of trickery or deceitful favor in western countries. It stands for something which is expensive but useless. So it is better to translate it with Chinese pinyin: Sheng Xiang Di Ban.

IV. ECO-TRANSLATOLOGY-ORIENTED STRATEGIES FOR PUBLIC SIGNS TRANSLATION

According to Eco-translation, the process of translation contains the stage of translator’s adaptation and the stage of translator’s selection. Here, the author attempts to discuss the process of adaptive selection in three dimensions: linguistic dimension, pragmatic dimension and cultural dimension.

A. Adaptive Selections in Linguistic Dimension

The adaptive selection from linguistic dimension emphasizes the translator’s adaptive transformation of the linguistic forms in the translation process. In the aspect of linguistics, many factors should be considered, such as words and phrases, grammars, linguistic styles, and so on. Lv Hefa (2004) illustrates eleven translation methods from the linguistic characteristics of public signs, but in this paper, the author will discuss the following.

1. Formulated translation

No+noun / gerunds

This pattern is used to prohibit readers from doing something. It can be substituted for “禁止”, or “请勿”, so “禁止吸烟” can be put into “No Smoking”.

Caution! / Danger! +noun / verb

This structure is employed to warn readers of danger or risk. Words like “Caution!” and “Danger!” in this pattern are used to draw people’s attention and they can be substituted for “小心” or “注意”. Here are some more examples:

小心滑倒 Caution! Wet Floor

小心落物 Danger! Falling Objects!

Noun+only

This structure is used to generalize facilities that they are specially used for somebody or something. The corresponding Chinese expression of this structure is “.....专用”, “.....止步” and “仅限.....”. The following are some examples:

顾客止步 Staff Only

送客止步 Passengers Only

残疾人专用 Disabled Only

会员专属 Members Only

Do not/please + verb

This pattern is used in imperative sentences in order to give directions to readers. The corresponding Chinese expression of this structure is “请.....”. Take the following public signs for example,

请走旋转门 Please Use Revolving Door

文明游览, 请依次排队 Please Queue Up

请主动出示证件 Please Present Your Certificates

B. Adaptive Selections in Pragmatic Dimension

Pragmatic dimension is the adaptive selection of translators who lay their emphasis on bilingually communicative intention during the process of translation. The transformation demands translators transforming linguistic and cultural connotation and stressing on the level of communication, to realize the communicative intention of the translation text.

(Hu Gengshen, 2008, p.3)

The strategy of substituting corresponding expressions in the target language which carries equivalent referential or pragmatic meaning for that in the source language can be defined as “equivalent translation”. Now that English-speaking countries have their own standard usage for such public signs, it is better for Chinese translators to follow convention. For example:

强电间 High Voltage Room	单程票 One-way Ticket
普通席 Economy Class	北出口处 North Exit
留言板 Message Board	游览观光车 Sightseeing Bus

C. Adaptive Selections in Cultural Dimension

The adaptive selection in cultural dimension requires translators be conscious of culture in the process of translation, and realizing that translation is practiced in a cross-cultural environment. For the purpose of interchanging information, translators should also be ready to deal with cultural differences. (Hu Gengshen 2004, p.137) Transliteration, replacement and amplification are three typical translation methods for the translation of public signs with cultural difference. While, the author particularly specifies the fourth one: omission.

Due to different conditions, many Chinese public signs are with Chinese characteristics. While in English-speaking countries there are no similar signs. It is called cultural absence. If people translate these Chinese public signs into English, it is likely to cause cross-cultural mistakes. For example, family planning is a basic national policy of China, people can see the slogan of “计划生育, 人人有责” in many places. If it is translated into “Everyone is responsible for family planning”, although the meaning is no problem, people from English-speaking countries are not necessarily able to understand, so it can be only Chinese without translation.

V. CONCLUSION

Public sign is a tool that can help the communication between Chinese and westerners. It is not only the change between two languages but also the communication between Chinese and Western culture. Whether the translation of public signs can achieve its original function not only affects the foreigners' life in Qingdao, but also relates to the mental outlook and the overall image of the city, thereby affecting China's international image. Eco-translatology provides a feasible theoretical framework for the author to conduct researches on translation of public signs in Qingdao. However, due to limit of time and material collections, there is much still to be further desired in this paper. Besides, it would be better if qualitative analysis was to be made.

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Jing Ma was born in Taian, Shandong Province, China in 1979. She received her M.A. degree in linguistics from Shanghai Jiaotong University, China in 2005.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Language, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China.

Her research interests include language testing, translation and interpretation. This paper is granted by the project “On Multi-disciplinary Integration Interpreting Talent Training Model (13XB39)”.

Exploring Learners' Developing L2 Collocational Competence

Supakorn Phoocharoensil
Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand

Abstract—This research study was aimed at an investigation of Thai EFL learners' collocational competence, with focus on the problems in their collocation use. The data, elicited from essays written by two groups of participants with different L2 proficiency levels, are indicative of actual problems with which the learners are really confronted. With respect to the sources of these collocational errors, native language transfer seems to be the most important contributing factor. Where the collocations in L1 Thai and L2 English are incongruent, deviations often arise. The interlingual errors found pertain to preposition addition, preposition omission, incorrect word choice, and collocate redundancy. It is worth noticing that the high-proficiency learners heavily depend on collocational patterns from their mother tongue, to which low-proficiency students are expected to resort. In addition to L1 transfer, the participants also seem to rely on synonymy and overgeneralization, both of which result in erroneous collocations in English.

Index Terms—collocation, collocational competence, English learners, difficulty and errors, language transfer

I. INTRODUCTION

English learners, no matter to what context of learning they belong, e.g. EFL, ESL, or EIL, have difficulty acquiring second language (L2) vocabulary. Not merely are they supposed to learn the meaning(s) of a new word in English, but it is also of paramount importance to know what possible words can co-occur with it (Lewis, 2000; Nation, 2008). Such neighboring words in combination with their node word are known as collocation, i.e. the term originally introduced by Firth (1957) to refer to a combination of words associated with each other. Frequency of co-occurrence seems to be the crucial factor in determining whether a combination should be treated as a collocation, as Lewis (2000, p. 8) defines collocation as “the readily observable phenomenon whereby certain words co-occur in natural text with greater than random frequency”

According to Nation and Webb (2011), multiword units, which include collocation, play a very significant role in both language use and language learning. A large proportion of English that learners meet and use in real English are composed of these lexical bundles or chunks (Biber, Conrad and Cortes, 2004). As a result, learners' effective L2 English comprehension and production can be facilitated by the knowledge of the frequent multiword units. An incorporation of collocation into English language curricula is now and will be inevitable; furthermore, research on multiword units “will continue to be a central area of research for both curriculum design and language learning theory and practice” (Nation and Webb, 2011, p. 175).

There have apparently existed a great number of research studies so far on the collocational knowledge of English learners speaking many different native or first languages (L1). Nonetheless, research on Thai EFL students' ability to use collocations is limited to a single group of learners, especially those with high-proficiency level, e.g. English-major students (e.g. Boonyasaquan, 2006; Mallikamas and Pongpairroj, 2005; Mongkolchai, 2008). The present study with a cross-sectional design was aimed at bridging this gap through focusing on two groups of learners whose proficiency levels are different in order for the researcher to compare their interlanguage collocational competence (Ellis, 2008), with an emphasis on an exploration and explanation of the areas of difficulty confronting the students.

The next section reviews the related literature as well as previous empirical studies on L2 English collocation acquisition.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Defining Collocation

The term collocation was coined by Firth (1957), as previously stated, who remarked, “collocations of a given word are statements of the habitual or customary places of that word” (p. 181). According to McCarthy (1990), collocation constitutes a relationship which is “a marriage contact between words, and some words are more firmly married to each other than others” (p. 12). Sinclair (1990) refers to collocations as “items that occur physically together or have stronger chances of being mentioned together” (p. 170). For Lewis (2000), collocations occur in a statistically significant way, and Hill (2000) suggests that some collocations are predictable, e.g. the verb foot, which has a strong tendency to co-occur or collocate with the object noun bill, as in foot the bill. It is worth noticing that the term collocation may also be interchangeably used with others, e.g. formulaic language, chunks, multiword units, lexical bundles, prefabricated

routines (Wray, 2002). It is the focus of researchers' analysis that determines the choice of term (Schmitt, 2010).

B. Collocation Types

The current study uses Benson, Benson, and Ilson (1997)'s collocation classification: lexical collocations and grammatical collocations. Lexical collocations are normally made up of two or more content words, i.e. nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, as shown below:

adjective + noun	:	grave offence
verb + noun	:	undergo an operation
noun + verb	:	dust accumulates
adverb + adjective	:	truly remarkable
verb + adverb	:	speak fluently
adverb + verb	:	strongly agree

Grammatical collocations, in contrast, refer to combination of a content word and a function word, which is mainly a preposition, as illustrated below:

noun + preposition	:	an increase in
verb + preposition	:	sympathize with
adjective + preposition	:	keen on
preposition + noun	:	in reality

C. Significance of Collocations in English Learning

English learners need to include collocations as a part of vocabulary learning (Hill and Lewis, 1997). Likewise, teachers should take collocations as a major component to be put into their English language curriculum for several reasons. First of all, Erman and Warren (2000) discovered 58.6% of multiword units in spoken English discourse and 52.3% in written counterpart. This is also consistent with Carter, McCarthy, Mark, and O'keeffe (2011), who reported on a large number of collocating words existing in all languages. Another major reason is that collocations allow learners to process L2 more easily and efficiently. Willis (2003) maintained that, unlike native speakers, who constantly recognize multiword units, e.g. collocations, and use language naturally at high speed, non-native speakers often process L2 word-by word due to a shortage of ready-made chunks or collocations in vocabulary. In other words, as noted by Pawley and Syder (1983), the use of stored multiword units like collocations leads to native-like fluency and accuracy.

D. Previous Relevant Studies on L2 English Collocation Acquisition

Many past research studies have indicated that English learners employ certain learning strategies in their acquisition of English collocations. The most frequent strategy on which they depend concerns first language (L1) transfer. As stated by Swan (1997), learners' L2 vocabulary learning is often influenced by their native language since they compensate for a lack of L2 lexical knowledge. A lot of research findings lent support to Swan's claim. However, transfer from native language can result in an unpleasant or incorrect use of vocabulary in the target language.

Bahns and Eldaw (1993) revealed that L1 influence was present in the interlanguage of German learners of English. Asked to translate sentences from German into English, the participants heavily relied upon their mother tongue, producing L2 combinations that reflected L1 traces, although resorting to L1 could occasionally become effective where L2 collocations have L1 equivalents. Nesselhauf (2003), in a similar vein, accorded with Bahns and Eldaw (1993) in that influence from L1 German was highly noticeable in their collocation use. Such L1 transfer was often a cause of interlingual errors in the target language when collocations in L1 and L2 are non-congruent. Her view is that teachers are expected to highlight non-congruent collocations between L1 and L2 in their lessons in order that this should prevent students from creating L1-based unacceptable English collocational patterns.

Koya (2003), measuring 93 Japanese learners of English's receptive and productive knowledge of English collocations, focused on the use of noun-verb collocations. According to the study, although it was hypothesized that the low-proficiency learners were likely to resort to L1 collocational knowledge, it turned out to be opposite since the learners with high proficiency rather than the low-proficiency ones apparently relied on L1 collocations, especially in their production. Those whose proficiency was lower seemed to apply an avoidance strategy, refraining from giving any answer to almost all the questions which have no direct translation from L1 Japanese.

Boonyasquan (2006) examined Thai EFL learners' collocational violations in translating a Thai business article into English. The participants were recruited from 32 fourth-year English majors from a university in Bangkok. The scope of the study was eight patterns of collocations: adjective + noun, verb + noun, noun + noun, verb + adverb/ adverb + verb, adverb + adjective, noun + verb, verb + preposition, and preposition + noun. The highest frequency of collocational violations fell on the adjective + noun pattern (21.31%). The analysis of the violations indicated that the influence from the learners' native language was one of the most common sources of errors. An example of interference errors given by the researcher is *expensive price, which is probably derived from direct translation from the Thai combination of raakhaa 'price' and pæeŋ 'expensive'.

Strong evidence of L1 influence on L2 English collocation use was given by Laufer and Waldman (2011)'s study, in which Hebrew learners of English at three proficiency levels produced collocations indicative of native language

transfer. More specifically, the study revealed that approximately half of deviant collocations seemed to stem from L1 influence, and these errors did not tend to decline over time. It was likely that the learners, in contrast to native English speakers, construct messages from individual words rather than from prefabricated units or formulaic sequences, depending on L1 transfer and having tendency to ignore restrictions on word combinations.

Another research study that looked at EFL learners' use of English collocations is Phoocharoensil (2011). In the study, the data were elicited from Thai EFL undergraduate students' descriptive essays. It was revealed that lexical collocations posed more serious problems for the students than did grammatical ones. More specifically, among all the lexical collocation types, the verb-noun combinations appeared to be the most difficult for both upper-intermediate and lower-intermediate learners. The most problematic kind of grammatical collocations, as suggested by the upper-intermediate learners' writing, was verb-preposition and preposition-noun collocations, while those with the lower-intermediate level were evidently most troubled with verb-preposition collocations. With respect to the sources of errors, the students produced L2 English collocations using L1 transfer as the most common learning strategy, which resulted in deviations, such as preposition omission, preposition insertion, and incorrect choice of preposition.

Interference from learners' L1 was also clearly seen in collocational errors in Iranian postgraduate students' academic writings, as shown by Namvar, Nor, Ibrahim, and Mustafa (2012). The study found that L1 Persian caused the participants to erroneously use English collocations. Apart from L1 transfer, L1-L2 cultural differences evidently played a part in collocation difficulty they were faced with.

Another learning strategy frequently adopted in L2 collocation acquisition is associated with synonymy, i.e. a type of an analogy made by learners having limited L2 collocational ability or low exposure to the target language collocations. According to Biber, Conrad, and Reppen (1998, p.43), synonyms are typically used in different ways. That is to say, despite sharing a similar meaning, synonyms cannot be always used interchangeably in all contexts. Synonyms in English, in particular, can also be distinguished by looking at which lexical collocates are possible for which particular synonymous word. In other words, with regard to making a distinction between synonyms, "it is often how the words collocate with other words that can show up differences." (McCarthy, O'Keeffe, and Walsh, 2010, p. 32). For instance, according to the 50-million-word sample of the Bank of English corpus, which is made up of English magazines, even though the synonyms strong and powerful can be interchangeable in some collocations, e.g. strong/ power leader, strong/ power voice, or strong/powerful argument, etc., they cannot be substituted for each other in some others, e.g. strong views (but not *powerful views), or powerful computer (but not *strong computer) (McCarthy, O'Keeffe, and Walsh, 2010).

It should be clear that word choice is heavily constrained by what comes before or after in the context, i.e. collocation. As noted by Thornbury (2002, p. 7), "Even the slightest adjustments to the collocations – by substituting one of its components for a near synonym... – turns the text into non-standard English".

Many studies in L2 acquisition of English collocations have shown that synonymy is often used as a common learning strategy. In Farghal and Obiedat (1995), the use of synonyms by Arabic EFL learners was examined. It was revealed that the learners heavily relied on the open choice principle for word selection, substituting a synonym for a word, which often led to deviant and ungrammatical collocations in English. In a similar vein, Howarth (1996, 1998) has demonstrated that analogy such as using synonyms can be regarded as a form of intralingual L2 transfer. Learners are very productive when they count on analogy. Nonetheless, this strategy sometimes causes them to produce erroneous collocations, e.g. *adopt ways, which was possibly produced by analogy with adopt an approach (Howarth, 1998, p. 41).

Furthermore, Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah (2001) discovered assumed synonymy in the use of English collocations by Arabic speakers. In this research, owing to the nature of the instructional input which the learners received at school and the impact of bilingual dictionaries, the participants' collocation production based on replacing a word with a synonym or a near synonym that does not conform to the existing collocates seemed to be unacceptable, violating the selectional restrictions in L2. For instance, they used the verb failed as opposed to defeated in the sentence *The enemy was failed in the battle, causing a semantically ill-formed construction. Zughoul and Abdul-Fattah's (2001) discovery of synonymy as a strategy to learn collocations is consistent with Zughoul (1991), who has found that learners, when translating from Arabic to English, seemed to be greatly dependent on bilingual dictionaries which merely give a list of synonyms with no sample sentences or explanations for their different uses. Thus, this may account for the fact that learners may write *a qualified hotel instead of a quality hotel (Zughoul, 1991), as cited in Boonyasquan (2006, p. 83), assuming that the adjectives qualified and quality can be used interchangeably in every context.

Another study that reported on synonymy as a major cause of collocational errors is Guo (2009). The participants of this study, i.e. Taiwanese EFL learners who majored in English, failed to observe the collocability of some English synonyms, producing miscollocations, e.g. *receive an opinion, as opposed to the target-like combination accept an opinion.

As shown in a corpus-based study of written Malaysian English by Hong, Rahim, Hua, and Salehuddin (2011), in a similar way, Malaysian ESL students committed errors in verb-noun English collocations, relying on the synonymy strategy. The application of the learning strategy perhaps results from the learners' faulty comprehension of word distinctions in L2. That is, the students apparently used near-synonymous words interchangeably regardless of the collocability and contexts in which these words can occur. The confusion over English synonym use probably

contributes to the incorrect collocations.

As for research investigating Thai EFL learners' collocational knowledge, Boonyasaquan (2006) has found that Thai learners, in translating a business news article from Thai to English, incorrectly applied the strategy of synonymy, equal to 8.62% of all the possible sources of collocational violations. Another study that lent support to Boonyasaquan (2006) in terms of synonymy is Mongkolchai (2008). According to Mongkolchai (2008), the participants committed collocational errors when they applied the strategy of synonymy. For instance, a noun + noun combination such as *a newspaper booth was supplied in their translation, despite the fact that a newspaper kiosk instead has been found in native speakers' corpora. In addition, Thai undergraduate students in Phoocharoensil (2011)' study were also found to adopt synonymy by inappropriately replacing a word with its synonym that does not fit in the context of use. For instance, they used peaceable when peaceful was probably intended.

In the following section, the research method used in the current study is comprehensively described.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Population and Sample

The population of the current research study was first-year undergraduate Thai students at Thammasat University. As regards sampling, stratified random sampling was used to obtain 90 Thai EFL learners from different faculties to participate in the study. They were divided into two groups of 45: high (H) and low (L), according to their English proficiency. The participants, recruited from various faculties, were taking an English foundation course in the second semester of Academic Year 2010. The 45 high-proficiency learners registered for English Course 3 (EL 172), whereas the other 45 with lower proficiency took English Course 2 (EL 171). Each group was assigned by Thammasat Registration Office to a separate section. Such a section assignment has enabled the researcher to randomly choose to teach and collect data from any two groups of different proficiency levels.

In terms of subject classification, the learners were assigned to two different English courses based on the O-NET scores. The O-NET is the University Entrance Exam endorsed by the Ministry of Education of Thailand to assess 12th-graders English competency. This test, launched in 2006, is recognized as a standardized test designed and validated by scholars from National Institute of Educational Testing Service (N-IETS) of Thailand (www.niets.or.th). The participants whose O-NET scores ranged from 69 to 80 were assigned to EL 172 and thus regarded as high-proficiency learners. In contrast, those whose scores were between 32 and 56 registered for EL 171 and they were classified as low-proficiency learners.

The participants' mother tongue was Thai, and they had learned English as a foreign language for at least 12 years. Those who studied in an international secondary school, who were bilingual, or who stayed in an English-speaking country for more than three consecutive months were excluded from the present study because their high English proficiency may not truly reflect the interlanguage of Thai EFL learners in general.

B. Research Instruments

As the present study was aimed at investigating Thai learners' written production of English collocations, the research tool selected is a descriptive essay. This particular kind of essay, compared to other categories, has been shown to contain a wealth of modifications usually formed by word combinations (Langan, 2009). For this reason, it is a descriptive essay that is the most likely to elicit various types of collocations, e.g. adjective + noun, noun + verb, verb + noun, verb + preposition, preposition + noun, etc.

Another reason why a descriptive essay was employed for the data elicitation lies in the fact that it is expected to reflect the way learners really use collocations in English since they would not be forced to produce word combinations, unlike when they perform some other tasks, e.g. a gap-filling test, a cloze test, an error-correction test, or a translation task, which are relatively controlled in nature.

With respect to the learners' knowledge of English writing, all first-year university students are supposed to have had at least some basic paragraph-writing skill from the secondary level as writing has been incorporated into the secondary-school English curriculum since 2008 (www.moe.go.th). This means the participants should know what a good-quality English paragraph looks like.

In the process of data collection, the learners were asked to write the essay in class within 60 minutes. They were also informed that their work would not be graded according to grammatical correctness. In other words, they should feel free to naturally produce the written task which represents their actual collocational competence.

C. Data Collection

The data collection was carried out in two phases:

(1) Regarding the participant recruitment, 90 first-year undergraduate students from different faculties at Thammasat University were randomly selected and assigned to two proficiency groups based on their O-NET scores, as mentioned earlier.

(2) Each of the participants was asked to write a 200-word descriptive essay on a topic which was considered easy and possible for them to discuss in writing. Each of the essays was supposed to comprise an introductory paragraph, two or more body paragraphs, and a concluding paragraph. The writing process took place within 60 minutes in a classroom

setting, where the learners were not permitted to consult any kind of references. Neither were they allowed to ask the teacher for any advice on language use, e.g. grammar, vocabulary, etc. However, because the students were aware that their written task would not be assessed on the basis of grammatical correctness, the end products should represent their genuine ability to use English collocations.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Causes of Collocational Problems

As clearly shown in the collocations used by both groups of participants, two major learning strategies in connection with cognitive processes were employed (Selinker, 1992) were employed, unfortunately often causing unacceptable combinations in the target language. The strategy adopted by most participants in collocation learning was L1 transfer, followed by synonymy

Native language transfer

The data indicated that Thai EFL students often depended upon collocational patterns in L1, thus frequently transferring an equivalent from Thai to English. Unfortunately, where collocational incongruence between Thai and English exists, errors usually result. The first type of error related to L1 influence concerns preposition use. The learners omitted a preposition after a verb or a preposition, perhaps resulting from literal translation from L1 Thai. as in (1)-(3).

- (1)* I will *wait her* at my house.
- (2)* She *lied me* many time, so I would not believe her anymore.
- (3)* He was suddenly *angry me* when he knew the truth.

The error in (1) occurs due to the fact that the English verb *wait*, always subcategorizing for the preposition *for*, cannot be followed by a noun or pronoun, e.g. *her*, while its equivalent in Thai, or รอ 'wait', requires a direct object (Panthumetha, 1982). In a similar way, the verb *lied* in (2), grammatically speaking, needs the following preposition *to* instead of an object like *me* in (2). The students might have transferred from L1 Thai syntactic knowledge in which *kohòk* 'lie' is a transitive verb, which normally occurs right before a direct object. Furthermore, an omission of an obligatory preposition was also discovered in Thai EFL learners' collocations when the adjective *angry* was used immediately before the object pronoun *me* in (3), which leads to ungrammaticality in L2 English. To rectify this error, the preposition *with* needs to be added after *angry*. In fact, *krot* 'angry' in L1 Thai can be followed by a noun or noun phrase, which may influence Thai learners to ignore the fact that there, in English, should be a preposition like *with* after *angry*.

The subjects of the study, in addition, added an unnecessary preposition to a verb. This type of deviation arises when a verb in Thai needs to precede a prepositional phrase, while its English counterpart requires a direct object. The discrepancy as such may result in the learners' preposition addition in L2 English, as in (4) below.

- (4)* His laziness *affected to* his final grades.

The verb-preposition combination of *affected to* in (4) may also stem from L1 Thai influence. That is, the verb *sònpòñ* 'affect' in Thai often precedes the preposition *tòt* 'to', which was probably why some Thai learners inserted the preposition *to* right after this verb.

Another kind of interlingual collocational error regarding preposition use deals with an incorrect choice of preposition, as can be seen in (5)-(6)

- (5)* Our friends really loved the new teacher. *In the other hand*, Pom showed his bad attitude to her.
- (6)* *In the same time*, my sister was cooking our breakfast.

The problems in (5) and (6) are associated with wrong choices of preposition. In particular, the preposition *in* in (5), rather than *on*, was used to mistakenly construct the transitional expression *In the other hand*. It is probable that the students literally translated from the Thai phrase *nai ik hēē nēn*, where *nai* 'in' has been transferred to the problematic L2 English combination. Similar to (5), the erroneous combination in (6) results from the misuse of *in*, as opposed to *at*, due to the fact that the learners probably depended on the L1 Thai collocational pattern *nai wee laa diəw kan* 'at the same time'.

- (7)* The new room we will move *stays at* Khlong Song.

In addition to the aforementioned errors on prepositions, Thai EFL learners apparently relied on L1 transfer in noun-verb collocation production. In (7), the unnatural noun + verb chunk is clearly similar to a corresponding construction in L1 Thai. To be more precise, in Thai, when a place is being referred to, the verb *yù* 'stay or live' often co-occurs with the preposition *thī* 'at', as in *yù thī* 'be located at/in' (Phoocharoensil, 2011). Thai students, particularly those with inadequate English proficiency, are likely to transfer such a verb phrase in Thai to L2 English, thereby constructing a mis-collocation.

- (8)* He *plays cellphone* even in classroom.

The collocational deviations in (9) should also stem from L1 transfer. In Thai, using the verb *lên* 'play' with words like *torasàp* 'telephone', *intənēt* 'the Internet' and *khompýwtâ* 'computer' is common (Phoocharoensil, 2011). This may be a reason why Thai EFL students with limited L2 English competence created the erroneous combination *play*

cellphone, which appeared to result from L1 transfer.

In summary, L1 influence is evidently the most common strategy on which Thai students rely in collocation production in L2 English. Thai EFL learners often resort to L1 collocational patterns when they cannot find the appropriate content words, i.e. nouns, verbs, and adjectives, or function words, e.g. preposition, in the target language (Phoocharoensil, 2011, 2013). Transfer from learners' mother tongue often results in collocational deviations in the target language. The study also reveals that not only do students with limited L2 competency level are influenced by L1 collocational patterns, but also the students with high-proficiency also used English collocations based on L1 collocational counterparts. This provides support for Koya (2003), who surprisingly discovered that even high-proficiency Japanese EFL learners were inclined to depend upon native language in finding collocations for L2.

The fact that L1-Thai speakers transferred collocations from L1 Thai to L2 English, as indicated by the present-study results, gives support to past studies on second language acquisition of L2 English collocations (e.g. Bahn and Eldaw, 1993; Boonyasquan, 2006; Koya, 2003; Laufer and Waldman, 2011; Phoocharoensil, 2011, 2013; Mongkolchai, 2008)

In the next part, synonymy, i.e., another collocation-learning strategy which the participants employed, is discussed in detail.

Synonymy

The Thai students in the present study evidently used synonymy in English collocation learning. Simply put, they appeared to replace a word with another having a similar meaning. Although doing so may sometimes be successful, most studies reveal a drawback of such a strategy (e.g. Boonyasquan, 2006; Howarth, 1996; 1998; Mongkolchai, 2008).

As shown in the data, the participants relied on synonymy as a strategy for using collocations in English. In particular, this learning strategy was employed more in lexical collocations than in grammatical counterparts, which found support for Phoocharoensil (2011). (9)-(11) below illustrate lexical errors caused by synonymy.

(9) * They will try every way to *reach their goal* in the end.

(10) * The *cost* of all the ingredients will *reduce* by more than 50%.

(11) * Mei asked me to *reply the phone* for her because she didn't want to hear her boyfriend's voice.

The erroneous combination *reach their goal* in (9) seems to stem from Thai EFL learners' application of synonymy strategy. In other words, while it is possible for *reach one's target*, it sounds inappropriate to use *reach one's goal* (McCarthy and O'Dell, 2008) despite the fact that *target* and *goal* are synonyms. The restriction on word choice to constitute native-like collocation in English is apparently arbitrary. This may explain why even high-proficiency learners, like those in the present study, were found to become easily confused over when to use or not to use which word, thus ending up substituting a synonym for a vocabulary item, which leads to an erroneous L2 collocational pattern.

In (10), the participants, it is very likely, misused the verb *reduce* due to some confusion caused by different uses of English synonyms. According to Longman dictionary of contemporary English (2009), *reduce* is a transitive verb, which must be followed by a direct object. On the other hand, other synonyms of *reduce* like *decrease* or *decline* do not have the same usage. They, in other words, are usually used as intransitive verbs, not requiring any following object. It is evident that although *reduce*, *decrease*, and *decline* are similar in certain semantic aspects, they differ in syntactic patterns. Actually the error in (10) apparently stems from the use of *reduce* as if it were functioning as an intransitive verb, whereas more appropriate intransitive verbs in this context should be *decrease* or *decline*.

The source of error in (11) also pertains to a synonymy strategy. That is to say, the verb-noun collocation *reply the phone* does not appear to suitably construct a collocation in English. Even though *answer* and *reply* are semantically related in some respects, they cannot be used interchangeably in all contexts. To be more specific, it is undeniable that the verb *answer* collocates perfectly with the following noun *phone*, whilst *reply* does not. Instead, the verb phrase *reply to* often co-occurs with words, such as *letter*, *term*, *plea*, *debate*, *person*, etc., as indicated by British National Corpus (BNC) data.

Apart from the use of synonymy in learning English lexical collocations, this strategy seemed to be applied in grammatical collocation production, as seen in (12).

(12) * We gave the present *for* our teacher.

The occurrence of the preposition *for* in (12) does not form a target-like collocation with the verb *gave*. In actuality, the verb *give* requires an object noun phrase and a prepositional phrase introduced by *to*, as in *give something to someone* (Longman dictionary of contemporary English, 2009, p. 738). Presumably, the non-target like lexical chunk in (12) may be caused by learners' lack of knowledge on the appropriate use of the synonyms *give* and *provide*. Whilst *give* should be used with the preposition *to*, *provide* often occurs in the pattern *provide something for someone*. Such a difference in terms of preposition use may explain why EFL learners easily become confused about the usage of the two verbs.

The application of synonymy by Thai EFL learners rely is consistent with many past studies on English collocation learning (e.g. Howarth, 1996, 1998; Zughol and Abdul-Fattah, 2001). The results accord with the past studies on Thai learners as well (e.g. Boonyasquan, 2006; Mongkolchai, 2008; Phoocharoensil, 2011, 2013), which reported on collocational deviations resulting from synonymy.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this research study pinpoint the collocational problems arising from Thai EFL learners' application of certain learning strategies. Not only do such strategies contribute to Thai students' problems, but also other EFL learners speaking other L1s frequently suffer from similar difficulty of English collocation acquisition, as these strategies have been apparently widely adopted across EFL learners as well (e.g. Farghal and Obiedat, 1995; Howarth, 1996, 1998; Nesselhauf, 2003, 2005; Mongkolchai, 2008). For this reason, EFL teachers may find the results of this study useful, and they are advised to highlight the notion of collocation in vocabulary classrooms, as "this is globally accepted as an essential element in EFL vocabulary curricula" (Nation, 2008, as cited in Phoocharoensil, 2013).

More importantly, teachers can also help prevent students from inappropriately applying strategies with regard to collocation learning. For instance, teachers may clearly compare and contrast different usages of some sample pairs of synonyms, making it a point to them that words being semantically close are hardly interchangeable in all contexts. Moreover, teachers whose L1 is the same as the students', e.g. Thai, should provide a list of common English L2 collocations that differ from L1 counterparts, which could, to a certain extent, help learners become aware of a mismatch between collocations in both languages (Nesselhauf, 2003, as cited in Phoocharoensil, 2013). Put differently, it is necessary for learners to know that dependence on L1 collocational knowledge can result in collocational deviations in L2. As Nation (2008, p. 121) claimed, a L2 multi-word unit that does not have an L1 equivalent has "to be met and remembered", whereas teachers do not seem to emphasize deliberate collocation learning and teaching where a perfect match between L1 and L2 collocational patterns exists. Likewise, an explicit explanation of L1-L2 differences for certain collocations and even translating such collocations when necessary sometimes yields a more pleasant result than other teaching methods that ignore the cross-linguistic differences (Phoocharoensil, 2013).

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Supakorn Phoocharoensil is an Assistant Professor at Language Institute of Thammasat University. His areas of research specialization include second language acquisition of English lexis and syntax, interlanguage pragmatics, and corpus linguistics. He had his research articles published in a number of international peer-reviewed journals, e.g. *The Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, *Hong Kong Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, *The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, *The International Journal of Learning*, etc.

On Translation Quality of Mongolian Intangible Cultural Heritages: The Mausoleum of Genghis Khan as a Case Study*

Jinyu Liu

Inner Mongolia University, Hohhot, 010021, China

Meiling Wen

Inner Mongolia University, Hohhot, 010021, China

Abstract—With the globalization of tourist industry, cultural and historical heritages are seen as the basic tourism resources. The quality of English translation of those resources plays an important role in valid cultural exchanges and boom of tourism industry. Mongolian cultural heritage presents a rich cultural resource and unique tourism value. Quite often it contains many terms and notions with specialized connotation which are rather difficult for target readers to comprehend and interpret. This paper takes the Mausoleum of Genghis Khan as a case study to analyze the translations of specific cultural words and sentences. Based on the current translation problems arising from the practical English translation of the materials about the Mausoleum, it aims to put forward some suggestions and to explore the effective translation strategies to further improve translation quality.

Index Terms—cultural heritage, foreign publicity, translation strategies and methods, the Mausoleum of Genghis Khan

I. INTRODUCTION

The swift and violent development of globalization and modernization has stimulated rapid development of tourism industry and has improved contemporary self-consciousness urging people to care about historical and cultural heritage. Ethnical historical and cultural heritage enjoys a long splendid history in China, with tight spirit and harmonious relationships. In 2011, the Publicity Office of the CPC Central Committee, Minister of the State Council Information Office and National Tourism Administration signed an agreement which emphasized the necessity that foreign publicity promotes tourism while tourism deepens development of foreign publicity. As the essential medium and bridge of foreign publicity, the Chinese—English translation is very important.

Inner Mongolia pushes its tourism industry in a broad way, and attracts visitors from all over the world with its natural beauty, typical regional customs and unique national characteristics. According to the data from Inner Mongolia Tourism Administration, during the Eleventh Five-Year Plan period, Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region has received more than 6.99 million tourists from overseas, up by 7.35% per year, and foreign exchange earnings from tourism has topped 2.186 billion. The number of overseas visitors increases unceasingly every year, however, owing to insufficient foreign publicity on tourism, and lack of recognition of the importance of Chinese—English translation in the process of tourism publicity, Inner Mongolia's whole image is faint and lacks of brand effect. Therefore, improving the translation level of tourism material is inevitable to drive Inner Mongolia's tourism development. The Mausoleum of Genghis Khan is a place worshiped by the whole Mongolians. It is a grassland culture tour sight and is an important national cultural relic unit. It is also one of the Top-Forty Tour Sights of China, one of the Top-Hundred Patriotism Education Base and one of the national 5A-level beauty spots. This paper will take Genghis Khan's Mausoleum as an example to study the C—E translation of national historical and cultural heritage.

The paper begins with a review, which includes the significance and research status of C-E translation of national historical and cultural heritage publicity, and then introduces language characteristics and style differences between Chinese and English publicity materials. After that, the author will analyze the translation of tourism materials of the Mausoleum of Genghis Khan and discuss translation strategies, such as addition, omission, combination and division, the combination of transliteration and semantic translation; and also investigate shortcomings of its translation, such as spelling mistakes, grammar errors, mistranslation, *pinyin* translation without annotation, and so on. The last part is about suggestions for improving the quality of tourism translation.

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II. THE CURRENT STATUS AND SIGNIFICANCE OF TRANSLATION OF CULTURAL HERITAGE PUBLICITY

Tourism plays a positive role in the national economy. With the development of economic globalization, international tourism develops very fast. Cultural heritage as the most important tourism resource is the symbol of the history of all nationalities in China, and it is the base for sustainable development of tourism. Therefore, the foreign publicity of cultural heritage is a key factor in promoting the development of tourism globalization. At the same time, the combination of the publicity and tourism development can protect cultural heritage and express the unique charm and human values (Zheng, 2013, p.181). As an important means of foreign publicity, translation is playing an important role in improving cultural exchanges and in protecting cultural diversity. Therefore, we must pay close attention to the English translation of national historical and cultural heritage.

In order to spread unique ethnic culture and promote tourism development in the international market, Inner Mongolia has sent delegations to take part in the World Travel Market conferences with well-prepared travelling products with special Mongolian features, and with Inner Mongolia tourism documents and pictures to communicate with foreign exhibitors and travel agencies. In 2011, Inner Mongolia sent delegators to attend the World Heritage Travel Expo. During the exhibition, the delegators shared brochures and video clips of Mongolian cultural heritages to the world. By making full use of the platform of international tourism exhibition, Inner Mongolia has attracted a lot of foreign tourists and experts to travel and investigate. In this process, intercultural communication can't exist without translation. Effective and accurate transformation of the charm of unique ethnic culture can't happen without high quality English translation materials. Unfortunately, Inner Mongolia should give more focus on recognition and practice of translating cultural heritage. According to the investigation, till now Inner Mongolia has very few relevant published translation materials about the historical and cultural heritage publicity.

There are many problems in existing C—E translation of cultural heritage publicity. The translation material about Mausoleum of Genghis Khan, for example, is quite limited. So this paper aims to focus on the translation material collected from scenic spots and the Mausoleum's official website. The critical problem of the English translation is superficial translation of the information and the neglect of the implied cultural connotation. Some translations wrongly render words and terms of the ethnical source texts which definitely leads to mistranslation. And some translations are redundant with. Eventually, these problems will lower the readability of English translations and undermine the effect of foreign publicity of cultural heritage.

Language Characteristics and Style Differences Between Chinese and English Publicity Materials

Both the Chinese and the English language are different in cultural backgrounds, concepts of values and thinking modes. They are also different not only in words formation, sentence structures, and discourses, but also in language styles. For Chinese, people often choose rhetorical devices, idioms, and various figures of speech to perfect the expression of the language. While for English, it emphasizes strict logic s, refined expressions but simple literary forms. One of the usual mistakes in foreign publicity translation of intangible culture, it often uses many modification to make exaggerating atmosphere and displays the beauty of the language. For example:

(1) 成吉思汗祭祀形式独特，内容丰富，内涵深刻，是蒙古民族文化之源头和结晶。成吉思汗陵，是蒙古民族历史文化的摇篮，祖国民族优秀文化瑰宝，人类珍贵的文化遗产。

Tr: Genghis Khan's sacrificial ceremony, which is unique in form, variety in content and rich in connotation, reveals the source of Mongol culture. Not only is Genghis Khan's Mausoleum a holy cordial of Mongolian culture, but it is also a valuable cultural treasure of nation and peculiar cultural heritage of mankind.

In the Chinese version, there are metaphors “结晶” “摇篮” “瑰宝” to modify the important meanings and position of Genghis Khan's sacrificial ceremony and Genghis Khan's Mausoleum. But in the English text, it omits the translation of “crystal” and “cradle”, on the contrary, directly translated as “the source of Mongol culture” and “a holy cordial of Mongolian culture”. Besides, the English text is highly structured, “a holy cordial of Mongolian culture”, “a valuable cultural treasure of nation” and “peculiar cultural heritage of mankind”. The structure is symmetrical in form and embodies the aesthetic function of English language.

The Chinese and the English language are different in language characteristics and styles, therefore, in C—E translation of foreign publicity, translators should take full account of language differences, and use some translation strategies to adjust the target text on the premise that it won't change the meaning of source text. Such adjustments will ensure the translation to conform more to the English expression style and be closer to the target reader thinking habits. What's more, the translation provides easy access to the publicity content and achieves desired effect of foreign publicity (Yuan, 2005, p.76).

In the light of Chinese style, the current translation is hard for target readers to understand the original meaning and fail to reach purpose and effect of foreign publicity. Therefore, in those C—E translations, translators are better to follow the principles below to tackle language differences and make translations easier for target readers to accept.

(1) Help target readers acquire information quickly and accurately as the primary goal (Shi, 2012, p.135).

One of the objectives of foreign publicity is to let foreign readers absorb the essence of the source text in the shortest period of time, which requires the translation is concise and comprehensive to provide accurate information. If the translation is excessively modified, it will let some foreign readers lose interest in continuing reading because it is hard to understand. So the priority is to draw the readers' eyes to the translation.

(2) Give full consideration to target reader's aesthetic habits and earn their recognition (Shi, 2012, p.135).

The Chinese language is accustomed to using high-sounding words and is good at flowery expressions, neat and balanced forms and cadence sentence structures, while the English language focuses on rigorous logics, compact structures and precise expressions. The translation in strict accordance with Chinese style seems to be flashy without substance, and gives an inaccurate and exaggerated impression, which doesn't conform to foreign readers' aesthetic value-orientation, and makes foreign readers doubt publicity information's reliability and is unable to get their recognition.

III. ANALYSIS AND SUGGESTION OF TRANSLATION PROBLEMS

Based on the careful study and analysis, the author discovers that the translation of publicity materials of Genghis Khan's Mausoleum not only embodies the fundamental principles and function of translation, but also spreads Chinese minority culture with simple and plain language. At the same time, some translation problems can be divided into the following categories: spelling mistakes, grammatical errors, mistranslation, transliteration without annotation and redundancy.

A. Spelling Mistakes

The common spelling mistakes include misspelling, letter missing, and misusing capital letters and small letters. And these mistakes show that the translator is careless and the relevant supervision from institutions is rather ineffective.

1. Misspelling

TT16. With continually enlarging and remedy the Genghis Khan Mausoleum became a famous spot of history and culture showing the majestic appearance.

ST16. 作为著名的历史文化景点，成吉思汗陵经过不断地扩建和重修展现出了雄伟的外观。

In this sentence, we can easily finger out that "continuesly" is wrong spelled instead of "continuously".

TT17. The five -color is symbol of the various ethnic groups commanded under Genghis Khan.

ST17. 五种颜色象征着成吉思汗掌管下的不同族群。

In TT17, Genghis Khan is wrongly spelled as "Genghis Khan", and the same misspelling appears in the second part of the official website—"Historical Vicissitude".

There are also many misspelling words, such as "milk barral", "vise chairman", "standerd", etc.

2. Letter Missing

TT18. Genghis Khan is the highst God worshipped by Mongolians.

ST18. 成吉思汗是蒙古族人民心中最伟大的神。

In TT18, the word "highst" should be "highest", which loses letter "e" in the middle.

TT19. Worshipping palace was built for him and the Ordos people were assigned as guard and take responsibility for sacrifice from then on.

ST19. 蒙古族人民为了纪念成吉思汗修建了这座陵宫，鄂尔多斯人民从修建之初成为成吉思汗陵的守护者，并承担祭祀的重任。

In TT19, the word "resposibility" misses the letter "n", and it should be "responsibility".

3. Misusing the Capital Letters and Small Letters

TT20. The five lucky colors of the hada presented to Genghis Khan.

ST20. 向成吉思汗呈现的哈达有象征吉祥的五种不同的颜色。

TT21. Management Committee Of Genghis Khan

ST21. 成吉思汗陵管理委员会

In TT20, "Hada" here is a proper noun, so the first letter should be capitalized as Hada or translated as Khata. And TT21 is the title of the fifth part of its official website, and it is well known that the first letter of preposition in the title shouldn't be capitalized, so "Of" should be corrected as "of".

B. Grammatical Errors

Grammatical errors include lacking of articles or misusing of articles, lacking of conjunctions, voice and speech errors.

1. Misuse of Articles

TT22. The Management Committee of Genghis Khan Tourist Site handles official affairs jointly with the Genghis Khan Administration Bureau, which is a agency of Ordos government.

ST22. 成吉思汗陵旅游区管理委员会与鄂尔多斯政府的成吉思汗陵园管理局共同管理成吉思汗陵的管理事务。

It is generally known that article "an" should be used before the vowels. So an article "as" should be added before the word "agency" instead of the word "a".

2. Lack of Conjunction

TT23. The Mausoleum of Genghis Khan was authorized by the State Department as the second key historical sites, it is also one of the 40 bests of Chinese places of interests.

ST23. 成吉思汗陵是国务院授予的重点文物保护单位，中国旅游胜地四十佳。

It is a rule that if a sentence consists of two clauses, the second one should be connected by a conjunction or a relative. TT23 consists of two clauses, so the linking word like “and” or “then” should be added.

3. Voice Errors

TT24. In about 1170, his father was kill with poison by Tatar tribe.

ST24. 大约 1170 年，成吉思汗的父亲被塔塔尔部落毒杀。

From the above example, the meaning is to show us that Tatar tribe killed Genghis Khan's father, so when “his father” is used as subject, the predicate should use a passive voice rather than an active voice. Therefore, this sentence should be corrected as “His father was killed with poison by Tatar tribe”.

4. Speech Errors

TT25. The trade between east and west after the conquer to the west brought Chinese culture to Europe, brought them prosperous.

ST25. 征战西方国家之后，中西交流将中国文化带到了欧洲促进了当地的繁荣。

In the double object construction, we use a noun or a noun phrase as its direct object. While in TT25, “prosperous” is an adjective, and it should be corrected as the noun form “prosperity”.

C. Mistranslation

TT26. The fantastic main palace shaped as a flying eagle, symbolizing the Genghis Khan's spirits of fearlessness and forthgoing.

ST26. 宏伟的主殿像一只翱翔的雄鹰，象征着成吉思汗震撼山河的气度。

In TT26, “forthgoing” is always used as an adjective word, meaning “friendly” or “forward”. While according to the meaning of context, what is needed here is a synonym of fearlessness to show Genghis Khan's spirit. so we can choose “courageousness” or “bravery” instead.

TT27. On the tool of the sacrifice, the valuable and special scarifying containers are produced, showing the Mongolian people's fondness of nature and animals.

ST27. 独特的祭奠形式和珍贵特别的祭祀器具展现了蒙古族人民对自然和动物的喜爱之情。

In TT27, “Scarifying” is a gerund form of verb “scarify”, and the meaning of “scarify” is “to plow up the soil” or “to criticize”. However, both meanings don't fit the textural meaning. “Sacrifice” is a better choice.

TT28. There is a shining board with the golden letters of "The Mausoleum of Genghis Khan" written by Wulanhu in 1985.

ST28. 牌坊式大门上端悬挂着原国家副主席乌兰夫题写的“成吉思汗陵”石雕牌匾，显得格外庄重。

And in TT28, “Wulanhu” should be corrected as “Ulanhu” based on Mongolian pronunciation.

D. Incorrect Information

TT29. The Mausoleum, which symbolizing Genghis Khan lies in the Gander Oboo in YijinHoro Banner of Ordos City in 109.40E, 39.23S at an altitude of 1350m.

ST29. 成吉思汗陵，坐落在鄂尔多斯市伊金霍洛旗伊金霍洛苏木境内。（东经 109.40 度，北纬 39.23 度，海拔 1 千 350 米）

It is a common sense that Mausoleum of Genghis Khan is a part of China, so there is no doubt that Mausoleum of Genghis Khan is located in the Northern Hemisphere. While “39.23S” stands for 39.23 degrees south. In TT29, it uses 39.23S instead of 39.23N, so it is a basic mistake which be avoided.

ST30. 纳石失大袍

TT30. textured loss robe

In ST30, “纳石失” is a Persian, and it means “gold thread”. It is wrong to translate “纳石失大袍” as “textured loss robe”, but translated as “robe made of gold thread”.

IV. TRANSLATION METHODS RECONSIDERED

According to the differences in Chinese and English language characteristics and styles, in the translation materials of Genghis Khan's Mausoleum, the translator adopted different translation methods to deal with the specific cultural concepts, proper nouns, special terms and professional and complex expressions. And the most frequently used translation methods include addition, omission, combination and division, the combination of transliteration and semantic translation. In the following analysis, the first example in the original text will be marked by ST1, and the translation translated as TT1 correspondingly.

A. Addition

Among various techniques, addition is one of the most commonly used methods and is indispensable to a better result of translation. Addition is to add necessary words in translation to adhere to the faithful representation of the original version. Addition often serves to the translation of the culture-specific words, proper names and technical terms, and it can further explain terms, enhance the coherence of the text, complement the underlying background information, and so on (Zhang & Chen, 2013, p.102)

Firstly, most of foreign tourists don't understand some translation of technical terms and unique expressions. For instance, the ancient dynasty names, reign titles, historical periods, ancient Chinese official titles, historical stories, etc. The translation of such words needs addition to deal with the semantic voids caused by cultural default (Di, 2013, p.56).

Addition adopted in the translation of historical figures can avoid foreigners' misunderstanding and help them know the necessity of mentioning these people here. For example:

ST1. 窝阔台

TT1. Dogged, successor of Genghis ended Jin Dynasty in 1234.

The above case shows that when translating the ancient name, adding some information about this person's achievement or some other relevant information can help foreign tourists better understand this person himself. In TT1, the addition "successor of Genghis ended Jin Dynasty in 1234" helps foreigners to know what the relationship between Ogedei and Genghis Khan. The addition makes foreign readers roughly know whether they need to consult other materials to obtain sufficient knowledge about this person.

The translations of place names as well as the translation of historical figures play an important role in translation practice, communication. For some place names, they shouldn't be translated superficially, but rather determined according to its cultural background and context. And adding some information about geographic position or some relevant background information can help foreign tourists know its importance, otherwise, they will misunderstand as an ordinary place.

ST2. 鄂尔多斯平原

TT2. The Ordos Plateau, surrounded by Yellow River which breeds the race is naturally linked with Genghis Khan who is not only buried here but also brought glorious culture of Mongolians.

ST3. 九十九级台阶

TT3. The blessed stair of ninety-nine stairs "The blessed stair of ninety-nine stairs" is one of the scenic spots of Genghis Khan's Mausoleum).

The added information in TT2 shows us the approximate position of Ordos Plateau and it lets us know that it is associated with Genghis Khan and considered as the holy place by Mongolians. In TT3, the addition shows us that these ninety-nine stairs stand for happiness, affluence and auspiciousness.

Compared with the translation of person names and place names, translation of ancient political systems needs more addition to make them clear to readers. Because some of the names are difficult to understand even for source language readers without enough historical knowledge, let alone the target language readers. And addition can solve this problem somehow; it can help foreigners have a rough idea about what it is and what the main function is. For example:

ST4. 大札萨

TT4. Great Zhasha—the great law

ST5. 成吉思汗实行千户制，打破部落专制制度。

TT5. Genghis Khan carried out the governing system of thousand units and smashed the autarchy system.

In ST4, "大札萨" is a professional term with national characteristics, it is even harder for the Chinese people to now the real meaning behind it. Foreigners who are lack of knowledge about Mongolian history and culture fell puzzled in reading the translation. In TT4, it adds the basic background information "the great law" to help readers know that "大札萨" is the Mongolian's written code of law. In TT5, "千户制" is a unique word of Mongolian word, and it is Mongol khanate's system to unite military with politics. However, its special content is unfamiliar to foreign tourists, so a word-for-word translation (thousand units) is unintelligible. Therefore, we must add some information to make it easier for readers to accept. It can be translated as Mingghan (a Mongol regiment of 1,000 men created by Genghis Khan).

B. Omission

The Chinese language often uses abundant rhetoric devices to describe things vividly, while the English language tends to emphasize concise content, precise structure, accurate information, and natural language. Therefore, it is useful to omit some words or expressions in certain contexts. If the meaning conveyed by a peculiar word or expression is not necessary to be mentioned in understanding the translation, translators use this strategy to avoid lengthy explanations and foreign tourists' auditory and visual fatigue.

The Chinese language often uses many adjectives to modify something, so it makes foreigners confused and fail to catch the main point. On the contrary, omitting some words can help foreigners grasp main point easily and quickly. For example:

ST6. 后来在这里“营造永世坚固的八白室”，成为“全体民众的总神祇”。

TT6. Later the Eternal Eight White Houses were built here and became the head sanctuary for the general citizens ever since.

"Eight White Houses" is another name of Genghis Khan's Mausoleum, and it is majestic and composed of eight white buildings with strong Mongolian style. In TT6, there are two reasons to translate it as "Eternal Eight White House", and leave "solid" out. Firstly, "solid" is the common and necessary property of all the buildings and it is not an exception to Genghis Khan's Mausoleum, so it is not essential. Secondly, the word "eternal" reflects the Mausoleum's quality that it is hard to erode and can remain for a long time. The word "eternal" also emphasizes the Mausoleum's

eternal significance and influence, and shows that it will be cherished by Mongolian people forever. So the omission of “solid” can make translation have rich implication.

If the information of the source language has a long history and many hidden meanings, translators need to think carefully about the message, and whether it needs a long way toward explicating it. And translators should adhere to the principle that keeps the most effective information rather than something useless. For example:

ST7.商更斡尔阁白宫,是成吉思汗八白室之一,原为一座宽敞的宫帐搭在成吉思汗伊金宫帐的旁边。作为八白室的珍藏白宫,主要存放守灵者达尔扈特人出游募化携带的成吉思汗画像,剑,祭灯,银碗等一套祭祀成吉思汗的用品。还保存着金银,珠宝祭皿及蒙古民族的历史文献和祭奠成吉思汗的各种有关书籍,其中主要有“白史”,“红史”,“黄史”,“金册”等。

TT7. Shang Gen Wu Erger White Chamber means collection chamber in Chinese. It is one of the Ba Bai Shi (the eight white chambers) which mainly keeps sacrificial articles and document of Genghis Khan and so on (The Brochure of Genghis Khan's Mausoleum, Page 2).

ST8.每逢农历三月二十一,成吉思汗春季大祭奠天仪式就在这里举行。这里立有成吉思汗金马桩和巴图吉勒(系马练绳)。每逢春季查干苏鲁克大祭期间,供奉成吉思汗神马,并系有九十九匹白骡马和马驹,以白骡马之乳祭祀苍天。

TT8. Genghis Khan's Spring Ceremony of worshiping heavens is held in March, 21st in lunar calendar every year. Genghis Khan's golden horse peg is placed there. This is also the place where Genghis Khan's holy horses are worshiped (The Brochure of Genghis Khan's Mausoleum, p. 4).

In TT7, the translation omits the respective translations of portraits, swords, lamps and silver bowls, because they belong to the sacrifices. And “白史, 红史, 黄史” all belong to the Mongolian history documents, so it is not necessary to itemize them one by one. And each of them contains cultural information, so it will take up too much space to explain clearly one by one. Therefore, omission used here is a more appropriate method. In TT8, the description of latter part of the original sentence just wants to say that those horses fighting alongside Genghis Khan in the battle field are holy and worshiped. And Cha Gan Su Lu Ke Sacrificial Ceremony is the same as the previously mentioned: Genghis Khan's Spring Ceremony of worshiping heaven. So omission used here can avoid redundancy.

The Chinese tourism text usually has different rhetorical devices, like metaphor, simile, hyperbole and personification, while these rhetorical devices carry little information. Comparing with it, foreign tourists like the text in concise language with well-organized structure. Therefore, on the premise of conveying the source cultural message correctly, English version often omits lengthy content which is useless for the understanding. For example:

ST9.成吉思汗陵园门牌楼,是进入成吉思汗陵园的标志。乳白的颜色,是纯洁的象征,吉祥的祝福,像一条洁白的哈达,欢迎远方的客人,祝福人们吉祥安康。牌坊式大门上端悬挂着原国家副主席乌兰夫题写的“成吉思汗陵”石雕牌匾,显得格外庄重。

TT9. Genghis Khan's Mausoleum's Decorated Archway is a landmark of the mausoleum, the color of white, which contains the meaning of purity and blessing, expresses the warmest welcome towards the guests from far and near. The plaque with the characters of Genghis Khan's mausoleum, which was written by the former vice-chairman of the nation, Ulaanlhu (http://www.cjshl.com:81/News_View.asp?NewsID=32 2007/8/26).

In the Chinese version, it compares the color of Decorated Archway to the white hada. This usage just wants to show the color of Decorated Archway is white instead of other unique meanings, so in order to keep foreigners from unnecessary confusion, it uses “the color of white” in the translation version, which contains the meaning of purity and blessing” instead of the simile usage. And in ST9, it repeats “blessing” twice, while in the translation, it omits the second one to avoid the encumbrance and repetition.

C. Combination and Division

Simply speaking, the difference between the Chinese and English language structures are that the Chinese one often uses loose short sentences, repeated expressions and four—character sentences, while the English one commonly uses logical long sentences, well-knit structures and direct expressions. For this reason, combination and division are often used to adjust sentence structures in the translation, in order to accord with the English expression patterns.

Tourism translation should try to be brief and to the point, so it often divides complex sentences into simple sentences which are much easier to understand without confusion. For example:

ST10.商更斡尔阁白宫里珍藏着各种金银祭器以及{金书}等蒙古民族历史文献书籍,东殿绘有“世界巨人”大幅壁画,再现了成吉思汗建立横跨亚欧的蒙古大帝国的伟业。

TT10. Also this palace collected some gold and silver sacrificial utensil and Mongolia nation historical book. On the wall, the large fresco was painted that has the “world giant”. This fresco have reappeared the great affair that Genghis Khan established the big country over Asia- Europe.

Comparing with the original text that uses one sentence to introduce the Shang Gen Wu Erger White Chamber, the translator divides the complex sentence into three short ones which is more in line with well-structured feature of English language. This translation is faithful to the original, at the same time, it makes a clear impression on foreign tourists.

Contrary to the division is combination. When introducing the tourist attractions, it often illustrates the geographical location and history. In general, an English sentence has clear and well-arranged structure with many principal and subordinate relations and minor constituents are often expressed with prepositional phrases or participial phrases. For example:

ST11.高大的成吉思汗出征铜像，再现成吉思汗西征时赞美鄂尔多斯是“梅花鹿儿栖身之所，戴胜鸟儿育雏之乡，衰落王朝振兴之地，白发老翁享乐之邦”的情景和崛起于马背上的伟人震撼山河的气度。铜像高 6.6 米，广场直径 66 米，寓意成吉思汗寿年。

TT11.Genghis khan's bronze statue, which is 6.6m in height, stands in the center of the square which is 66m in diameter, overlooking this land and as if saying this is the place where deer inhabits themselves, bird nurtures their young, dynasties rise up into their strength and old people enjoy their lives.

(http://www.cjshl.com:81/News_View.asp?NewsID=33 2007/8/26).

In ST11, it uses two sentences to introduce Genghis Khan's bronze statue, while in TT11, it has adjusted word order, and used a parenthesis to show the height of bronze statue and a subordinate clause to introduce the diameter of the square. It combines two sentences into one which is closer to foreign readers' reading habit.

D. *The Combination of Transliteration and Semantic Translation*

Transliteration is a commonly used translation method to deal with cultural differences, and it is very important to keep source language's language and culture characteristics. However, to avoid over-foreignization caused by using transliteration blindly, translators often use transliteration and semantic translation in the translation of cultural heritage (Chen, 2011, p.42). Generally speaking, in the translation of specific cultural words, transliteration and semantic translation are commonly used methods if there are no corresponding words in the target language.

ST12.吉劳

TT12.Jilao (bridle)

ST13.胡日萨德格

TT13.Hurisadege (bow and arrow)

ST14.宝日温都

TT14.baoriwenduer (milk barrel)

ST15.查古

TT15.Chagu(copper ware used as wine set)

“吉劳”，“胡日萨德格”，“宝日温都”are Mongolian cultural words, and there are no equivalent words in English language system. Transliteration helps foreign readers understand the mandarin pronunciation of these cultural words and adding semantic translation can transmit these words' meaning and represented function to foreign readers. Therefore, the combination of transliteration and semantic translation can convey information more accurately, and can be much easier for foreign readers to understand.

V. SUGGESTION FOR IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF INTANGIBLE CULTURAL TRANSLATION

Tourist industry is a new field of culture exchange with the fastest developing speed in recent years. And cultural heritage is the basic tourism resource, a scroll to show human civilization, and a spiritual pillar to support the average people in the modern world. Therefore, the foreign publicity of cultural heritage is beneficial to disseminate the Chinese long history, carry forward national spirit, as well as show socialism with Chinese characteristics, and build harmonious national and international relations (Chen, 2006, p.51). Translation, as an indispensable means of foreign publicity, contributes to strengthening the exchanges and mutual understandings between China and the world by transferring information and disseminating culture. And the translation of cultural heritage publicity plays an important role in advertising and protecting culture heritage. However, due to differences between the Chinese and the English language characteristics and styles, translation of cultural heritage publicity faces many problems. So translators should adopt different translation strategies to achieve desired publicity effect. The commonly used strategies include addition, omission, the combination of transliteration and semantic translation, which are useful for foreign readers to understand unique national and historical cultural heritage. However, there are many translation problems such as misspelling, grammar errors and misuse of articles. And translators can avoid these problems if they are careful enough. Successful translation can not only exchange cultural heritage's surface information from one language into another language, but also exchange different cultures. Therefore, translators need to improve their culture awareness and strengthen their own self-cultivation towards professionalization and adopt different translation strategies to make the translation accepted by the target readers more easily. High quality translation of cultural heritage publicity can attract more foreign visitors and experts from all over the world. All in all, the translation of cultural heritage publicity should be enhanced, and specialized agencies established to supervise the translation work.

To better publicize Mongolian culture, and set up a good image of the city, it is necessary for us to improve the translation quality of publicity materials. Language can reflect the civilization degree of a city, while there are many translation problems existing in the Mausoleum of Genghis Khan's publicity materials. So it is very urgent to improve and promote the English translation. We can deal with these problems according to the following aspects. The First step

is to improve translator's cultural training. The quality of translation largely depends on the translator's quality, so we need to organize a group of scholars who are good at translation and have a good knowledge of tourism materials to in charge of the translation. The second step is to establish a set of normative standards of tourism translation. Scarce standards lead directly to the uneven quality of the translation, so the authority should move to standardize English translations in the scenic spots, exhibitions, menus, and hotel service (Zhang et. al., 2010, p.4).

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Jinyu Liu, Ph.D, Associate professor in the English Department of the Foreign Languages College at Inner Mongolia University, China. Research interest includes translation history studies, esp. East Asian translation history.

Meiling Wen, B.A., Intern in The Mausoleum of Genghis Khan, Er dos, Inner Mongolia.

A Study on the Application of WeChat in ESP Training

Zhongwen Liu

Liaoning Police Academy, Dalian, China

Abstract—This exploratory research project is one of the research series on Ubiquitous Learning in English for Policing based on vocational scenarios, it focuses on the application of WeChat, the most popular software on smart phones among college students in China at present, in English for Specific Purpose (hereinafter referred to as ESP) training. The aim of applying WeChat is to improve the students' interests, motivation and efficiency of vocational field training. This paper presents previous and relevant studies, features of WeChat, and the implementation process of ESP training in a college English class via WeChat including lead in, text reading and scenario-based activities with emphasis on peer training, group training and face-to-face training details; analysis of the survey reveals that most students are in favor of using WeChat in English learning and training. Advantages and disadvantages of using WeChat in ESP training are also discussed.

Index Terms—WeChat, ESP training, application, scenario, ubiquitous learning

I. INTRODUCTION

The 2013 Survey of Online Learning conducted by the Babson Survey Research Group reveals the number of higher education students taking at least one online course has now surpassed 7.1 million (Babson Survey Research Group, 2014). The figure illustrates the widespread of online learning in various disciplines, English for Specific Purposes (ESP), which belong to the area of English language Teaching (ELT), is considered as Applied ELT, since the goals and objectives and the syllabus of such a course are determined by the needs of a specific group of learners (Liza Sharmin, 2011). ESP learning covers a vast range of areas, including Business English, Technical English, Scientific English, English for medical professionals, English for waiters, English for tourism, English for Art Purposes, etc (Hutchinson, T. & A. Waters 1987).

This study is one of the research series on Ubiquitous Learning in English for Policing based on vocational scenarios, which evolves with the development of the changing web technology and *English for Elite Police* courseware. The pedagogy mainly consists of a STARS instructional pattern focusing on situational experience and a virtual training pattern focusing on role-play different policing roles based on designed scenarios. The virtual training can be implemented through role-plays in class, vocational service practice after class or virtual training online after or in class, which is carried out via free software like QQ international or WeChat, a student determines to act as one of the police officers in the scenario and interact with service recipients acted by other participants including his/her peers, teachers, experts, policemen or foreigners through keying in words, sending audio or video messages. The program tries to construct a ubiquitous learning environment, in which any students can learn English or train vocational skills in English anytime, anywhere with any available devices as a step towards ecological service, resources sharing, individualized learning and lifelong learning. Implementation outcomes show that the students involved are interested in the vocation-related training and motivated in the language learning (Zhongwen Liu, 2013).

Technologies deployed shifted from computer software to LAN (Local Area Network) in the multi-media sound labs and the Internet, to the present Wi-Fi technology as a result of the rapid development of smart phones, as the survey conducted in March of 2013 and a year later showed that the percentage of smart phone users increased from 70% to almost 100%, which served as the overwhelming factor to shift our focus to the most popular software of smart phone users in China called WeChat.

WeChat is featured with the characteristic of ubiquitous learning, being available for almost every student at any time anywhere. WeChat is a mobile text and voice messaging communication service developed by Tencent in China, first released in January 2011. The app is available on Android, iPhone, BlackBerry, Windows Phone, Sybian and OS X platforms. Languages supported include Traditional/simplified Chinese, English, and so on. WeChat is supported on Wi-Fi, 2G, 3G and 4G networks. According to Xinhua, WeChat total users reached 600 million worldwide in October 2013 (Wikipedia, 2014). WeChat provides multimedia communication with text messaging, hold-to-talk voice messaging, broadcast (one-to-many) messaging, photo/video sharing, location sharing, and contact information exchange. WeChat supports social networking via shared streaming content feeds and location-based social plug-ins ("Shake", "Look Around", and "Drift Bottle") to chat with and connect with local and international WeChat users. Photos can be taken and embellished with artistic filters, captions, and placed into a personal photo journal for sharing with other users. User data is protected via an on-demand contact list backup and retrieval to/from the cloud. WeChat

claims to provide a social networking platform that emphasizes user privacy and fast response performance (Wikipedia, 2014). Some of the features of WeChat are shown in Figure 1.



Figure 1: Features of WeChat (WeChat.com, 2014)

Similar research programs on the application of WeChat in English learning include constructing English learning environment on campus based on WeChat which mainly talks about the using of WeChat in class instruction (Hao Zhang, 2013), application of WeChat in college English teaching which explores the process and results of the implementation (Hongmei Jiang, 2013) and WeChat assisted language learning which effectively improved spoken English for English majors (Deng Pan, 2013). Six students from Suzhou Science and Technology Institute developed an interactive system in English class, enabling students to answer questions or interact with one another, all these activities were controlled by the teacher with a smart phone and the contents were projected on the large screen in the front of the classroom. The teacher could control his phone to send a discussion topic with MrQ of the system, play a video clip or show subtitles, start a group discussion and evaluate performances in each group and play a PPT or WritePad (Jingyu Wang, 2013). This study focused on how WeChat can be used in applying key words and expressions in English learnt in an integrated reading class by acting different vocation-related roles based on a designed scenario. The following specific research questions were addressed in this study so as to measure what can be done to improve the student satisfaction level in online learning.

1. Is WeChat their most frequent communication software?
2. Are the students interested in applying WeChat in their English learning?
3. What are the advantages of applying WeChat in their eyes?
4. What is the most serious problem when they use WeChat in their English learning?
5. What do they think of the new learning approach?
6. What is their favorite way of communicating in applying WeChat in English learning?
7. What are their suggestions or comments on English learning?
8. What are the advantages and disadvantages of applying WeChat compared with applying QQ under the same circumstances?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design

In 2012, we expounded the outline of the program, the design of scenarios and application of QQ International in EFL learning in the learning of Unit Four *A Virtual Life* of New College English (Integrated Reading Book 3) for three undergraduate classes majoring in Cyber Crimes Investigation, grade 2011, Liaoning Police Academy. Results of that study showed that 90% of the students rated the scenario-based instruction “better”, 7% rated it as the same as, and 3% rated it “worse” than the traditional lecture and exercises class. 94% of the students were “interested”, 3% were indifferent to, and 3% were uninterested in learning English for Policing on English class. 92% of the students believed scenario-based training “interesting and useful”, 8% thought it as “uninteresting and useless”. Their comments on scenarios included: “make me more immersed in the realistic working situation”, “more related to my future work”, “a better platform on which I can show my potentials and experience different roles”. Observations on the class also proved that students were more motivated and more actively involved in the training process, more concentrated on their peers’ performances, more enthusiastic about scenario-based training. All the participants were energetic in solving real problems; those “Chinese policemen” focused more on vocational expertise expressed in English while “the foreigners” focused on respective cultures and social customs. Interviews with the students revealed positive attitudes toward the process-oriented assessment system. They thought the assessment “relaxing and fun”, “emphasizing more on the improvement as a process rather than at a moment”, “encouraging less fluent students to see their own improvement rather than compare with proficient counterparts” (Zhongwen Liu, 2012).

In order to get the comparison between the application of QQ International and WeChat, we decided to make a study with the same learning material and same scenario, but with the different software and our present students, three

undergraduate classes majoring in Economic Crimes Investigation, grade 2013, Liaoning Police Academy. *A Virtual Life* describes how a person is addicted to online life, the key words and expressions mainly cover the advantages and disadvantages of surfing on line, which are related closely to the work of Internet security police officer and materials of Unit 9 *Cyber Crimes in English for Elite Police*, the textbook of English for Policing course.

The procedure of the instruction is shown in Figure 2:



Figure 2: Arrangements of the learning procedure of Unit 4, text A: *A Virtual Life*

To arouse the students' interests to online activities, we first designed a "guess what I am describing" game to lead in the topic and related words and expressions. Then the class watched a video clip about online gambling and had a discussion on "what are the positive and negative effects of the Internet on my college life", the summary of these activity was that the internet was playing a more and more important role almost in every aspect of the college life, the art of using the internet lied in how the students could make a balance, how to take advantages of the technology, and trying to avoid being a victim. The reading of the text included explanation of new words like *cyber*, *digital*, *electronic and virtual*, analysis of the text structure and comprehension of each part to equip the students with some Internet-related phrases and expressions. The last component of the teaching was the application of WeChat based on the scenario: *Persuading an Internet Addict* in order to train the students' ability to apply learnt knowledge in future workplace.

B. Implementation Process

The scenario was especially designed for the text containing title and time allocated, setting, characters (a Chinese police officer as a must), plots, objectives, assessment criteria and reference as shown in Table I (Zhongwen Liu, 2012):

TABLE 1
SCENARIO: PERSUADING AN INTERNET ADDICT

Title	Persuading an Internet Addict (advantages and disadvantages of surfing online) (5minutes)
Setting	Place: Sky Internet Caf� Zhongshan Square  Time: 2 o'clock in the morning
Characters	1. An Internet Safety Administration Police Officer  2. A young boy 
Plots	The Police Officer finds the boy surfing online at 2 am, check his ID first, and then persuade him not to spend too much time online, The boy explains the reasons why he stays so late at first, but he is finally persuaded and goes back home.
Objectives	The boy is convinced that internet addict is harmful to his health and do no good for his family and study, he is grateful to the officer and goes back home immediately.
Assessment	1. English proficiency (0.45) 2. key words and expressions (0.20) 3. objectives achievement (0.15) 4. professional skills (0.10) 5. self-improvement (0.10)
References	1. Hello, this is my certificate. Please show me your ID certificate. 2. How could you concentrate on class tomorrow? 3. Advantages of the internet: Faster and speedy communication; Information Resources; Entertainment, play games, watch films, listen to music; Social networking, forums, qq messaging; Online services and e-commerce 4. Disadvantages: Social problems, waste of time, spoil the health, waste of money, unwilling to connect to people; Theft of Personal Information; Virus Threat; Pornography. 5. Background information: <u>Civilian Police persuade young abandon jump from internet addiction</u>

All the students changed their WeChat icons according to the characters they had chosen to act, they either chose one icon from the photos uploaded in the group chat or searched one from the Internet of policemen, policewomen, suspects, witnesses or other characters in the scenario. To find one or more interactive partners, a student used the function of adding friends in different ways like searching by ID, QQ account, mobile phone contacts or scanning QR Code;

searching people nearby; shaking mobile phone etc. Another function of WeChat we used is “Walkie Talkie”: users can chat with a group of friends in a chat room. It's a real-time chat and even in the case of closing the phone's screen, real-time chat can still be going on.

The first activity was peer training, a student sent an invitation to a possible partner to start the training through text or audio chat, they could send links of some webpage, photos or video clips to each other, the teacher might check the recording or their audio chat to correct some mistakes and evaluate each student's performance according to the Assessment criteria listed in the scenario.

The second activity was group training in which several students set up a group and more than two students role-played the police officer and the boy, the teacher might participate one training with a virtual character, detect or prevent potential “runaways” from class, check one of the participant's chat records to determine who were more active and fluent than other students role-playing the same character, correct some mistakes in grammar, wording or expressions, evaluate each student's performance according to the Assessment criteria listed in the scenario.

The last activity was face-to-face role-play by two students followed by general evaluation and summary of the peer training and group training, some of the students paid attention to usage of the key words but didn't pay attention to realizing the aim, persuading the boy go back home willingly, some of the “officers” even used force or threat to use force to get the boy back home, while others made efforts to persuade the boy but made too many mistakes in speaking and spelling, all of which were evaluated in accordance with the assessment indexes, the evaluation score was noted down for the final evaluation at the end of the term. All the participants were required to write a reflection on the scenario-based training and to upload to their WeChat “moments” to share their viewpoints on the experience by answering the following reflection questions:

1. How did the WeChat-based training make you feel (compared to other traditional method like face-to-face role-play)?
2. What was the most challenging thing that happened?
3. What will you do to better your performance next time in the similar situation?
4. What connections do you see between this experience and what you've learned in this unit?
5. How can your solutions apply to other situations in your future job?

Wechat “moments” are where the users commemorate their life and share their photos (by taking a photo or choosing existing photos) and thoughts (by sending plain texts) with their friends, which can be commented or sent to a new address.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

A survey covering the 8 research questions was conducted on the next English class in Class 1, grade 2013, the answers were summarized as:

1. Is WeChat their most frequent communication software?
Yes, 86% of the students use WeChat, 14% use QQ.
2. Are the students interested in applying WeChat in their English learning?
Yes, 83% believe it is positive and interesting, 14% believe it is nothing special and 3% believe it is useless.
3. What are the advantages of applying WeChat in their eyes?
42% say they are not nervous, 22% think that it's fun and just like playing a game, 19% say they have time to think about the appropriate answer, 11% say they like to conceal their own identity, advantages mentioned by the rest of the students include: “I'm allowed to correct my own mistake before sending messages to my partner, more interested and motivated; it helps me to be immersed in the training and is a brand-new learning approach; I'm waiting anxiously for others to respond; it's interesting because I don't know what I'm going to get from others, an unexpected sound, a funny icon or a terrifying or mysterious picture?”
4. What is the most serious problem when they use WeChat in their English learning?
71% don't think there are any problems, 17% think it as unnecessary, which can be done in the classroom, and 12% think it as too complicated.
5. What do they think of the new learning approach?
The average score is 89.25 (the highest score is 100).
6. What is their favorite way of communicating in applying WeChat in English learning?
47% chose group chat, 33% chose one-to-one chat, 19% chose other method like sending and receiving text messages, no one chose face-to-face training, which shows a great interest at the beginning of the new application and the popularity of WeChat in English learning.
7. What are their suggestions or comments on English learning?
53% wanted to have more time for CET 4 preparation; others wanted to have more spoken English training, more instructional innovations and more changes to play games while learning.
8. What are the advantages and disadvantages of applying WeChat compared with applying QQ under the same circumstances?

As far as audio chatting is concerned, QQ audio is sent and received simultaneously like making a call to someone while WeChat audio isn't sent and received simultaneously. Some say they don't have WeChat while others prefer the

recording function of WeChat. Disadvantages of WeChat included: it can't be used on a computer, it's hard to hear the audio clearly with occasional Wi-Fi breakdown, some also complaint that there were students taking advantage of the training to chat in Chinese or playing with each other, but if they had used QQ, they would have focused on the conversation because they knew that their partner were waiting for the answers all the time.

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND PROSPECTS

Please note that the real advantage of any web-mediated learning approach is learning anytime, anywhere and for anyone, this is true for WeChat, so besides the above mentioned applications in class, we have also applied WeChat in ESP learning after class. A WeChat group named *English for Elite Police* was set up in which the administrator send messages about the curricular arrangement, notices, tasks, discussion topics and answer questions in English, members also share their reflections, ideas, suggestions or stories on "moments".

WeChat is becoming the most popular software among college students at present as the rapid development of smart phones, application of WeChat in education is necessary and feasible. The most striking advantage of WeChat, compared with QQ International, is the non-synchronous chat and replay of the audio chat record, which allows teachers and students (including the user him/herself) to check the communication process to evaluate, correct or better the practice of interaction, it also allows the students to think for a while before interacting with other participants, which benefits especially for some introverted students or students whose English are not fluent enough to respond immediately. Another advantage of using WeChat is the active role it plays in the student-centered learning approach, students are more interested and involved in the learning process with the access of pictures, audio and video materials, and interactions with other participants, integrating self-directed learning with collaborative learning. Last but no means least, WeChat-based training provides real communication environment and simulated workplace for speaking and listening practice, enabling introverted students to enjoy the learning process and strengthen their creativity, motivation and critical thinking.

Like any new technical applications in a field, the initial research does arouse interests and curiosity on the one hand, on the other hand, WeChat can only be an supplementary tool but not a leading tool in English learning, teachers may also need patience and courage to make the double-edged sword contribute to education, how to guide and confine the students to use the smart phones only for studying, for instance, is one of the problems we found in the research especially at the beginning of the practice. One possible solution may lie in the check of their WeChat record during the study period, but the students may resent the potential invasion of their communication privacy, other solutions lie in the improvement of Wi-Fi technology and service. Compared with the other popular chat tool Yi-xin, developed by Netease.inc, WeChat does not provide the message received time as exactly as to hour, minute and second, making the comparison of responding time more difficult; what's worse, WeChat does not display whether the sent message is read or not by the receiver.

What we have done is just a tip of the iceberg in using WeChat, we will enlarge our research into the training of speaking, listening, writing and translating, especially in the after-class platform so as to improve the flexibility of English learning on which students can note down their reflections, share their learning experiences with peers and teachers, or upload their homework. Teachers can assign learning tasks through sending pictures, texts or audio records, evaluate or comment on their performances. Based on our previous studies on the scenarios, virtual training via QQ International and the present WeChat, we are trying to provide students a ubiquitous learning environment, enabling them to learn English and train their professional competence anytime, anywhere with any available device. One of the forthcoming researches will focus on flipped classroom to apply learnt English in scenario-based training, while the traditional language learning will be recorded by the teacher and uploaded to the QQ International group for the students to learn by themselves before class. The flipped model takes the advantage of the micro-course, online learning community and the interactive function of the classroom, making the best use of technology to learn before or after class what can be learnt by the students themselves with the guidance of the instruction video, and also the best use of the teacher and the students in class to interact and collaborate with all the participants to practice vocational skills because applying knowledge is forever the ultimate goal of learning.

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Zhongwen Liu, BA of English, Liaoning Normal University, 1993, Master of Engineering, Dalian Maritime University, 2005. He is a professor in Liaoning Police Academy and a candidate for the Police Liaison Officers of the Public Security Ministry of China, the author of *English for Elite Police*, Press of Chinese People's Public Security University, 2009 and 4 EI indexed papers. He coined VPIE and Virtual Service Learning pedagogies with research interest in web-mediated instructional technology.

Language Stratification: A Critical Reading of Margaret Atwood's *The Penelopiad* According to Mikhail Bakhtin's Concept of "Heteroglossia"

Kifah (Moh'd Khair) Ali Al Omari

Department of English Language and Literature, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Hala Abdel Razzaq A. Jum'ah

Department of English Language and Literature, The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan

Abstract—The present paper aims at investigating the effectiveness of Margaret Atwood's *The Penelopiad* in displaying the transcription of language according to the critical views of Mikhail Bakhtin, especially his view about what he calls "heteroglossia." The main argument, thus, is that heteroglossia is one of the key concepts that the reader should take into consideration in order to reveal the hidden and implied meanings of Atwood's *The Penelopiad*. The paper considers language's stratification as a meaningful and a remarkable context for Atwood's style. In order to prove the main argument of the paper, the researchers discuss three key Bakhtinian concepts; that is, heteroglossia, and two other related terms; dialogism and form and content, and attempt to apply them on Atwood's *The Penelopiad*. The paper shows how Bakhtin celebrates the genre of the novel for its amplitude to include verified and multiple meanings, a celebration that locates its coordinate in Atwood's novel due to the novel's heteroglot nature in chapters' titles and in Penelope's and the maids' recognition of modern time. The paper shows how Atwood's *The Penelopiad* is a dialogic novel because of its foregrounding of dialogic relations between its heteroglot structure, the narrators' voices, and the social interaction of the authorial context. Finally, the paper dwells on Bakhtin's concept of form and content and discusses the chorus line in details to prove the inclusive nature of the novel compared to its prequel version, *The Odyssey*.

Index Terms—Bakhtin, heteroglossia, language stratification, dialogism, discourse, *The Odyssey*, hybrid text

I. INTRODUCTION

The present paper aims at investigating the effectiveness of Margaret Atwood's *The Penelopiad* in displaying the transcription of language according to the critical views of Mikhail Bakhtin, especially his view about what he calls "heteroglossia," a term he introduced in 1934 in a paper entitled "Discourse in the Novel." "Heteroglossia" emphasizes the existence of different meanings within the same language due to the *dialogic* nature of language. This paper examines some instances of the communicative actions used by primitive people as a means of recording past events and experiences. In the field of discourse analysis, this standard of language involves the semiotic aspect of communication. In other words, it sets forth the concept of discourse in representing people's utterances to figure out the features that make those utterances appear the way they do.

II. METHODOLOGY

Focusing on discourse as a "meaningful symbolic behavior" (Blommaert, 2005, p.2), the researchers examine language as a social phenomenon rather than an abstract and synchronic (unhistorical) system. In order to achieve this objective, this paper discusses three key Bakhtinian concepts; that is, heteroglossia, dialogism, and form and content, and attempts to apply them on Atwood's *The Penelopiad* to come up with some incites that might help in a better understanding of the novel. The main argument, thus, is that heteroglossia is one of the key concepts that the reader should take into consideration in order to reveal the hidden and implied meanings of Atwood's *The Penelopiad*.

III. DISCUSSION AND ANALYSIS

The novel according to Mikhail Bakhtin is "a diversity of social speech types" ("Discourse in the Novel," 2004, p.674). Bakhtin considers the modern novel to be the best literary form to represent heteroglossia, dialogism and form and content. Atwood extends the distinctive features of the novel into her own work. Her style depends on such features that illustrate the stratification of language. This paper elucidates Penelope's narration of *The Odyssey*'s version of the story from a Bakhtinian viewpoint, a narration that introduces a different Penelope. Thus, a different reading is expected as a result of Penelope's new standpoint that differs from Homer's Penelope.

Atwood's *The Penelopiad* explores another Penelope that introduces new imagined facets in order to provide a modern version of Homer's *The Odyssey* which was composed near the end of eighth century. Atwood's framework breaks the traditional frame at that time which mainly aims at telling a heroic story. As a result, Margaret Atwood creates her own sense of the novel. Her novel is not affected by the traditional forms; on the contrary, she tries to be innovative and to come up with her own form. By doing so, she paves the way for a different pattern and propounds a new genre. Atwood's title indicates unprecedented expectations in rewriting the traditional form of *The Odyssey* to enrich it with a new interpretation. She reconnoiters an art that is governed by rules without following the traditional practices of the past. According to Sharon Wilson (2000), "Atwood has used mythology in much the same way she has used other intertexts like folk tales, fairy tales, and legends, replaying the old stories in new contexts and from different perspectives – frequently from a woman's point of view – so that the stories shimmer with new meanings" (p.215).

To begin with, *The Penelopiad* has a tactile frame which distinctly denotes the multiplicity of voices and interactions of its characters rather than the self-centered monologue used in other novels. Throughout the novel, the reader will visualize and hear different voices whose impacts are envisaged onto different layers. It sounds distinctly as if the author has no voice because of the narrative's division between the two narrators, Penelopiad and the maids. *The Penelopiad* has a prominent framework that rejects a single narrative voice. Unlike Homer's epic, this novel is remarkable for its diversified planes. Throughout Homer's epic, Odysseus is viewed as a cunning man trying to make his way home from the Trojan War. With patience and faith, his wife, Penelopiad, avoids the numerous suitors and awaits her husband's return. Therefore, this story is composed of one plane only and omnisciently told by Homer within a monologic context. Unlike Homer's epic, *The Penelopiad* is distinguished by a frame of multiple voices that the reader can recognize all throughout the novel.

A heteroglot novel according to Bakhtin is "a structural stylistic system that expresses the differentiated socio-ideological position of the author amid the heteroglossia of his epoch" (*The Dialogic Imagination*, 1981, p.300). So, the story in the novel is not told by the author; instead, the events of the plot are outlined by two narrators within the framework of a story within a story. Atwood constructed the framework in a way that will distinguish every frame and at the same time include all other characters. The frame narrator Penelopiad begins her story by recognizing her state as a dead woman in "the gloomy halls of Hades," known as "Dark Death" (Atwood, 2005, p.15). This frame recounts her birth in Sparta, her conflict with Helens, and her arranged marriage. The maids are the second and the inner narrators who narrate their story, their circumstances and the observed events of the suitors.

Having a frame of different planes or layers of narrative that clash with each other is a clear designation for heteroglossia in the novel. Each narration recognizes a new world in Hades different from the earlier one in *The Odyssey*. This interaction of narration that one finds in this novel creates a combination that permits what Raman Selden (1997) calls "a multiplicity of social voices and their individual expressions" (p.42). Such a combination is what differentiates the heteroglot novel from any other novel. In a heteroglot novel, argues Selden (1997), "the context defines the meaning of the utterance" (p.42). In other words, the meaning of an utterance is recognized and determined relatively and certain conditions govern the production of meaning in all discourse. One can argue that Atwood achieves the context of heteroglossia in *The Penelopiad* by using three criteria: chapters' division, Penelope's recognition of external modern world, and the maids' recognition of the same world.

Chapters' division in the novel is the first criterion Atwood used to achieve heteroglossia. These titles contribute to the reader's perception of the content of the novel. However, such titles are not easily digested. They work in a heteroglot way, and the title of each chapter is defined by two contexts, that of Penelope and that of the twelve maids. In "A Low Art," for example, one can hardly tell Penelope's perspective and intention in reading the first few lines of the first chapter. Precisely, she demonstrates her purpose for such wording in the last few lines of the chapter. She wants to have her own identity by narrating her own story in which she says "now that all the others have run out of air, it's my turn to do a little story-making. I owe it to myself. I've had to work myself up to it; it's a low art, tale-telling" (Atwood, 2005, pp.3-4). Such categorization will enable the reader to easily digest the significance of her story within a heteroglot reading. It can also be perceived in other titles such as "My Childhood" (p.7), "The Scar" (p.39), "The Shroud" (p.109), and "News of Helen" (p.127).

In addition, other chapters' titles demand the reader's imagination and contribution to relate them to the novel's sequence of events and arrangement. In chapter nine "The Trusted Cackle-Hen" (p.55) for example, the reader can tenaciously visualize the connection of the chapter's title to its content where Penelope portrays her voyage with Odysseus from her home in Sparta to Ithaca. "Brought back as a noble bride," Penelope sheds light on her position as "a stranger among strange people" (Atwood, 2005, pp.56-57). The fact that Penelope is a stranger enables the reader to have his/her own possible reading of the title in relation to its content. The title refers to Penelope's new stature in Ithaca where she is brought as a hen "for having children" to multiply (Atwood, 2005, p.24). Significantly speaking, Penelope was renamed by her father as a "duck" since she was rescued after "her father ordered to be thrown into the sea" (Atwood, 2005, p.7). Moreover, her mother harangues her a lesson drawn from nature to act as water since she is a water spirit:

Water does not resist. Water flows. When you plunge your hand into it all you feel is a caress. Water is not a solid wall, it will not stop you. But water always wants to go where it wants to go, and nothing in the end can stand against it.

Water is patient. Dripping water wears away a stone. Remember that, my child. Remember you are half water. If you can't go through an obstacle, go round it. Water does (Atwood, 2005, p.41).

Therefore, the title ironically points out to Penelope being the one who cackled at without having the sense of trusting in others since she is among strangers. Alongside Actoris' death, Penelope's "wedding present ... from [her] father," Penelope is belied by her mother-in-law who "sit silently and say nothing while [Penelope] made a fool of [herself], a tight little smile on her face (Atwood, 2005, p.56). Her most frequent expression to [Penelope] was, "you don't look well" (p.62).

Permeated with the twelve maids' narration, the structure becomes notable for its way in breaking Penelope's narration to achieve a heteroglot novel coherently. Their narration resembles the sword's two edges which interrupts the chronological sequence of Penelope's narration and, at the same time, plays a fundamental role in reserving the novel's structure as one unit. Such unitary in language, says Bakhtin, is "not only in its shared, abstract, linguistic markers but also in its forms for conceptualizing these abstract markers, is itself stratified and heteroglot in its aspect as an expressive system, that is, in the forms that carry its meanings" ("Discourse in the Novel," 2004, p.675). The form of the maids' narration in which a titled chorus line is interwoven with social stratification generates a heteroglot aspect.

The chapter entitled "If I was A Princess, A Popular Tune" (p.51) evokes the picture of the maids' lives at King Odysseus' court wishing to be princesses. They recount the social injustice of the time in which "hard work is [their] destiny, death is [their] fate!" (Atwood, 2005, p.52). They have to "fetch", "carry" and to "hear and obey. It's Yes sir and No ma'am the whole bleeding day" (p.52) with a smile. This title tackles and defines the context of the maids' utterances indicating their wish to be princesses "with silver and gold, /And loved by a hero ... always beautiful, happy, and free!" (Atwood, 2005, p.51). Regretting their oppressed lives, the maids in "Kiddie Mourn, A Lament by the Maids" (p. 13) reflect their double ordeals as slaves and as "dirty girls" (p.13). Thus, the title suggests the maids' bemoaning of being treated as tools in terms of work and of sexual entertainment.

The combination of Penelope's structure and the chorus' structure of the maids is absorbed chronologically and the events of the novel are designed following a specific form. This form, say Guang-hui Lu and Ya-mei Chen (2011) "allows for other alternative voices or opinions and can either be dialogically contractive or ideologically expansive" (p.52). It stresses the ability to connect linguistic forms and social relations. i.e. heteroglossia. Most of the story is narrated directly to the reader by Penelope. The maids draw a second narrative frame and their remarks are also full of subjective interpretations and intrusion with the consciousness of both other characters and the reader himself/herself. At the same time, Penelope enables others to palpate her intervention with the consciousness of others, mainly the reader. Her narrative style, then, highlights the role of the reader in leaving impacts on his/her consciousness. Thus, this style provides another piece of evidence to prove the main argument of the present paper regarding the multiplicity of voices that one can find in *The Penelopiad*. This multiplicity is engendered as a result of the reader's diversified interpretations to originate a heteroglot novel.

Similarly, the maids' chorus is noticeably eminent by their subjective version of the story to manipulate the reader's consciousness. In "The Birth of Telemachus, An Idyll" (p.65), the maids seek justice and sympathy from the reader. They compare their birth to that of Telemachus', Penelope's son. They "beached at the same time as he was, struck by the hostile air,/ Infants when he was an infant, wailing just as he wailed/ Helpless as he was helpless, but ten times more helpless as well" (Atwood, 2005, p.66). They inquire equality where they were "brought, traded, captured, kidnapped from serfs to strangers" (p.66). Therefore, they demand their rights even after a period of time that lasts more than three thousand years. Treated like "pets", "toy thing" and "tiny companions" (p.68), the maids are hanged by Telemachus, the one with whom they usually play.

Therefore, the consciousness of the two narrators emerges to contribute to the reader's comprehension of a heteroglot novel through its chapters' divisions. Alongside with chapters' division, *The Penelopiad* attains its distinctive heteroglot features felicitously in Penelope's and the maids' recognition of the external modern world. Due to the fact that they reestablish and re-invite *The Odyssey's* sequence of events, Penelope and the maids are aware of their current circumstances as dead women among dead people in Hades. Their version of the story empowers the reader's role in acknowledging the context; that is of Penelope and of the maids. They are able to seek their own way in propounding a new heteroglot novel after a long period of time.

Precisely speaking, Penelope's story-making is conceived, says Selden (1997), by "the production of meaning in discourse" (p.42). Though "[she] believed [Odysseus] from time to time, [she] knew he was tricky and a liar, [she] just didn't think he would play his tricks and try out his lies on [her]" (Atwood, 2005, p.2). Ultimately, she tackles the story within a modern context. She is attentive to the technological progress of the twenty-first century. Indeed, she realizes how her classical world differs from the modern one in which "the technology of crafts to girls has fallen out of fashion now" [(p.8). Though she is "very interested in the invention of the light bulb, for instance, and in the matter-into-energy theories of the twentieth century" (p.19), she expresses how she is lucky enough for not having such things in "[her] day" (p.8). As a result, such recognition of her status as a witness of both times, classical and modern, alternates the reader's evaluation of the story. Certainly, the frame of the story is doubtlessly eminent and the context helps the reader to better understand the story. The reader is left with a novel that is "ideologically prosaic, anti-romance, anti-epical, and anti-mythical; its multivoiceness or heteroglossia, argues Paul De Man (1989) postulates distinct and antagonistic

class structure as well as the celebratory crossing of social barriers” (p.108). Therefore, it is the role of the reader to grasp such frame within a modern context.

The Penelopiad imposes another heteroglot feature through the maids’ perception of their current status in the modern world which is filled with alternative voices and opinions. Thus, their utterances mutate ideologically to fit the new context of the twenty-first century. Such recognition plays an important role in both the reader’s understanding and his/her subsequent connection to the real world in articulating his/her utterances. Actually, the maids are fully conscious of the modern reader and address him/her directly in more than one occasion. In “An Anthropology Lecture” (p.163), for example, they preside the reader to sympathize with the maids’ conditions at that time. Addressing the reader as “the educated mind,” the maids try to involve the reader closely enough in their situation (Atwood, 2005, pp.163,165,168). In fact, they already involve the audience while they recite their “An Anthropology Lecture” in terms of questions. They raise many questions and answer them at the same time. One of these questions is: “there are twelve apostles, there are twelve days of Christmas, yes, but there are twelve months, and what does the word month suggest to the educated mind?” (Atwood, 2005, p.163). Their acting is highly significant; they ask questions and answer them while taking two roles, the role of the chorus and the role of the audience at the same time, like when they provide information about months and where they come from: “Yes? You, Sir, in the back? Correct! Month comes from moon, as everyone knows” (Atwood, 2005, p.163).

The maids seek justice from the reader by having their own context that is close enough to the modern reader. They create a heteroglot feature, says Michael Holquist (2002), in the “way of conceiving the world as made up of a roiling mass of languages. Each of which has its own distinct formal markers” (p.67). They endeavor to comprise the educated minds of the twenty-first century by assuming a previous knowledge of the modern time and mentioning some of the modern terms in their narration. For instance, they recognize the educated reader and list some of his/her modern devices as “Anthropology” (p.163), “theories” (p.165), scientific notions as “lunar months” (p.165), and modern technological devices as “videotape” (p.184). Moreover, they speak to the reader as if they share the same knowledge without any restrictions.

The main argument about *The Penelopiad*, thus, is that it has a dialogical structure, rather than a monological one. Katerina Clark and Michael Holquist (1984) consider the novel as a “great instrument for exploiting and simultaneously strengthening heteroglossia” (p.291). This dialogical structure inspires the reader to alter his/her view point about many important issues raised in the novel. Therefore, the reader will come across manifold standpoints instead of one indispensable point of view. The impersonation of heteroglossia is unparalleled in the novel genre in particular because of the novel’s capability to put diversified languages into dialogic interactions, which Bakhtin calls the dialogized heteroglossia. Barbara Green (2000) explains Bakhtin’s concept of the “dialogized or dialogic,” by saying that “the utterances are shaped not only by the author/speaker, but also by the reader/listener” (p.205). Throughout *The Penelopiad*, the posited author’s story and the narrators’ version of the story are placed dialogically. Such kind of tension among the narrators’ versions of the story causes some type of dialogic conflict in the novel’s two layers. Bakhtin convincingly argues:

The posited author and teller[s] assume a completely different significance where they are incorporated as carriers of a particular verbal-ideological linguistic belief system. ... The author manifests himself and his point of view not only in his effect on the narrator, on his speech and his language but also in his effect on the subject of the story – as a point of view that differs from the point of view of the narrator. (*Dialogic Imagination*, pp.312, 313, 314).

Bakhtin sees such dialogic conflict as a distinguished feature of the novel. It is what makes the representation of heteroglossia unique by putting diverse languages in the novel’s capacity into interactions. The novel depends on both the authorial context and the narrator’s in order to fulfill a dialogized heteroglot novel.

Paul De Man (1989) considers the novel to be a “conversation with many voices rather than as a contest with winners and losers” (106). *The Penelopiad*’s dialogic context can be conceived within three different layers; Atwood and her readers, Penelope and her listeners, and the maids and their listeners. Raman Selden (1997) argues against the single voice which “may give the impression of unity and closure,” the utterance, he maintains, “is constantly (and to some extent unconsciously) producing a plentitude of meanings, which stem from social interaction (dialogue)” (42). Monologue for Selden (1997) is “a forcible imposition on language, and hence a distortion of it” (p.42).

The reader witnesses Atwood’s voice in *The Penelopiad* dialogically, especially when the characters are involved in a dialogue together. According to Alexander Georgakopoulou and Dionysis Goutsos (1997), dialogue is “a major involvement strategy in conversational narratives of cultures,” it creates the illusion that both teller and audience certificate the events (137). Thus, Atwood’s idea is never given directly to the reader, but refracted among the two layers; that of Penelope and of the maids. Unlike the omniscient narration, Atwood’s style of narration is highly plenteous. According to Paul De Man (1989), one can see how “the heteroglot voices create the background necessary for [the author’s] own voice” (112).

In *The Penelopiad*, then, Atwood is able to achieve a dialogized heteroglossia. The novel, says Ruth Coates (2004), “wages war against the tyranny of the unitary language, incorporating into itself a multitude of different languages and organizing them artistically, that is, bringing them into contact with each other” (107). In other words, the reader can touch upon and hint at Atwood’s intention and voice depending on her creativity in bringing contact with the reader. She seeks to construct a solid ground with a shared language between her as a sender of the message and the reader as a

receiver. Thus, she sends “messages of rapport and intimacy to the [readers] inviting their involvement with them and with the events which are so vividly recreated” (Georgakopoulou and Goutsos, 1997, p.137).

Dialogue might also refer to communication which does not necessarily take place face to face. Guy Cook (1994) says that dialogue can be understood “in a broader sense, meaning not only direct, face to face, vocalized verbal communication between persons, but also written communication in which sender and receiver are not face to face” (p.48). In *The Penelopiad*, Penelope and the maids evince a dialogical framework in order to effectively transmit their messages to the reader. Actually, Penelope and the maids demonstrate dialogue as a “well-established expressive [device] in narrative” within two levels, internal and external (Georgakopoulou and Goutsos, 1997, p.142). As for the internal dialogue, Penelope and the maids enumerate some incidents of their lives by remembering and recounting certain dialogues. The external dialogue, on the other hand, reflects Penelope’s and the maids’ messages to the reader himself/herself through “a sequence of connected sentences by which a sender communicates a message to a receiver” (Renkema, 1993, p.32).

In many internal dialogical contexts, Penelope re-narrates some episodes to the reader to draw his/her attention to the unmentioned contexts in *The Odyssey*. In “The Trusted Cackle-Hen,” for example, Penelope reports her dialogue about her hidden door into the heart with Odysseus. She asks “Do I have a hidden door into my heart? And have you found it. At this Odysseus only smiled. ‘That is for you to tell me’ he said” (Atwood, 2005, p.58). In other parts, Penelope re-tells occurrences to the reader where she directly constructs an external dialogue with the reader’s consciousness without any obstacles. Her aim is to unfold things that might be wrongly comprehended by the reader. Indeed, she admits to the reader the fact that she did identify her husband, while only feigning she had been taken in by his disguise because “it’s always an imprudence to step between a man and his own cleverness” (Atwood, 2005, p.137). Moreover, she accosts to the reader immediately and confesses, for instance, the reason why she pulled down her veil when Odysseus “asked [her] if [she] was going to Ithaca with him of [her] own free will or did [she] prefer to remain with [her] father” (p.49).

To some extent, the maids also point out to the importance of dialogue as “one of fundamental structuring principles of all discourse, written and spoken alike” (Cook, 1994, p.51). They concentrate on dialogue in variegated and diversified ways in order to gain the reader’s sympathy in judging their position as hanged girls in Hades. Therefore, their dialogue, mainly external, aims at tracing their real circumstances in all possible ways. They recite their chorus line in various forms as “A Popular Tune” (p.51), “An Idyll” (p. 65), “A Ballad” (p.125), “A Drama” (p.147), “An Anthropology Lecture” (p.163), “Videotape”(p.175) and “A Love Song”(p.191). Declaiming the reader straightway, the maids load the reader with part of the responsibility of their current position and keep saying “you” and “the educated mind” (Atwood, 2005, p.163-168). They parallel the reader with the role of the judge to attain their justice. In the last few pages, they address the reader saying:

You are our last hope! We implore you to inflict punishment and exact vengeance on our behalf! Be our defenders, we who had none in life! Smell out Odysseus wherever he goes! From one place to another, from one life to another, whatever disguise he puts on, whatever shape he may take, hunt him down! Dog his footsteps, on earth or in Hades, wherever he may take refuge, in songs and in plays, in tomes and in theses, in marginal notes and in appendices! Appear to him in our forms, the forms of our pitiable corpses! Let him never be at rest! (Atwood, 2005, p.183).

The maids require justice from the reader by giving him/her both the judge and the attorney positions for the defense of the twenty-first century court. They admit to both the reader and the judge their actual circumstances, without bodies but just “symbols” (p.168). Therefore, they can’t avenge upon Odysseus and demand help from the judge’s wisdom. For the maids, this wisdom is disguised by the reader’s insight with his/her educated mind to exact retaliation on their behalf. They equate the role of the reader with the judge’s role.

The reader, thus, will deconstruct his/her viewpoint because of the maids’ realization of his/her role in rewriting the story one more time by modified perspectives. Subsequently, the novel obtains its dialogical frame in both Atwood’s voice and the narrators’ voice within two layers, external and internal, as mentioned earlier. Such frame illustrates Bakhtin’s unique form of discourse called dialogized heteroglossia. In such discourse, says Bakhtin, “there are two voices, two meanings and two expressions” and heteroglossia serves “another’s speech in another’s language” (*Dialogic Imagination*, 1981, p.324).

Therefore, and after entrenching the novel, heteroglossia, says Utku Tuglu (2011), becomes “a represented speech expressing authorial intentions, but these intentions are refracted in varying degrees in the represented speech of the characters” (p.23). The author’s version of the story and the narrators’ version are brought together, and they are coordinated in such a harmonized way that is conceivable to look at both of them separately and /or mutually. In this way, the reader locates himself/herself among different voices and visions. These separate voices, in fact, bisect each other to obtain an opposed dialogical context.

Penelope’s vision of life in the modern world diverges from Odysseus’ vision in the classical one. She recognizes her role in radically questioning Odysseus’ version of the story. Actually, she doubts ‘the available forms of representation and the available mode of knowledge within culture’ [qtd in Monica Bottez, 2012, p.51]. When she realizes that she is turned into a story, Penelope decides to open her mouth. She concedes that it is her own time to “contradict” and to open her eyes after “[she] turned a blind eye” (Atwood, 2005, p.3). While she is alive “[she] wanted happy endings in those days, and happy endings are best achieved by keeping the right doors looked and going to sleep during the

rampages” (p.3). However, the main events unfold themselves to become less legendary in Hades. Thence, she “realized how many people were laughing at [her] behind [her] back- how they were jeering, making jokes about [her], jokes both clean and dirty; how they were turning [her] into a story, or into several stories, though not the kind of stories [she] would prefer to hear about [herself]” (Atwood, 2005, p.3). The story she narrates is both similar and different to her husband’s story. Yet, she has to wait for a long time to provide a strong defense and to avoid being guilty.

By deconstructing Odysseus’ story, Penelope acknowledges in a vicarious way the contradictory nature of her husband’s story. Bravely enough, she admits to both the reader and the people down in Hades many official stories, like the veil incident, for instance. She avows her real motive for pulling down the veil. This act of pulling the veil, in fact, is done consciously to hide the fact that she is laughing (Atwood, 2005, p.49). This act is also interpreted as an answer that silently bespoke her husband’s desire.

Another new detail that Penelope credits in her recounted version is the fact that she did recognize her husband from the very beginning. She pretends, with her husband’s return, that she has been taken by his disguise “as a dirty old beggar” because “if a man takes pride in his disguising skills, it would be a foolish wife who would claim to recognize him: it’s always an imprudence to step between a man and the reflection of his own cleverness” [5] (Atwood, 2005, p.36-137). Moreover, Penelope re-invites her wedding night and she confesses how she is schooled by Odysseus. In re-narrating the story, Penelope gives the true account of her scream at the wedding night. She also explains how she is schooled in the art of pretending by her husband, Odysseus:

Forget everything you have been told, he whispered, I’m not going to hurt you, or not very much. But it would help us both if you could pretend. I’ve been told you’re a clever girl. Do you think you could manage a few screams? That would satisfy them – they’re listening at the door – and they’ll leave us in peace and we can take our time to become friends (Atwood, 2005, p.44).

In this way, Penelope is aware of her role as a story teller in deconstructing what is already known to bring her own remarkable version. Indeed, she seeks the “[reader’s] attention” (p.144) in charging the new facets the old outdated version.

Penelope witnesses both the classical and the modern time and questions her husband’s version of the story. In this recognition, she is conscious of the reader’s role in parodying her version as she did in parodying her husband’s to deconstruct a sequel from a prequel version. With her husband’s return home, she avows while exchanging stories with her husband:

The two of us were – by our own admission – proficient and shameless liars of long standing. It’s a wonder either of us believed a word the other said.

But we did.

Or so we told each other. (Atwood, 2005, p.173)

Consequently, the reader hints the truth value of the narrators. Practically, she highlights the unreliability of their enumerations. Moreover, she describes her husband’s version, when they reciprocate stories, as “the nobler versions” (p. 172). Thus, Penelope becomes aware to the fact that she might become a sequel of another prequel version since she herself is a sequel of a classical work. Her awareness of this fact explains why she contradicts her version of the story at the end to indicate how she herself may be an unreliable narrator.

Since it is told by the voice of minority, unreliable ones, *The Penelopiad* is a hybrid text. Because of Atwood’s inventive writing, it deconstructs the norm. It is recounted from the other’s perspectives, the excluded ones in *The Odyssey*. Instead of Homer’s omniscient context, the novel is enhanced by the existence of other genres in its structure. Alongside heteroglossia and dialogism, this new protruded structure contributes to the literary language’s stratification, and thus to its own specific characteristics.

The genre of the novel, according to Bakhtin, is a genre that permits what he calls many “plastic possibilities” (*Dialogic Imagination*, 1981, p.3). One can argue that Atwood’s *The Penelopiad* is one of the best novels to represent such possibilities. The discussion so far in this paper reveals how this novel has a flexible skeleton that permits many possibilities, it can create any desired shape beyond its original one, and it will not limit itself to the brittle skeleton of Homer’s epic. Atwood’s novel is permeated with a chorus line of maids belonging to several genres. Penelope’s first narration is interwoven with ten chapters delivered by a chorus line, “eight written in various lyrical forms and two in dramatic form” (Bottez, 2012, p.49).

Thus, new patterns are expected to emerge to reveal the inner lives and the new aspects in *The Penelopiad* that differ from its prequel, *The Odyssey*, with its diversified and inclusive nature. This extraordinary feature is what Barbara Johnstone (2008) hints at as “breaking the conventions” of a discourse to create an “effective move, because it can serve to remind people in the situation what the usual expectations are” (p.140). The chorus plays a fundamental role in the incompleteness nature of the novel. The maids recite their chorus in a modern genre while rejecting the classical form of the expected environment of the chorus’ appearance. They include both classical and modern ways of narrating and performing their voices to participate in the novel’s distinguished diversity while maintaining its unique identity. The chorus mutates in its style and form and the maids perform an idyll in “The Birth of Telemachus, An Idyll” (p.65). In other chapters, they play the role of other characters as Penelope and Eurycleia, the nurse, in drama version like as in the chapter entitled “The Perils of Penelope, A Drama” (p.147). Moreover, they break the conventions by singing a song in Ch XXVIII “We’re Walking Behind You, A Love Song” (p.191) to celebrate their pursuit of happiness in

hunting Odysseus and they sing “We’ll never leave you, we’ll stick to you like your shadow, soft and relentless as glue. Pretty maids, all in a row” (Atwood, 2005, p.193). Ironically, they solemnize, to a certain extent, what they could not achieve while they are alive. In this variation and deviation of discourse, the maids’ form of narration hints at their ability to preserve their identity in various forms to capture the essence of their lost identity. In fact, Atwood is looking for such diverged discourse. Atwood preserves the novel’s identity by ingesting the identity of others, the maids, in its shattered and distributed forms throughout Penelope’s first narration. By using this kind of discourse, Atwood effectively illustrates Bakhtin’s propositions in this regard, especially when he says:

The novel permits the incorporation of various genres, both artistic (inserted short stories, lyrical songs, poems, dramatic scenes, etc.) and extra artistic/everyday, rhetorical, scholarly, religious genres and others). In principle, any genre could be included in the construction of the novel...Such incorporated genres usually preserve within the novel their own structural integrity and independence, as well as their own linguistic and stylistic peculiarities (*Dialogic Imagination*, 1981, p.320-321).

Bakhtin welcomes such an orchestration of different types of genres in order to break the standard of one generic form which permits diversity in form since the content is differentiated by its narrators. In other words, the outcome will be a novel with a multiplicity of different genres. As a result, a homogenous novel, a novel that is composed of one pure genre, is rejected. This diversity of other genres is associated with “different voices or different frames” (Johnstone, 2008, p.140). Therefore, reorganization is made between “form and substance, in one hand, and between content and expression, on the other” (Georgakopoulou and Goutsos, 1997, p.10).

Besides form, *The Penelopiad* has a structure that combines both the novel’s and epic’s time and, as a result, changeable styles might flourish. The maids’ narrative style intersects Penelope’s style, first person narration, to engage the volatile content and form. In the chapter entitled “Dreamboats, A Ballad” (p.125), for instance, the maids perform collectively a ballad as one voice. They experience sleeping as their ultimate happiness that will enable them to “sail the waves in golden boats” through their dreams. Through their collective voice, they use the pronoun “we” and draw attention to their life and project their real conditions. This collective voice can be heard in other chapters as in “A Rope- Jumping Rhyme” (p.5), “Kiddie Mourn, A Lament by the Maids” (p.13), “The Birth of Telemachus, An Idyll” (p.65), “The Wily Sea Captain, A Sea Shanty” (p. 93) and “Envoi” (p. 195).

The maids use the same style in another chapter entitled “The Perils of Penelope, A Drama” (p.147) where the voice of two other maids is heard individually. In it, two of the maids disguise as Penelope and her nurse, Eurycleia. They recount Penelope’s conspiracy in giving up her maids and blaming them for the whole circumstances of Odysseus’ absence. Consequently, the maids account their suppressed tongue in defending themselves by letting two of the maids bespoken Penelope’s betrayal of the maids and thus replaying to such betrayal collectively. Indeed, at the end of this chapter, they advocate themselves in tap- dance shoes saying:

Blame it on the maids!/ Those naughty little jades!/ Hang them high and don’t ask why-/ Blame it on the maids! Blame it on the slaves!/ The toys of rogues and knaves!/ Let them dangle, let them strangle-/ Blame it on the slaves!/ Blame it on the sluts!/ Those poxy little scuts!/ We’ve got the dirt on every skirt-/ Blame it on the sluts! (Atwood, 2005, p.151-152).

In this chapter, the maids express in their own words how they were seen by Penelope as “jades, slaves, rogues, knaves, sluts, and little scuts.” Since they are dead with Penelope in Hades, the maids seek justice in a neutral way and play Penelope’s role in her infidelity of the maids with their remarks of this situation at the end of the chapter. To a certain extent, they demand equality from the reader by giving him/her the truth value of their previous conditions.

Likewise, in “The Trial of Odysseus, as Videotaped by the Maids” (p.175), the maids incorporate a deviated and a defamiliarized form through a videotaped court. In this chapter, other characters, besides the twelve maids, are engaged as attorney for the defense and the judge. Therefore, the reader can grasp a patterning in form and style through such classical and modern features’ germination. In fact, Johnstone (2008) asserts how such features are essential to a comprehensive understanding of genre knowledge (p.31-33). It contributes to the reader’s understanding of the nature of the novel as a genre which attempts to parody other genres and expose “the conventionality of forms and their languages” (Bakhtin, *Dialogic Imagination*, p.5). Thus, the novel encourages other genres to change while preserving its own identified features.

Enhanced by the existence of other genres, the structure of the novel is not “synonymous with form but may refer to the organization or articulation of both form and content” (Georgakopoulou and Goutsos, 1997, p.11).. Such structure plays an essential role in promoting, condensing and stratifying the diversity of the novel’s language. This unique structure is an indispensable precondition for the genre of the novel. Projected into different forms, the novel’s structure, says Johnstone (2008), maintains its cohesive nature through the use of language “to construct and project a coherent, more durable personal identity” (p.155). Therefore, the structure portrays the social identity of its narrators into different forms.

Since Atwood’s *The Penelopiad* presents the voice of the minority, *Penelopiad* and the maids, the novel’s structure is defamiliarized to parallel others’ identity. Atwood tackles the novel in a distinguished way and each part re-invites and/or reconstructs certain episodes in *The Odyssey*. Each part is entitled differently to indicate ironically or directly its content. Significantly, each chapter stands alone in its remarkable story-making; which can be seen in certain chapters like “My Childhood” (p.7), “Asphodel” (p.15), “My Marriage” (p.23) and “The Scar” (p.39).

Actually, the sense of defamiliarization is perceived by having different parts with different representations. To articulate this technique of defamiliarization, Atwood re-invites Homer's epic into chapters, some are written in paragraphs while others are recited by the chorus. Consequently, this defamiliarization leads to what Cook (1994) calls "discourse deviation" (p.197). Cook (1994) indicates how this deviation causes "patterning at the linguistic and text-structural levels" and each pattern at one level affects other patterns at other levels (p.198). Atwood demonstrates her point of view in rewriting *The Odyssey* by presenting different contexts with two frames of narration as opposed to the single context of Homer's epic. However, it was Atwood's creative writing that puts such a structure in a unique configuration.

IV. CONCLUSION

To conclude, the analysis of Atwood's *The Penelopiad* according to Bakhtin's concepts of heteroglossia, dialogism, and form and content reveals that it is a dialogized heteroglot novel with a varied and versified structure. It is one of the best novels that represent the stratification of the literary language, a stratification that proves to be a meaningful and a remarkable context originated by Atwood to provide the reader with a heteroglot novel that enables him/her to better understand the novel and to put it in its modern context as opposed to the classical context of the *The Odyssey*. Atwood provides the reader with a novel that best illustrates Bakhtin's celebration of the novel as genre characterized by its amplitude to include verified and multiple meanings. The novel, according to both Bakhtin and Atwood, exhibits language as a social phenomenon rather than as an abstract system.

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Kifah (Moh'd Khair) Ali Al Omari was born in Amman, Jordan, on June 6, 1970. He earned his BA in English at The University of Jordan, Amman in 1991, his MA in English Literature from the same university in 1995, and his PhD in English Literature from The University of Texas at Arlington in 2006. He has taught English for more than five years in different public and private schools in Jordan before he worked as a Teaching Assistant of English in different universities, including The University of Jordan, The Hashemite University, and The University of Texas at Arlington. He works now as an Assistant Professor of English literature at the Department of English Language and Literature in The Hashemite University, Jordan. He works also as Director of the Office of International Relations at the same university for more than two years. His research interests include nineteenth- and twentieth-century American literature, detective fiction, modern theories of literary criticism, and cultural studies. Kifah Al Omari is a member of APETAU – Association of Professors of English and Translation at Arab Universities- since 2008.

Hala Abdel Razzaq A. Jum'ah was born in Zarqa, Jordan, on June, 12, 1990. She earned her BA degree in English Language and Literature from The University of Jordan, Amman, in 2012. She is studying now for her MA degree in English Literature in the Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan. She works as a graduate teaching assistant in the Department of English at Hashemite University, Jordan, during the academic year 2013/2014. Hala's research interests include Drama in general, and William Shakespeare in particular, nineteenth and twentieth century American Literature, and modern theories of literary criticism.

Representation Meaning of Multimodal Discourse—A Case Study of English Editorials in *The Economist*

Jing Yang

Yanching Institute of Technology, Sanhe, Langfang, Hebei Province, China

Yi Zhang

Yanching Institute of Technology, Sanhe, Langfang, Hebei Province, China

Abstract—Resources such as images, colors, sounds and actions have already been regarded as different types of modes which fulfill the meaning-making. Multimodal discourse refers to two or more modes working together for the meaning-making of the whole discourse. With Kress & van Leeuwen's Visual Grammar as the theoretical framework and based on Royce's inter-semiotic complementarity theory, the paper conducts a multimodal discourse analysis of English editorials in the Economist from ideational aspects. The study of ideational aspect focuses on factors such as participants, processes (action, reactional, etc.), circumstance, etc. The analysis reveals the pictures' functions in meaning interpretation and explains the relations between the pictures and the verbal texts. English editorial discourses usually possess multimodal characteristics displayed by two semiotic modes (visual mode and verbal mode). English editorials give almost equal weight to both their pictures and verbal texts. Since English editorials are mainly to explain, to judge and to comment on hot issues, both their pictures and verbal texts coexist and integrate with each other to accomplish these tasks. Therefore, pictures, as an important component of English editorials, also can encourage and help readers to actively and effectively understand editorials' main ideas and attitudes.

Index Terms—multimodality, editorial discourse, visual grammar

I. INTRODUCTION

As science and technology develop rapidly, the world enters an information era which is also an age of international communication. With wide application of digital technologies, internet and multimedia, meaning-making rarely depends on language alone. Image, color, sound and action symbol which have been considered as paralanguage no longer play a subordinate role in modern communication. Combined with linguistic discourse, the paralanguage is also incorporated into semiotic resources for meaning-making jointly. For example, advertisements, posters, textbook, newspaper, etc usually include two or more different semiotic modes such as images, sound and language, etc. These different systems or possible "channels" (e.g. speech, writing, and images) which achieve meaning-making practices are identified as semiotic modes. Thus, some meaning-making practices or communicative events present the multimodality.

Just as Lim (2004) said that "we live in a multimodal society, which makes meaning through the co-employment of semiotic resources" (p.52). Nowadays, multimodal communication, instead of monomodal communication, has become the mainstream of communication of human beings. The majority of newspapers and magazines add visual images concerned with the contents of newspaper and magazine articles with the aim of helping readers have a thorough understanding of topics and contents of newspaper and magazine articles. These visual images such as pictures, photos and caricatures, etc are adopted to transmit the information of newspaper and magazine articles. Multimodality is one of characteristics embedded in these discourses.

As much attention has been paid to multimodal discourse, there is an urgent need to analyze how visual images function in the meaning making of the discourse on the condition that two semiotic resources are used together. Based on Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar and Kress and van Leeuwen's Visual Grammar, and with Royce's inter-semiotic complementarity framework as a research tool, taking editorials in the Economist as examples, the paper will conduct a multimodal discourse analysis of English editorials in western press, analyze and discuss how visual images converge with verbal texts in the multimodal discourse to reflect social reality and culture.

II. EDITORIAL DISCOURSE

According to Wikipedia, an editorial is "an opinion piece written by the senior editorial staff or publisher of a newspaper or magazine". It is usually unsigned and also called "leading articles" or "leader". Editorials in western press usually belong to 'opinion' section, whose topics ranges from politics, economy to military operations. As the author of

Editorial Writing, M. Lyle Spencer(1924) defined it as “a presentation of fact and opinion in concise, logical, pleasing order for the sake of entertaining, of influencing opinion, or of interpreting significant news in such a way that its importance to the average reader will be clear” (p.16). William Pinkerton once summarized the four purposes of editorials which were published in the Nieman Report. Then, Rivers (1988) paraphrased as follows:“(1) Explaining the news; (2) Filling in background;(3) Forecasting the future;; (4) Passing judgment”(p.25). The above-mentioned definitions only point out the functions and purposes of editorials rather than their composition. The previous researches mostly focus on single-mode editorials or the text part of editorials rather than other semiotic codes existing in editorials. Multimodal editorials refer to those editorials involving two or more modes. Editorials with visual and verbal modes are the mostly commonly seen in daily life.

III. MULTIMODAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF EDITORIALS IN WESTERN PRESS

The author collects 13 samples from online The Economist, involving various topics, such as politics, society, culture and economy. These samples are mainly chosen from the magazines of the 2010 and 2011 year. They are applied as specific examples in our discussion so as to explore the representation meaning of visual images and the relationship between visual images and verbal text with images and explain how visual images and verbal text combine with each other to expose meanings.

A. *Systemic-functional Grammar*

Halliday holds that language is perceived as social semiotic in his Systemic-Functional Theory. He develops systemic-functional grammar in the 1960s, which is part of a broad social semiotic approach to language in which language is considered as a socially-based semiotic system. He believes that language incorporates three metafunctions. Generally speaking, the three metafunctions are principles that semiotic resources simultaneously present a method for constructing ideational meaning and for fulfilling social relations. These principles then could organize discourse, which is the textual metafunction. Thus, ideational metafunction refers to the representation of different experience processes in reality, which is realized by transitivity system and relates to the field aspects of a text. Interpersonal metafunction indicates that when communicating with others, people exchange their feelings, attitude and judgments by means of mood and modality. It matters a text's aspects of tenor or interactivity. Textual metafunction, which concerns mode, focuses on how to use language to organize a cohesive text and “establishing continuity in time and space” (Halliday, 1978, p.60) through thematic structure and information structure. In a word, the three metafunctions laid a foundation for verify the functionalities of semiotic resources.

B. *Visual Images*

In recent years, Kress and Van Leeuwen take a view of Halliday's systemic-functional grammar to study visual images. They consider Halliday's three metafunctions as a main tool to analyze any human communication system. Though three metafunctions at first are applied to study language, they do not only focus on language signs. Scholars such as Kress and van Leeuwen also extend their study on discourse including visual images. Kress & van Leeuwen (1996) also suggest that “the visual, like all semiotic modes, has to serve several communicational (and representational) requirements, in order to function as a full system of communication” (p.40). They develop Visual Grammar for further study. Kress and Van Leeuwen's Reading Images: The Grammar Of Visual Design (2006) introduces Visual Grammar, which is a clear multimodal approach to visual communication and gives a thorough and systematic illustration of the grammar of visual design. They named representational meaning, interactive meaning and compositional meaning in correspondence with Halliday's ideational, interpersonal and textual metafunctions.

Representational Meaning

"Any semiotic mode has to be able to represent aspects of the world as it is experienced by humans. In other words, it has to be able to represent objects and their relation in a world outside the representational system" (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006, p.42) corresponding to Halliday's ideational metafunction, visual grammar introduces representation meaning which functions well in visual mode. Objects or elements existing in visual images will be called "participants" which compose of people, place and things of various kinds represented in and by images. Actually, every semiotic act comprises two types of participants, one is interactive participants and the other is represented participants. Interactive participants are those in the act of communication, “who speak and listen or write and read, make images or view them” (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006, p.48). Represented participants mention those “who constitute the subject matter of the communication; that is, the people, places and things (including abstract ‘things’) represented in and by the speech or writing or image, the participants about whom or which we are speaking or writing or producing images” (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006, p.48).

Representational meaning can be classified into two categories: narrative representations and conceptual representation.

a. Narrative Representation

Narrative representation refers that "when participants are connected by a vector, they are represented as doing something to or for each other" (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006, p.59). Such kind of vectorial patterns focus on illustrating "unfolding actions and events, processes of change, transitory spatial arrangements"(Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006, p.59).

Vector, as the distinctive feature of narrative processes, is usually realized by elements appearing in pictures that form "an oblique line, often a quite strong, diagonal line" (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 2006, p.59). Take the following sketch (Fig. 1) as an example; the man in blue pushes the red ball with his hands. His outstretched arms and hands form a vector. Actually, vectors can be reflected by various ways, such as human bodies or tools in action.

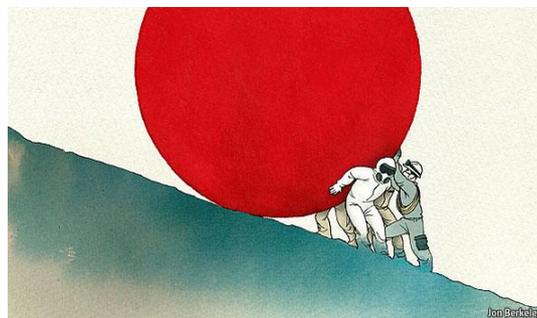


Figure.1 (The Economist, Mar 17th 2011)

Based on the kinds of vectors and the number and the kind of participants included in visual images, different kinds of narrative processes could be distinguished. It is mainly concerned with action, experience and events, mainly including action process, reactional process and speech and mental process.

1. Action Processes

In narrative process, one participant from which vector departs is named "Actor". If visual images only include one participant, it is usually an Actor. The process is non-transactional in which action has no Goal and "is not 'done to' or 'aimed at' anyone or anything" (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p.63). However, the transactional structure consists of both Actor and Goal. Goal is "the participant at whom or which the vector is directed" (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p.64).

Sample 1 is an example of action process (Fig.2).



Figure 2. Time for Plan B (The Economist, Jan 13th 2011)

In Sample 1, seven persons sitting in one boat are in a dreadful plight. Behind them was a torrential waterfall. They row against the current with all their strength. The left four persons spare no pains rowing in hope of preventing the boat from being washed away. The rest three persons seem to be more nervous and more frightened than the left four ones. They have already approached the danger. In this sample, six persons are the Actor. Their paddles act as the vector by forming the oblique lines with the current (the Goal). These action processes are transactional. Besides, another action process is expressed by the running waterfall. It is a non-transactional process that is not instigated by persons or things and has no Goal. Therefore, non-transactional action process is analogous to the intransitive verb in language.

The verbal text of Sample 1 discusses that after the failure of Europe's bail-out strategy; plainly insolvent European countries need to conduct debts restructuring to get rid of sovereign-debt crisis. Combined with analysis of recent situation in several European countries, they still have a fighting chance of putting the crisis behind them if they choose to restructure their debts.

Seven people represent seven European countries (Portugal, Belgium, Spain, Greece, Ireland, Italy, and Germany) trapped in the sovereign-debt crisis. The waterfall indicates this crisis. If these countries do not take urgent actions, they would be washed away.

The sketch firstly attracts readers' attention and makes them wonder in mind what it implies. With this question in mind, readers can quickly grasp the main idea of verbal text and have a deep impression. Thus, the sketch aids readers in understanding the verbal part and demonstrates the main idea of verbal text vividly.

Sample 2 is an example of action process in which the Actor is unknown (Fig. 3).



Figure 3. Unfinished Business (The Economist May 12th 2011)

In Sample 2, a man wearing a suit is shackled by an iron chain. He snaps a stack of money in his mouth and stares at the viewers. He looks very angry and dissatisfied. The viewers could not be aware of who bind this man. Only the iron chain (vector) and this man (Goal) emerge in this image.

The essay mainly talks about how to fix problems existing in international banking to make it safer and how to relieve taxpayers' hardship. In face of the financial crisis, bankers gather together to discuss how to hold a lot more capital to protect banks against unexpected losses.

In this picture, the man bound by the iron chain indicates the taxpayer is still trapped in loss although he has a thick buffer of equity and convertible debt in hand. No one knows who bind him. As readers see this sketch, they are curious about who bind this man and why this man is bound by the iron chain. There is no doubt that his condition is in desperate straits. As readers skim through the verbal text, they can create a clear and vivid picture in their mind.

2. Reactional Processes

The process is reactional in which "the vector is formed by an eyeline, by the direction of the glance of one or more of the represented participants" (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p.67). It contains two components: reactor and phenomena. Reactor is one who conducts the looking behavior. It could be human or a human-like animal. Phenomenon is "the participant at whom or which the reactor is looking" (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p.67).

Then, Sample 3 is an example of transactional reactional process (Fig. 4).

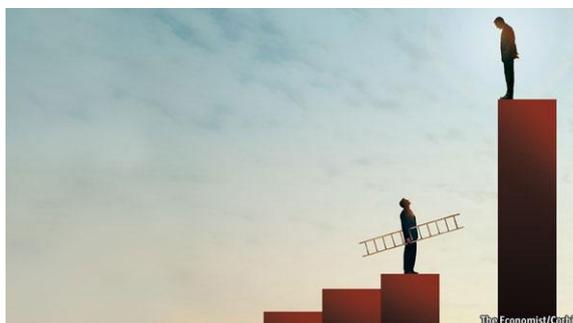


Figure 4. The Rich and the Rest (The Economist, Jan 20th 2011)

In this picture, one man stands on the lower stairs while the other man is in a higher place. Both of them look at each other. The man in lower place holds a ladder in his hand (this is a transactional action process in which the man and ladder are Actor and Goal respectively). His dream is to reach the place where the other man stands. Meanwhile, gazing at the man in lower place, the man in higher place is observing how the man in lower place takes action. The eyeline between the two men is the vector which indicates the whole process is reaction. The man in higher place acts as the Reactor while the transactional action structure plays the role of phenomenon.

Sample 3 verbally talk about the dangers of a rising gap between the rich and the rest in various countries and arguments about inequality. Then, it discusses how to improve such condition.

The one in the higher place is the representative of the rich while the one on the lower stairs is on behalf of the rest. Although the one in the lower place has a ladder in his hands, he still can not reach the higher place. The gap between two men indicates the rising inequality. By this picture, readers guess that there is a comparison between two men. They also find out that the man in the lower place has difficulty in overcoming this existing gap. Readers gain useful information from the picture. Then, they would have a better understanding of the verbal text.

Sample 4 is an example of non-transactional reactional process (Fig. 5).



Figure 5. Time for A Change (The Economist, May 26th 2011)

Sample 4 displays a lady looking at the left side with a smile on her face. Her left arm keeps a “please” position. Her smile and gesture show her high degrees of adaptability. Although the corresponding phenomenon had not displayed before the viewers, this lady show her attitude and expects to communicate with others. The direction of her gaze represents the vector. Only the Reactor (the lady) comes forth in this sample. Such condition gives the viewers an opportunity to imagine what this lady are looking at. In that sense, it creates a strong sense of empathy or identification with the represented participations.

3. Speech Process and Mental Process

A special vector appears in comic strips, quotes in school textbooks, on the screens of automatic bank tellers, etc. "The oblique protrusions of the thought balloons and dialogue balloons that connect drawings of speakers or thinkers to their speech or thought" (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p.68).

Sample 5 is an example of speech and mental process (Fig. 6).



Figure 6. Back To the Coffee House (The Economist, Jul 7th 2011)

Sample 5 illustrates speech and mental process by presenting different persons with various opinions. These persons chat in a room (like cafe). Two or three of them gather together and talk about various topics. It seems to indicate that much more people discuss diverse topics in public places.

Sample 5 refers that internet take news industry back to the coffee house, a diverse, argumentative and stridently alive environment. It also points out two areas of concern and provides some useful advice.

The sketch recreates the scene in the coffee house with a number of people gathering and chatting with each other. The dialogue balloons suggest their conversations with different topics. As readers has an impression of a coffee house from the sketch and then read the verbal part, they would recognize the similarity of information dissemination in the coffee house and on the internet.

Circumstances

Narrative process may present some participants not in the form of vectors but in other means. They are not the main participants but without them narrative processes may lose some information. They are circumstances which are subdivided into setting (locative circumstance), means (tools), and accompaniment. In Sample 4, compared with this lady, the background has softer focus, because the background is setting. Then, this lady extends her arm to an unseen participant. She delivers her attitude to the unseen participants with her hand. Her hand is a circumstance of means.

In Sample 6 (Fig. 7), two ladies and two men stand in one line and look towards the viewers with big smiles. No vector links these four participants up. So their relations can be interpreted as accompaniment.



Figure 7. A Green Revolution (The Economist, Mar 31st 2011)

b. Conceptual Representation

Conceptual representation is a non-narrative process involving “representing participants in terms of their more generalized and more or less stable and timeless essence, in terms of class, or structure or meaning” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p.79). Compared with narrative representation, conceptual representation has no vector and also has three structures involved.

1. Classificational Process

“Classificational processes relate participants to each other in terms of a ‘kind of’ relation, a taxonomy: at least one set of participants will play the role of Subordinates with respect to at least one other participant, the Superordinate” (Kress & van Leeuwen, 2006, p.79). As viewers could figure out the superordinate from the similar features visually existing between subordinates or only verbally in the accompanying text, this structure is covert taxonomy. This structure connects participants with each other by equal distance when these participants are in the same size and the same direction towards the horizontal and vertical axes.

In overt taxonomies, one participant would be superordinate for some of the other participants while it also would be subordinate with respect to others. Such kind of participants can be called “interordinate”. In other words, level is another characteristic of overt taxonomies on which participants, to some extent, possess the same peculiarity.

Sample 7 (Fig. 8) is an example of classificational process, which indicates an ordering and usually includes two participants: subordinates and superordinates.

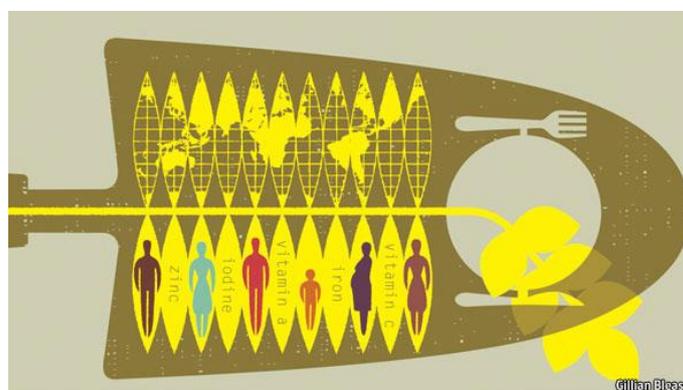


Figure 8. Quality, Not Quantity (The Economist, Mar 24th 2011)

In Sample 7, spindle-shaped elements at the bottom represent diverse nutritive substances and people of different age groups and skin colors. Both these persons and nutritive elements are subordinates. As for these six persons, their superordinate is the human being all over the world. Meanwhile, zinc, iodine, vitamin A, iron, vitamin C can be generally designated as nutritive elements that are vital to human health. With equal space left in every two spindle-shaped elements, same size of each element and same direction towards the horizontal and vertical axes, this classificational process is covert. In covert taxonomy, the similarities between subordinate elements could be concluded by viewers or be indicated in accompanying text. Therefore, superordinate usually can be presumed.

2. Analytical Process

Analytical processes connect participants in terms of a part-whole structure. Two participants involved in these processes are respectively one Carrier (the whole) and any number of Possessive Attributes (the parts).

Sample 8 (Fig. 9) is an example of exhaustive analytical process, which is a part-whole structure, involving two participants: one Carrier (the whole) and several Possessive Attributes (the parts).



Figure 9. The Union's Troubled State (The Economist, Jan 27th 2011)

In the visual mode of Sample 8, all possessive attributives occupy the whole space of the Carrier. The map of the United States (the Carrier) clearly marks the areas and names of all the states (the Possessive Attributes) with different colors and black words. This image provides not only the general geographical concept of America but also detailed geographical distribution of every state. From this image, viewers further understand the relative location of all states.

Sample 9 (Fig. 10) is an inclusive analytical process only displaying some of the Possessive Attributes rather than all of them. In this process, part of the space of the Carrier has been filled with certain possessive attributives. This process leaves the rest of the carrier unaccounted for and unanalyzed.



Figure 10. New Humility for the Hegemon (The Economist, Jul 30th 2011)

In Sample 9, Jammu & Kashmir region which is marked by red lines demonstrates the inclusive analytical process. Pakistan and India are regarded as Carriers. Part of Pakistan and Indian Territory belong to this region. But the rest of two countries do not take up the space of this region. So the territory included in Jammu & Kashmir region is equal to some of Possessive Attributes.

Sample 10 (Fig.11) is an example of spatio-temporal analytical structures.

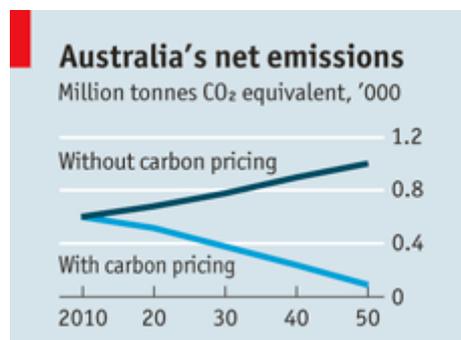


Figure 11. Poles Apart (The Economist, Jul 14th 2011)

Such processes are two-dimensional charts with spatial and temporal axes. Therefore, these two-dimensional charts creates line graph to illustrate participants' dynamic movements. Usually such charts would show diverse actions such as change, grow, reduce, increase, decrease, etc. Line graphs transfer the analytical processes that underlie the graphs into dynamic processes. In Sample 10, originally, Australia's net emissions are considered as the Carrier while the changes along an ordered timescale are perceived as Possessive Attributes. However, such line graph finally pays more attention to describe the development of Australia's net emissions from 2010 to 2050 under the context of "without

carbon pricing” and “with carbon pricing”. According to the chart, in this fixed period of time, Australia’s net emissions will increase in the condition of “without carbon pricing”. The growth trend is reflected by an oblique line from lower left point (2010) to higher right point (2050). On the contrast, in the same period, Australia’s net emissions will decrease under the situation of “with carbon pricing”. Such condition is realized by another oblique line with opposite direction, compared with the growth line.

3. Symbolic Processes

Symbolic process focuses on what a participant means or is. If two participants are included in this structure, the Carrier achieves its meaning or fulfills its identity in this process while the Symbolic Attribute represents the meaning or identity itself. This type of structure is called symbolic attributive. If only one participant exists in this structure, it is the Carrier. This kind of process is named Symbolic Suggestive.

Sample 11 (Fig. 12) is an example of symbolic suggestive process which only has the Carrier.



Figure 12. What's Wrong with America's Economy? (The Economist, Apr 28th 2011)

In Sample 11, the statue of liberty presented in the visual mode is the Carrier. It represents the United States. Although the viewers have no idea of the main topic, at their first glance at this picture, they know this article is related to the United States.

The verbal part of Sample 11 discusses the underlying obstacles that the America’s economy faces, such as stagnating living standards, inability to create enough job opportunities, and big government deficit, etc. It also questions measures that President Obama takes to tackle these problems.

In real world, the statue of liberty holds a torch in her hand. But in this picture, the statue of liberty holds a spanner in her hands, which indicates the solutions used to tackle the existing problems. The sliding line graph in the other hand of the statue of liberty represents economic problems existing in the United States.

This picture gives a brief introduction of American current economic situation and measures applied to deal with economic problems. Then, readers could gain detailed information from verbal text. It will be easily and quickly for readers to grasp editors’ opinion on these difficulties which disturb America’s economy.

Sample 12 (Fig. 13) is an example of symbolic attributive process including the Carrier and .the Symbolic Attributes.

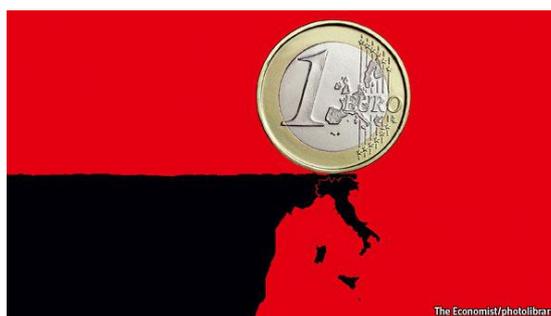


Figure 13. On The Edge (The Economist, Jul 14th 2011)

In Sample 12, one euro is put on the edge of a black cliff. It seems that the minor part of the cliff (the Carrier) could not stand the weight of one euro. It would collapse at anytime. In that case, the one euro would roll down. The shape of the minor part of the cliff is identical to the shape of Italy. So Italy is the Symbolic Attribute. On behalf of Italy, this minor part indicates the current situation that Italy is faced with difficulties and problems which Italy urgently needs to be resolved.

The verbal text of sample eleven introduces that Italy is facing debt crisis, whose default would have calamitous consequences for the euro and the world economy. Then, it presents the causes of crisis and some solutions. The minor part of the cliff vividly presents Italy’s situation, whose position predicts the influence of Italy’s default on euro zone. At the first sight of this picture, readers could know that its verbal content is related to Italy who is in a severe condition. Then, with this view, they further find out the main thought of verbal text.

C. Ideational Inter-semiotic Complementarity

To be specific, verbal texts achieve ideational metafunction through transitivity system. Visual images, such as naturalistic visuals (photos, sketches, etc.) and mathematical visuals (graphs, etc.), fulfill representational meaning through narrative processes and conceptual processes.

Visual structures and visual processes embodied in images are associated with various participant roles. These visual structures and processes reflect the reality, experience and information. Royce's ideational inter-semiotic complementarity refers that "the identification of represented participants (who or what is in the visual frame, either animate or inanimate), the represented processes or the activity (what action is taking place, who or what is the actor or is acting, and who or what is the recipient or object of that action), the circumstances, or what those actions represent according to the wider context of situation (these may be locative or concerned with the setting, of accompaniment in terms of participants not involved with the action, and of means in terms of participants used by the actors), and the attributes, or the qualities and characteristics of the participants" (Royce, 1998a, p.70). Such features as participants, processes, circumstances, and attributes can be conflated into the visual message elements which characterize semantic properties. Corresponding to visual message elements, lexical items in verbal texts also produce a set of lexical inventories which can be explicated in view of linguistic concepts on cohesive attributes, such as repetition, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, meronymy. Collocation proposed by Halliday also can be used to interpret the ideational cohesive relations in multimodal text.

Editorials in the Economist involves two components, one is visual images (mostly sketch caricatures) while the other is verbal texts. Based on Royce's inter-semiotic complementarity framework, the following part selects one picture to conduct case study and discuss the interface between visual and verbal semiotic systems from ideational aspect.

Case Study—Sample 1

Sketch caricature is portrayed to represent familiar objects, entities, scenes, characters, or actions that are easily recognizable to the viewers. Such abstracted caricature embodies main features of represented participants and conveys particular attitude that the drawer intends to take. Usually, sketches transmit information by means of visual metaphors.

Ideational inter-semiotic complementarity is achieved by the examination of the identification of represented participants, the represented process (activity), the circumstances and the attributes. Several sense relations such as repetition, synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy, meronymy, collocation are applied to explicate the ideational cohesive relations between the visual and verbal modes in multimodal texts.



Figure 2. Time for Plan B (The Economist, Jan 13th 2011)

The verbal text of Sample 1 mainly discusses the restructuring of insolvent European countries' debts. As Europe's bail-out strategy (Plan A) is not working, there is an urgent need for Plan B which corresponds to the current situation of these European countries.

In the visual mode of Sample 1, represented participants are glossed as: seven people, which is verbally referred as seven European countries (Portugal, Belgium, Spain, Greece, Ireland, Italy, and Germany); the boat as a visual metaphor indicating the current situation of seven countries; and waterfall as a grim future (debt crisis). The process involved is rowing (debt restructuring), which is regarded as an action taken by seven people to avoid their boat to be washed away. It is also a visual metaphor. The Goal is to free from the danger. The circumstance is at the edge of the waterfall, which suggests the boat's present position (at the edge of waterfall) and future path (waterfall).

The following table would analyze the verbal and visual mode of Sample 1 and then discuss the inter-semiotic features. This table selects 17 key verbal sentences describing relative events, which happened in this visual sketch. It attempts to examine the represented participants (Actor and Goal), represented process (Process) and the Circumstance by which whether the visual and verbal modes could achieve ideational inter-semiotic complementarity or not.

TABLE I.
LEXICO-SEMANTIC (IDEATIONAL) INTER-SEMIOTIC COMPLEMENTARITY—SAMPLE 1

Visual mode S's (verbal text)	Actor: Seven people	Process: Rowing (solutions)	Goal: Boat (current situation)	Circumstance: At the edge of waterfall
(4)	Portugal (S)	Pay (S)		
(5)	Belgian (S)		Debt (S) Load of debt (S) Lack of leadership (C)	
(6)	Spain (S)	Hang on (S)		
(14)	Greece (S)	Rescue (S)		
(15)	Europe's politicians (S) Illiquid governments (M) German (S) Insolvent countries (M)	Create (S) Insistence (C) Restructure (C)	Loans (H) Default (C)	
(19)	Spain (S)	Keep (S)	Deep problems (S) A bank bail-out (C) Public debt (H)	
(20)	Italy (S) Belgium (S)		High debt levels (H) Ample private savings (A) Underlying budgets (A) Surplus (A)	
(28)	Euro-governments (M) IMF (C) Greece (S)	Rescue (S) Restructuring (C)		
(32)	Greece (S) Other peripherals (S)	Austerity plans (C)		
(38)	Greece (S)	Fiscal adjustment (C)	Debt burden (S)	Peak (A)
(39)	Irish (S) Europe (M)	Toil (S) Service (S) Pay off (S)	Rescue loans (S) Bondholders (C) Defunct banks (C)	
(42)	Greece (S) Ireland (S) European governments (M)	Rescue (S) Increase (A)	Overall debts (S) Private debts (H)	
(44)	Greece (S)	Reduce (S) Wipe out (S)	Debt (S) Private bondholders (C)	
(48)	Greece (S)	Halve (S)	Debt burden (S)	
(49)	Ireland (S)	Cut (S)	Writing down bank (C) Sovereign debt (H)	
(52)	The ECB (C) Belgium (S) Italy (S) Spain (S)	Defend (S)		
(53)	Europe's leaders (S)	Stick to (S)	Plan A (C)	Debt crisis (S)

Notes: Repetition (R), Synonymy (S), Antonymy (A), Hyponymy (H), Meronymy (M), Collocation (C).

The above table illustrates lexica-semantic correspondence between the visual mode and the verbal text. Since the verbal text does not repeat the represented participants in the sketch directly, the use of repetition is absent in this table.

As for the main seven characters in the sketch, the use of synonymy is realized by verbal words such as “Portugal, Greece, Italy, Spain, Germany, and Ireland” in correspondence with seven people, reinforcing the main text-topic in both the sketch and the verbal text concerning seven people (representing seven European countries). To further support the development of the verbal text, Meronymy has been used to show the links between seven separate countries and European countries involved in debt crisis. It is fulfilled by verbal words such as “Europe, Illiquid governments, Insolvent countries, Euro-governments, etc.” indicating the place where these events happened and countries involved. The tool of Hyponymy is accomplished by words such as “Loans, Sovereign debt, Public debt, High debt levels, etc.” referring to current debt situation. The use of Hyponymy also suggests that the text-topic is concerned with debt crisis of seven European countries. The tool of Antonymy is reflected by words “increase, surplus, peak, etc.” indicating that the debt crisis is still a very thorny problem. These words contradict with measures taken to cut and restructure seven countries' debts. Inter-semiotic collocation use lexical items that can reasonably co-occur in a verbal text. The use of collocation is shown by words such as “restructure, default, bondholders, defunct banks, etc.”, for the purpose of discussing the Plan B of restructuring their debts.

The boat is also a visual metaphor suggesting the current debt situation of seven European countries. It is the current problem that seven countries have to deal with immediately. The use of synonymy is also reflected in verbal words such as “Debt, Load of debt, Deep problems, Debt burden, Rescue loans, Overall debts, etc.” It shows a clear link between the visually represented and the verbally discussed problems. Waterfall is represented the current and future debt crisis by the use of synonymy. Verbal words such as “defend, toil, cut, etc.” correspond to seven people's action of rowing in the sketch. The frequent use of inter-semiotic synonymy indicates that the visual and verbal part complement each other in discussing and supporting the central topic. The use of hyponymy, meronymy, antonymy and collocation provides ample evidence with discussing debt crisis.

Thus, combined visual represented participants with verbal words in Sample 1; ideational inter-semiotic complementarity is established between two modes.

IV. THE MULTIMODAL CHARACTERISTICS OF EDITORIALS

In order to identify the multimodal characteristics of English editorials from the perspective of ideational/representation meaning, the author also makes researches on other genres.

Compared with pictures in advertisements and posters, pictures in English editorials present different multimodal features. Advertisements and posters usually use photographs and caricatures rather than graphs. They consider pictures as the major form of expression. Advertisements and posters usually present pictures with only a few verbal sentences. As for English editorials, they give almost equal weight to the pictures and the verbal texts.

Since editorials are to explain, to judge or to comment on the hot issues, pictures in editorials can also work as a driving force to achieve editorials' purpose. Photographs in English editorials could unfold realistic events that editorials care about. They are a bit rational and objective yet they may only reveal one aspect of the main topic. Caricatures in English editorials, full of emotion, usually describe the main idea of the essay in an ironic and exaggerating way. Before reading the verbal text, the reader could analyze the caricature's plot. Then, as the reader further reads the verbal part, he would quickly grasp the sticking points in the editorial. On this occasion, caricatures usually compensate with verbal texts. They illustrate verbal texts and meanwhile exert great influence on readers' understanding. Graphs in English editorials usually associate with verbal texts in a direct way. They show the tendency of increasing or decreasing explicitly. Verbal texts usually describe the tendency in a narrative way. From graphs readers could gain major information such as variables, parameters, time, etc. and know the main topic in the verbal texts. Then, they could have a detailed analysis from the verbal texts. Thus the graphs explain and prove the verbal texts.

Based on Visual Grammar and Inter-semiotic Complementarity Framework, the paper analyzes English editorials with visual images from the perspective of ideational/representational meaning. The research not only helps readers be familiar with the nature and characteristics of multimodal editorial discourse but also gives some useful instructions to the editors so as to improve the quality of editorials.

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Jing Yang, born in Inner Mongolia, China, on May, 6th, 1986, is a college English teacher working in Yanching Institute of Technology in Hebei Province, China. She had studied in Xi'an International Studies University, then went to Changchun University of Science and Technology to earn her Master's degree.

Yi Zhang, born in Wuhu, ANHUI Province, China, on August, 16th , 1987, now works in Yanching Institute of Technology in Hebei Province, China. She had studied in Anhui Normal University, then went to Zhejiang University to earn her Master's degree.

Analysis of Archetypal Character Jim Casy in *The Grapes of Wrath*

Yanhong Fan

Changchun University of Science and Technology, Changchun, China

Abstract—The primary concern of the present thesis is with the archetypal qualities of *The Grapes of Wrath*. John Steinbeck constantly uses references and allusions from Greek mythology and Bible. According to Northrop Frye's definition of archetype, there exist archetypal characters. The major character of *The Grapes of Wrath* is Jim Casy who lead the Joads and other people to probe the new land. It is obvious enough that Jim Casy is a notable Christ figure in this novel. His Christ-like prophet function is verified in quite a few ways. He is clearly a modern Christ figure, and he fulfills this identity through both his words and actions. The new messiah arrives in a rich context of tradition Christian symbology, and his messages, like that of Christ, are one that considerably broadens man's sense of spiritual community.

Index Terms—archetypal criticism, archetypal character, Bible

I. INTRODUCTION

As we know, archetypal criticism is a powerful study in the history of recent literary theory, especially from the 1950s to the 1970s. Its critical strategy is to back up from the text, to find the underlying correspondences or analogues in works throughout the world so as to apprehend the recurrences of certain archetypal characters, narrative patterns and motifs. Hence, the power and significance of works of literature, or of the whole of literature is explained. In literary criticism, this term archetype means "character-types, recurrent narrative designs, patterns of action, images and motif or themes which are identifiable in a wide variety of works of literature, as well as in myths, dreams and even social rituals." (Jung, 1996, p115) The word "archetype" originates from a Greek word "archetypos". Arche means "root" and "origin" while typos "pattern" or "model". In Plato's opinion there exists the world of Idea that is perfect and eternal and can be known only through the mind, not through the senses. The object that we see and feel through our senses is merely pale and imperfect copy of the ideal forms he called "archetype". The major influence on mythological criticism is Carl Jung. Jung believed, contrary to eighteenth-century Lockean psychology that "Mind is not born as a *tabula rasa*" (Jung, 1996, p115)." He expanded Freud's theories of the personal unconscious, asserting that beneath this is a primeval collective unconscious shared modern man with his primeval roots. The contents of the collective unconscious are called archetypes. Jung also treats them as dominants, images, mythological or primordial images, and a few other names, but archetypes is the most important one. So the collective unconscious is manifested in the recurrence of certain images, stories and figures, called "archetypes" which is "the psychic residua of numberless experiences of the same type." Jung indicated that myths are the means by which archetypes, essentially unconscious forms, become manifest and articulate to the conscious mind and they find themselves in the individuals' dreams. Jung perceived an close relationship among dreams, myths and art because all this three factors serve as media. And this media will go through the archetypes and become accessible to consciousness. Jung observes that the man who possesses the primordial vision, a special sensitivity to archetypal patterns and a gift for speaking in primordial images that enable him to transmit experiences of the "inner world" to the "outer world" through his art form *Modern Man in Search of A Soul*. According to the his materials, Jung said that it is only logical that the artist "will resort to mythology in order to give his experience its most fitting expression." (Zhugang, 1997, p164) Here we can know that Jung examines the subject from psychological aspect. His theory of Collective Unconscious exerts a strong influence upon modern writers such as T.S. Eliot and D.H. Lawrence.

There are many ways to read *The Grapes of Wrath*. To some it is simply a story about a group people's journey; to others it is interpreted as a book about the lives of ordinary people striving to preserve their humanity in the face of social and economic desperation. Several different theories have been presented, explaining Steinbeck's use of symbols. What many seem to have overlooked is what he answers is right there in front of them. The *Grapes of Wrath* won the 1940 Pulitzer Prize eventually became the corner stone of his 1962 Nobel Prize award. It is a pity to have neglected the study of mythological criticism, or in other name, archetypal criticism when we studied John Steinbeck who uses mythological and biblical images, characters, narrative patterns, and motifs in his literary creation. From this new perspective, we can better appreciate this masterpiece in literature. Although my thesis is only a tentative study on this subject, it is based on the former studies and is not an isolated blind leap in the dark. In this thesis, the author only choose to analysis some archetypal parts: archetypal character Jim Casy and archetypal images.

II. ARCHETYPAL CHARACTER FROM THE BIBLE

The major character of *The Grapes of Wrath* is Jim Casy who lead the Joads and other people to probe the new land. The reader's sense of the role played by each of this figure will shape that reader's experience with the book. From the angle of literary critic, I'll discuss it within the frame of archetypal critical theory. Bible is the arsenal of western literary. Numerous western writers make the best of images, characters, plots, motifs, themes and spirit of the Bible. So dose the author of the *The Grapes of Wrath* ---John Steinbeck. A great deal of Biblical characters appeared in this novel. Of course is that of Christ, represented respectively in the novel not only by Jim Casy but also by Tom Joad and even Rose of Sharon. But the most obvious character is the Jim Casy. From *The New Testaments of the Bible*, we know that Jesus Christ is born in Bethlehem of Judea and grows up in Nazareth of Galilee. His religious activity begins after his baptism. At that time John the Baptist is preaching around this region. He is preparing for his believing of the coming of the kingdom of Heaven. He calls for all the Jews to repent of their sins and then gives them the action of baptism. Jesus Christ fully agrees to John's opinion. After his baptism given by John the Baptist, Jesus Christ begins his preaching of the coming of the kingdom of Heaven in the villages and towns of Galilee. His action can be divided into two parts: one is to preach the gospel of the kingdom and the other is to heal every disease and every infirmity of the people. Actually the purpose of all these two parts is to let the people know that they are sinful, that they must confess their sins and that they must repent of their sins. Then by these Jesus Christ wants the people to have a good preparation for welcoming the coming of the kingdom of Heaven. The most severe sin in all people's sins is pride. That is to say, there is no courage in people to confess their own sins rather than know that there is a demand of repenting of own sins. So healing the diseases is just a symbol of recurring the people from the body and spirit.

Jesus Christ has traveled many places to preach his believing and cure so many people from the disease. But to Jesus Christ the most important step is to preach in Jerusalem, the holy place to Jews, in face of the leaders of Jews. It is really a dangerous step to Him. In the past some Israel prophet had been killed just because their preaching against the polices of the government in Jerusalem. Jesus Christ knows that very well. But he still persists in walking into Jerusalem and doing his preaching. He points out the misuse of the temple of God, warned elder of the people, chief priests and scribes, says to Pharisees their seven "woes" and prophesied the future tribulation. Although Jesus faces the death, he still believes his doctrine. So we can see Jesus Christ is a pious prophet. He just likes a scapegoat who sacrifices for human being's happiness. Only through Jesus' death and resurrection, can people become believers of God and know that only when they confess their sins and repent of their sins, can their souls be accepted in the Heaven after their death.

III. ARCHETYPE OF JESUS CHRIST

The figure Christ, must be remembered, usually appears as a forerunner, as a leader, and as a sacrificial figure. His death would give human beings a new beginning and a new chance. Jim Casy, one of the most important characters in the novel has the obvious eye-catching initials, J.C., which is a reminiscence of the name of Jesus Christ. Prior to our meeting with him, he has spent his life embattled with Satan just like a Calvinistic fire-and brimstone fundamentalist. He tells Tom Joad: "Here's me that wuse to give all my fight against the devil's cause I figured the devil was the enemy. But they's somepin worse'n the devil got hold a the country." And like Christ, he has also gone into desert to wrestle with has faith. Just like Casy himself put it, "Here's me, been a goin' into the wilderness like Jesus to try find out somepin" He also says that: "I ain't sayin' I'm like Jesus.... But I got tried like Him, an' I got mixed up like Him, an' I wen into the wilderness like Him.... Sometimes I'd pray like Ialways done. On'y I couldn' figure what I was prayin' to or for. There was the hills, an' there was me, an' we wasn't separate no more. We was one thing. An' that one thing was holy." (Steinbeck, 2000, p478)

Like Christ, Casy has discovered within himself a commitment to mankind as well. In chapter four, when Casy explains his new philosophy of life to Tom Joad he says, "I got the call to lead the people, an' no place to lead' em." During the long voyage to California, Casy accompanies the Joads because he wants to be with people and help them, although he does not know how he can act usefully on their behalf. So the strong basis upon which his philosophy is based is his unique love of people. And Casy's strong love of people embodies in his commitment to help the Joads when he gives himself up to the Deputies at the Hoover Ville in order to protect Tom from being arrested. For it will be a disaster for the latter to go prison because of having broken the parole. This substitution of his own bodies symbolically, his life for Tom to go to prison, to "save" Tom, is a Christ-like behavior which qualifies him to be a martyr for his own people. So it is the movement from Bible-belt evangelism to social prophecy that constitutes the development of Jim Casy. At the beginning of the novel, he has already left preaching and has returned from his sojourn in the hills. His way out of a mess of troubles. But although Casy is already approaching his revolution, it is only through his experience with the Joads that he is able to complete his vision. So he moves form the purely speculative to the pragmatic, from motionlessness to action. Twice in the novel, Casy is described as glowing with light. The second time, just before he is killed, he is described as "That shiny bastard". And the night before his death the rooster crows which recalls the rooster that crowed before the Crucifixion. And Casy's Christ-like development is complete when he is pointed out as "That shiny bastard" and struck on the head with a pick handle.

IV. THE SIMILARITY BETWEEN JIM CASY AND JESUS CHRIST

Jim Casy is former preacher and long-time friend of the Joads, the most important character of the novel. However, it is surprising that he, as one of the most important characters in *The Grapes of Wrath*, along with Tom and other members of the Joad family, disappears till in about one-third part of the novel. But we can't forget him because the Joad family always reminds us of him time by time. Both Tom and Ma often repeat Casy's ideas and words and talk more about his personality.

Casy takes his duty. What he says rather than what he does. He has many words. As a former preacher, he likes talking, but now he has given up his career as a Jesus Christ, with whom he shares the same initials, J.C., Jim Casy declares his rejection of conventional religious notions of sin, hellfire, and emphasizes the salvation of Christ, Jim Casy also shares a lot of other characteristics, such as Casy's sacrifice of himself to save Tom and Flody. Moreover just like Jesus Christ's criticism against the leaders of Jews in Jerusalem publicly at that time, his giving up John the Baptist's belief and beginning to preach the gospel of love, Jim Casy also betrays his ever believed religion, the Christianity and gives up the position as a priest and walks into the poor to preach his new worldly belief.

Though Jim Casy says that everyone is sinful, but in his heart he feels that this is a thing he can't understand. In this severe reality he tries to find out a new belief rooted in human being's general need. He claims that he will approach to the common people and that he does not want to teach them something but wants to learn something for himself like the couple's love, the emotion of raising children and mutual helping and practical poetic communication between people. All these are Jim Casy's new maxims. Like Jesus Christ with his twelve disciples having a long trek in order to save human being from their sins, Jim Casy like Jesus Christ is a man full of love for the people and can sacrifice own life for the people's suffering. There are many similarities between Casy and Christ, one of them is that Casy has also left to the forests in order to get what we called "soul-search" and discover the answers which are behind the questions. In this situation, Casy claims the comparison of Christ's and his actions to the Joad family, "...I been in the hills, thinkin', almost you might say like Jesus went into the wilderness to think His way out of a mess of troubles." (Steinbeck, 2000, p231) Casy further goes on during his rather rambling grace giving to Grandpa Joad, "I got tired like Him... I got mixed up like Him... I went into the wilderness like Him, without no campin' stuff." (Steinbeck, 2000, p88) Because of his frank character, Casy is openly accepted. We can see that he and Jesus Christ have some similarities. Steinbeck continues this strategies to let the reader come to consider that Casy is indeed to be the Christ figure of this novel. Casy and Jesus both see a common goodness and saw everyone as holy spirit and they all face struggles between their ideals versus the real world. Yet another similar point between them can be found when Casy decides to take adventure and join a group in order to stop strike wages from falling. This represents that Casy, just like Jesus and his faithful fellows, who follow him, is in an energy to preach their beliefs through the people. Meanwhile, there were many person who wanted to follow Jesus and his quest, and they declined due to fear of persecution, the same thing appears to Casy. And the third similarity between Jim Casy and Jesus Christ is the Casy's sacrifice. Steinbeck uses the character of Jim Casy as a media to emphasize the religion's importance in people's lives at hardship times. While the family can keep going just because Joad's unity and faith in God And proclaims new message by Jim Casy as his spokesman. But John Steinbeck lets Jim Casy die at last. The purpose of doing this is very clear, that is to tell the readers that through the Jesus-like preaching it is not possible to save this evil world, the only outcome is just like Jesus Christ's sacrifice of his own life to save the people. That is to say, Jim Casy is a scapegoat, just like Jesus Christ' experience, created by the author to suffer the death in place of the whole human beings.

John Steinbeck wants to show us that what he Jim Casy is facing is just like what Jesus Christ had faced. In the past, when the world was in this kind of situation, usually a scapegoat would be demanded to solve the problem. So in this novel a scapegoat is needed as well. So the burden of sacrificing for human being loads on the shoulder of Jim Casy. So from this point we will see this similarity clearly.

V. ARCHETYPAL IMAGES

The prose narrative pattern of the *The Grapes of Wrath* is outlined by a series of archetypal images. Steinbeck employed these images to strengthen the theme of wrath. The title of the novel *The Grapes of Wrath* has its tight connection with the Bible, wherein the symbol of the "grapes" has frequent appearance and rich contextual evocations. He adroitly utilizes the symbol of the "grapes" to extract from Western people's religious background various overlapping biblical images, thereby adds extra persuasive power to its theme. By the title of the novel we might naturally become aware of the importance of archetypal images as a main artistic technique, hence the relevance to devote special concern and care in analyzing. There is some most important images conspicuously jump into our horizon: the rain, water and flood; the grapes and other archetypal images.

A great deal has been written about John Steinbeck's use of biblical symbolisms in *The Grapes of Wrath*. However, one symbolic pattern--the rain, water and flood archetype--that comes from the Judaeo-Christian tradition has not been adequately dealt with. Therefore, a comprehensive examination of the rain, water and flood archetype as used by Steinbeck, particularly in Chapter Twenty-nine of the novel, will undoubtedly make a great contribution to the deeper understanding of the whole novel, especially the final chapter of the work. On the first stage, the aim of Steinbeck's use of rain, water and flood imagery is to underscore the tragic overtones of the novel. In showing the image as a destroyer before developing the creative power of the symbol, Steinbeck uses the motif structurally, so that the readers can be carried from the tragedy of the first part of the novel to the regenerative scene of the final chapter. In the final chapter of

the novel, Steinbeck arranges the destructive features of the rain, water and flood archetype in a pattern of hierarchical importance. The water destroys the nature, the works of man, and even the man himself. And here in the novel, the description of the destructive forces of the rain, water and flood reverses the Biblical account of creation. In the Bible, the first three days are day of separation: light from darkness, the water above and the below, and the dry lands from the water. Yet in this final part of the novel, John Steinbeck mingles light and darkness in gray, the waters above and those below in a flood, and the land and water in mud. The purpose of this account is to create an apocalyptic vision of chaos and destruction. Steinbeck continues his descriptions of the destructive forces of the rains. They not only affect the God's creation, Nature, but also man's as well. The rains not only "brought down the trees", but also "bent the willows deep in the current". They also "poured over the highways", "wet the beds and blankets", "fouled the carburetors". Finally, the rains begin to destroy man himself.

Another important archetypal image is the "grapes". By its title we might naturally become aware of its significance as a central symbol in the novel. Therefore, it deserves special concern and care in our analysis of this image. Undoubtedly the title comes from *Battle Hymn of the Republic*, as many critics have pointed out in great clarity. According to *Benson's Biography of Steinbeck*, Steinbeck insisted to Covici, a publisher, that all the verses and music of *Battle Hymn of the Republic* be printed in the first edition of the *The Grapes of Wrath*. It was from this hymn that Steinbeck's first wife Carol strongly recommended its title. It is necessary to discuss the grape as a valuable symbol and its connection with *Battle Hymn of the Republic*. Yet, by the fact that *Battle Hymn of the Republic* itself has deep biblical allusions and significance and the grape, as a symbol, has been referred to many times in the Bible, and has, therefore, strong evocations in western readers' religious unconscious, we should devote much of this writing to discuss the relationship between the symbol of the grape and the Bible in its religious sense. Finally, we will cite an Israel's military attack, coded by *The Grapes of Wrath*, to see the interesting impact that John Steinbeck has created on Westerner's religious sub-consciousness and the great influence of *The Grapes of Wrath* in western world, hence, the influence of the "grapes" a symbol. The word "grape" has various levels of implications in the Holy Bible. One of the symbolic meanings of "grapes" can be seen in the *The Song of Solomon*. It is clear that Jesus Christ regards himself as "the true vine", his people as "branches beareth fruit", or "branches beareth grapes", and the relationship between Himself and his people as "you in me, and I in you". Steinbeck adroitly applies this symbolic meaning of "his people" to the afflicted, devastated tenant farmers, using "grapes" referring to the people. Yet, the "grapes" also symbolizes abundance and hope in the Bible. In *the Old Testament Numbers* Moses sent his disciples, Joshua and Oshea, to spy out the land of Canaan, and send on Oshea the son of Nun Jehoshua. Steinbeck uses this level of symbolic meaning of "grapes" for abundance, as above mentioned that the one huge cluster of grapes which Joshua and Oshea bring back from their first excursion into the rich land of Canaan is a symbol of plenty, a cluster so huge. It is this meaning of grapes that is frequently alluded to by Grampa Joad: "Gonna get me a whole big bunch a grapes off a bush, wo whatever, an' I'm gonna squash 'em on my face an' let 'em run offen my chin." (Steinbeck, 2000, p 188)

However, in the Bible the "grapes" has another archetypal meaning. It is precisely this symbolic meaning that tightly connects the novel's title *The Grapes of Wrath* with *Battle Hymn of the Republic*. In the Bible the "grapes" also contains the meaning of pain, wrath, and revenge. In *Deuteronomy*: "For their vine is of the vine of Sodom and of the fields Gomorrah: their grapes are grapes of gall, their clusters are bitter. Their wine is the poison of dragons and the cruel venom of asps...". In *Jeremiah*: "The fathers have eaten sour grapes, and their children's teeth are set on edge." (Steinbeck, 2000, p 107) In *Revelation*: "And the angel thrust in his sickle into the earth, and gathered the grapes of the earth, and cast it into the great winepress of the wrath of God." "If any man worship the beast and his image, and receive his mark in his forehead, or in his hand, the same shall drink of the wine of the wrath of God, which is poured out without mixture into the cup of his indignation." (Steinbeck, 2000, p.79) Similarly, this meaning of the symbol is stated in the novel's inter-chapters: "In the souls of the people the grapes of wrath are filling and growing heavy, heavy for the vintage." (Steinbeck, 2000, p105) The title of the novel, as mentioned above, has tight connection with the symbolic images in *Battle Hymn of the Republic*, which evokes in vision and in feeling an invincible army marching on to victory. And so the Joads and their brothers, in their increasing frustrations and sufferings, are depicted, as an army growing in ever more militant wrath toward an irrevocable demand for restitution and comfort. The symbolic meanings of the "grapes" and its evocations have sustaining impact on the Westerners' religious psyche for its biblical origin, its popularity through *Battle Hymn of the Republic*, and most importantly the shaking influence of world masterpiece *The Grapes of Wrath*. Therefore, we now might have little puzzle why Israel coded his intrusion into Lebanon as "grapes of wrath". From April 11, 1996 to April 27, 1996, Israel, using aircraft and helicopters, dropped twenty-five thousand shells on the narrow land of Lebanon. By naming the war as "grapes of wrath", Israel government successfully evokes an image of an invincible people marching on to victory from long afflictions and oppressions in the westerners' religious sub-consciousness, thereby obscures the cruelty and the bloody massacre of war. This is a case of political maneuvers. Yet, it still manifests the wide-spreading influence of Steinbeck's novel *The Grapes of Wrath* and the symbol of the "grapes" in the westerners' psyche.

VI. CONCLUSION

All in all, it is obvious enough that Jim Casy is a notable Christ figure in this novel. His Christ-like prophet function is verified in quite a few ways: his initials, J.C.; his continual soul searching in the wilderness; his announcement of the

new religion; his discipline of Tom Joad toward him; his substitution of his own body for Tom's to go prison; and finally his persecution and death crying out, which is in essence a martyrdom for the people whom he has led and comforted and fought for. So Jim Casy is clearly a modern Christ figure, and he fulfills this identity through both his words and actions. The new messiah arrives in a rich context of tradition Christian symbology, and his messages, like that of Christ, are one that considerably broadens man's sense of spiritual community.

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Yanhong Fan was born in Changchun Jilin Province, China on June 12th, 1982, who has got a degree of Master of Arts in foreign language and literature from Liaoning Normal University, Dalian, Liaoning Province, China in 2008.

As a LECTURER, she teaches Contemporary English of the English major at School of Foreign Languages, Changchun University of Science and Technology. One book (as an editor) is as follows: [1] *Selected Readings from British Literature* (Beijing Institute of Technology Press, 2011).

The EFL Students' Problems in Answering the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL): A Study in Indonesian Context

Murni Mahmud
FBS UNM Makassar, Indonesia

Abstract—The focus of this paper is to explore the students' problems in answering the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language). TOEFL is a type of language testing to reveal the students' English proficiency. This is a descriptive study based on in-depth semi-structured interview and classroom observation. The subject of this research was the students of Graduate Program at one state university in Makassar, Indonesia. This study took three classes as sample, namely one from English education department, one from Social Science, and one from Natural Science. To gain data, the three classes were observed and twelve (12) representatives of the three classes were interviewed. Findings showed that the main problems of the students in answering the TOEFL test were due to several conflicting reasons, such as fewer basic skills, less practice, less motivation, and students' individual differences such as age and social status.

Index Terms—TOEFL, TOEFL preparation course, language testing, language teaching, and English proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

The need to master English is absolutely very crucial. Functioning as international language for communication, people are expected to know English either for daily communication or for public use. The functions of English as a major tool for communication have been globally recognized. English is important not only in education, but also in other public sectors in which people are interacting.

English is used widely in the world and studied as a foreign language or as a second language in several countries (Erdem-Keklik, 2011; Sindhedkar, 2012). A study by Sindhedkar, for example, (2012, p. 2) confirmed the position of English language as a major tool for communication in India and states that English "occupies the position of associate official language" and widely used as "a link language in offices and among the educated people". It is further stated that English is "not only a compulsory subject at school, college and university but is also the medium of instruction to the large extent". English has functioned as "the language of science and technology". Erdem-Keklik (2011) also mentioned that English is the most popular foreign language taught in Turkish schools.

Therefore, English becomes important subjects either in schools or in universities in every country. Indonesia, a country in Southeast Asia, also sets the important roles of English education. This brings the ideas that English should be taught from Junior high Schools to Universities, including in state universities in Makassar, South Sulawesi, Eastern Indonesia.

For the sake of developing and maintaining the English capabilities, plenty of efforts are required in teaching English. The success in teaching English is influenced by many factors, such as the teachers, materials, and methods. That is the roles of the teachers in the classroom to integrate good materials and methods. In addition, factors from students should be highly considered. That is also the roles of the teachers to organize teaching materials and methods that are suitable with the needs and interests of the students.

One of the aspects in the teaching process is the language testing. Issues in language testing had been the focus of research in educations in different countries and different contexts. Pan (2009) examined the roles of test as an exit requirement in China and Fahim et al. (2010) explored the test takers' ability in reading test of the TOEFL in relation to critical thinking. Another study by Zareva (2005) examined the new format for the TOEFL test. Arabsarhangi and Noroozi (2014) studied reading comprehension test types in relation to self awareness and learners' performance. All of these studies indicate the pivotal functions of good language testing as instruments to measure the students' English proficiency. For that reason, it is necessary for the teachers to create reliable testing for the language proficiency of the students in order to evaluate the achievement of the students.

One of the types of language testing is TOEFL, which stands for 'Test of English as a Foreign Language'. This test is highly recognized as a standard language testing in English language and had been "internationally recognized and respected" (Warfield et al., 2013, p. 196). The grade of the TOEFL is mostly used as indicator in academic life around the world. For example, when students want to continue their study to foreign countries, the university asks the applicants to submit their TOEFL grade as indicator of their English language proficiency. Studying in foreign countries definitely demands high English proficiency level that can be seen from the TOEFL grade.

In Indonesia, the TOEFL test is originally conducted by English Language System (ELS), a specific institution for TOEFL Test, known as Institutional TOEFL. The university may also administer a TOEFL-like or a TOEFL-equivalent test, or a TOEFL prediction, such as by the center of language studies or by the language laboratory within the university. This kind of TOEFL test is locally administered by the university, and only used for internal usages in order to examine the students' English proficiency.

In Indonesia, particularly in Makassar, the TOEFL test is highly recommended for students who want to continue their education to higher level, for example, from undergraduate level to graduate level. The test is also used for public usages such as to get promotion to higher level of job. Since the test is measuring English proficiency covering many different skills such as listening, reading, grammar, writing, and speaking, many students find it difficult to do the test. In fact, in Makassar, taking TOEFL test is considered difficult. Consequently many test takers failed the test and did not reach the standard passing grade.

This paper examines the students' problems in answering the TOEFL test in one state university in Makassar. Like other universities in Indonesia, this university also has a specific institution for administering the English test proficiency such as TOEFL, TOEIC, and IELTS. In the Graduate program, TOEFL Test is used as an entrance test to be accepted as new students. The test also becomes the requirement for the final exam. Students who want to take their final exam for their thesis are required to pass the standard grade, for example, for >400 for non-English students and >476 for English students. To assist students, TOEFL Preparation courses are also available. Nevertheless, the fact shows that many students failed the tests.

The main question brought into discussion in this paper is what are the problems encountered by the students in answering the TOEFL Test? Findings from this study are very beneficial as input for the teaching of TOEFL, especially in the TOEFL Preparation courses. Exploring problems the students have may become guidelines in managing and preparing the good TOEFL lesson project.

II. RELATED LITERATURE

Kafafi defined assessment as an "indicator of learners' acquisition of knowledge and of the teachers' quality of teaching" (2012, p. 101). It is "an integral part of providing a quality teaching experience for the adult learners, their long life learning process, and their participation in the community and the national economy" (Kafafi, 2012, p. 105). In addition, AERA et al. formulated that "assessment is any systematic procedure for collecting information that can be used to make inferences about the characteristics of people or objects" (cited in Reynolds et al, 2006, p. 3). It is further stated that assessment is "an integral component of the teaching process and it provides information that both enhances instruction and promotes learning" (Reynolds et al., 2006, p. 3).

Having a good assessment can be by organizing a good and reliable test. Reynolds et al (2006, p. 3) defined a test as "a device or procedure in which a sample of an individual's behavior is obtained, evaluated, and score using standardized procedures". It is "a method of collecting information and therefore one set of tools of assessment" (Reynolds et al, 2006, p. 3).

Thus, the results of a good assessment and reliable test will give implication about the success of the students and the teachers in the teaching process. TOEFL which stands for Test of English as a Foreign Language is a standard test for measuring students' English language capabilities. There are two types of TOEFL Test, namely Paper-Based Test (PBT) and Computer Based Test (CBT). The most common type of the test is the PBT, which was also used by the subject of this research. In the test, the students are required to master three important skills in English, namely Listening Comprehension, Structure and Written Expression, and Reading Comprehension. There are also tests for Speaking and Writing. There is also a scoring system for the TOEFL test. The minimum score is 216 whereas the highest score is 676 (Philips, 2001).

III. METHODS OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted in one of the state universities in Makassar, South Sulawesi, Eastern part of Indonesia in 2013. The study focused on the students of Graduate Program who took TOEFL Test as the requirement for finishing their study. After being successful to be accepted as students, the results of the TOEFL Test in the entrance test became the basic guidelines for administering the TOEFL Preparation course. The TOEFL certificate would be issued for the students who were able to reach the passing grade, which then became the requirement for them to finish their study. If they did not pass the TOEFL test, their final exam would be suspended. The passing grades were 426> for Non English Program and 476> for English Program. Since it was locally used in the Graduate Program, the TOEFL used was not Institutional TOEFL. The TOEFL-like or the TOEFL Prediction was used instead whose materials were taken from the TOEFL Preparation Books (Philips 2001).

The Graduate program had the language laboratory that conducted the test (TOEFL-like or prediction TOEFL) and also conducted the TOEFL Preparation Course. In 2013, there were 30 classes which were conducted by the language laboratory covering different study programs. The programs were English Education, Non-English Program (Indonesian Language and Social Science (Economy, Geography, History, Educational Management, Early Childhood Education,

Educational Research, Sociology, Sports, and Arts) and Natural Science (Mathematics, Biology, Physics, Chemistry, and Technology). Each class consisted of 15 to 20 students.

For this study, three classes were taken as sample (one from English department, and two from non-English department, namely one social science class and one natural science class). To collect data, I observed these three classes. I also conducted in depth semi-structured interview to representatives of these three classes. There were twelve students (four for each class) who were interviewed. These respondents were chosen based on the frequency they took TOEFL test and their obtained scores which had not reached the passing grade. Respondents had taken the TOEFL Preparation Course and had taken tests for many times. Some of the respondents had to take remedial course and failed the tests for many times. The main focus was asking their major problems in answering the TOEFL Test.

IV. FINDINGS

Based on the observation on the three classes of TOEFL Preparation and the intensive interview among the twelve respondents from these three classes, it was found that most of the students found difficulties in answering the TOEFL Test and therefore failed the tests. Some respondents had to repeat the tests for many times but failed. The respondents were then interviewed to find out what problems they found in answering the TOEFL Test. Some of the problems were as follows:

A. Fewer Basic Skills

One of the main problems encountered by the respondents was that they had no basic skills in English. Some respondents stated their reasons as follows:

"Kami tidak pernah belajar bahasa Inggris. Kami tiba-tiba harus tahu bahasa Inggris"

(We never studied English. We accidentally had to learn English)

"Kami tidak ada dasar sama sekali"

(We did not have very basic English)

"Bahasa Inggris susah, saya tidak mengerti artinya"

(English is difficult, I do not understand the meaning)

"TOEFL ini adalah sesuatu yang baru. Kami belum pernah mengikutinya"

(TOEFL is something new for us. We have never joined that before)

"Jangankan menjawab soal TOEFL, bercakap saja saya tidak bias"

(Even talking in English I did not know, how could I answer the TOEFL Test)

From the above comments, it can be stated that the difficulties of the respondents in answering the TOEFL test were due to their less basic skills. Respondents stated that even speaking in English they were not able to, whereas answering TOEFL Test was difficult because the test was testing their ability in listening, grammar, and reading.

As observed in the class, respondents demonstrated low capabilities in understanding English grammar. Indeed, the materials should be started from the very basic level such as subject pronoun, object pronoun, verb forms, etc. The problems existed since in the TOEFL materials, the students were expected to know more about more complicated problems such as subject and verb agreements, parallel structures, etc. Therefore, teachers sometimes spent a lot of time explaining very basic grammar and did not have more time to practice for other sections in the TOEFL test.

In addition, they said that TOEFL Test was something new for them, especially from non-English program. TOEFL test was a new thing in their academic life. They stated that they never joined it in their undergraduate program. This comment was mostly stated by those who came from Social science, especially if they came from outer part of Makassar.

The interesting things came out from the English students whose basic was English and majoring in English Department. Since that was their major, they were expected to do the test properly and got good results. In fact, several students did the test for many times. Some English students had to take the test 8 times in order to pass the test. One of their difficulties was due to the many limited time in the test. In the listening comprehension, for example, they sometimes lost the ideas before coming to the next questions. One of the respondents from English education department stated as follows:

"Saya tidak bisa mendengar dan membaca dengan baik dalam waktu singkat"

(I could not listen and read carefully in the short time)

The problems were then they had to answer all of the three sections in the test during the allocated time. The score for each part would be balanced. In spite of the above problems, they still did many errors in grammar, in which high scores were expected from the part of structure and written expression. Other comments from the English department respondent were as follows:

"Saya tidak tahu, jawabannya mirip-mirip"

(I do not know, the answers looked similar)

"Saya selalu dapat soal yang susah. Bacaan di reading panjang-panjang"

(I always got difficult test. The readings are always long)

In fact, the tests had been sometimes used in the course as exercises. Nevertheless, the test remained difficult for them and they needed to repeat the test for many times.

One of the respondents from English department had to join the test until 9 times. When asked about the problem, she said that she was less in the three skills of the TOEFL. It was also due to her less concentration. Although she had repeated the course for three times, she still had difficulties in doing the test. She finally passed the test with the score 480 in the 9th time she took the test.

B. Less Practice

As a matter of fact, before joining the test, the course had been offered to the students in order to give them preparation. This is needed in order to make them familiar with the test and to guide them in answering the tests. As observed in the class, several students did not commit their time to the course. In the class, for example, many of them did not come to the course.

Even when they had taken the course, students showed fewer struggles. Consequently, less practice was experienced during the course. According to them, the time was very short. The course which was administered for one to two weeks intensively was not enough to solve the problems they had in the test. When the teaching was trying to last longer, for example, in three months, other problems may also come from the students since they had limited time for the course. One student was interviewed and said:

“Materi banyak sekali. Kami tidak bisa menguasai dalam waktu singkat karena kami juga sibuk dengan pekerjaan kami yang lain”

(there are so many materials. We could not master all of things in a very short time because we are all busy with my other jobs).

Therefore, they just tried to maximize the time to learn, which was not effective and efficient. Sometimes, the students asked to shorten to duration of the course because they were very busy in their other duties as students and as officers in other places. It is important to note here that the students came from different backgrounds. Most of them had already worked as teachers or other jobs as students, and therefore, they were also busy in their other jobs outside the campus. The course that had been administered for 1 or 2 week was sometimes asked to be shortened into three days in order to suit with their job. Seeing the materials of TOEFL course which was very substantial covering many aspects of skills, it was not possible to conduct the course in only three days. Unless, they were committed to the time to learn English, They would have been more successful.

C. Less Motivation

Another problem encountered by the students in learning the TOEFL was their low motivation to learn. One of the respondents said,

“Untuk apa kita belajar TOEFL, itu bukan jurusan kami”

(what is the use of learning TOEFL, that is not our major)

This shows that the students had low fighting spirit to learn TOEFL since that was not their major (program). This statement was sometimes said by the Social science students, whose major was not English and never learned English. Indeed, they sometimes asked the questions: *“kenapa kami dipersulit”* (why did the test make us difficult). They sometimes said that the test was just trying to hinder their study and they tended to see that the test was meant to slow the process in finishing their study.

The surprising statement was from English student, who was trying to join the test for three times but not pass and did not want to join the course. He said:

“Saya orang kantoran, saya tidak membutuhkan bahasa Inggris, apalagi TOEFL di tempat kerja saya”

(I work in the office, I do not need English especially TOEFL in my work place)

These ideas were sometimes influenced by the notion about formality of the test and the course. Another respondent said:

“Tes dan kursusnya kan hanya formalitas saja, jadi ikut saja, pasti akan lulus”

(The test and the course are only the formality, so just join, then you will absolutely pass)

This becomes the difficulties in administering the test and the course since there has been in their mind about the formality of the test and the course. One of the respondents said:

“Ini tes yang kedua, belum lulus, nanti yang ketiga, pasti sudah dibantu”

(This is the second test, not pass yet, after the third, (I) will be helped of course)

Usually students were expected to be helped due to the problems they have and were not willing to struggle to get higher scores by themselves. Being helped above means that the respondents expected that they scores were added in order to reach the standard grade and passes. Many respondents said:

“Biar kursus berapa kali pun dan tes berapa kali pun, akan begitu-begitu terus”

(Although I took the test and the course for many times, the results were just like that)

“Bagaimana saya ini, saya sudah mau ujian, tapi saya belum lulus TOEFL. Tolong saya dibantu saja”

(How about me, I want to take my final exam now, but I haven't passed yet, so just help me (by adding my score))

In addition, several students who were actually required to join the course asked if they could only pay for the course and then they would be helped in the tests in order to pass. In that way, they get the certificate and can pursue to their final exam. Therefore, they wanted to take the course not for improving their English but for gaining the certificate only for finishing their study. One of the respondents asked:

“Kalau saya ikut kursus, apakah sudah pasti lulus?”

(If I joined the course, would I automatically pass?)

This comment implied that students just wanted to take a course only if there was a guarantee to pass the test. In other word, they joined the course not to learn but only to make it as a guarantee because they had paid the course. One of the respondents stated:

“Saya sudah tiga kali tes. Padahal saya juga sudah kursus”

(I have joined the test three times. I also had joined the class)

The above comments from the students remarked that they had low motivation in learning English. They would have been more successful in learning if they had high motivation. Consequently, as observed in the class, some participants in the class just tried to come, sit, and did the instruction without spirit and just to show that they came to the course, although they did not study well.

D. Students' Individual Differences

When they were asked about their most complicated problems in learning TOEFL, most respondents said as follows:

“Kami sudah tua”

(We are old now)

“Saya sudah berumur 45 tahun, saya sudah lambat loading”

(I am not 45 years old, I am low in remembering the materials’

“Ibu sudah kepala sekolah beberapa tahun, baru mau belajar TOEFL?, bagaimana bias”

(Madam, you have been a headmaster for years, that is now you wanted to study TOEFL? How come?)

“Saya ini pejabat. Saya tidak punya banyak waktu untuk belajar”

(I am a professional worker in my office. I do not have time to study)

This was commonly the case when they were asked why they could not answer the test well. During the course, as observed, some participants could understand some important materials and able to answer the questions and could also speak English. However, when it was the time to take the test, they already forgot all of the things because they were too old to remember all things in English. In addition, they sometimes viewed themselves as important persons due to their position in the government. Therefore, students' individual differences such as their age and social status differences contribute to their learning process and made problems in their learning.

V. DISCUSSION

As had been previously mentioned, it can be revealed that there were conflicting factors behind the achievement of the students in the TOEFL test. The problems were fewer basic skills, less practice, less motivation, and students' individual differences.

The first important factor was due to the less English proficiency among the students. As a matter of fact, this was influenced by the low level of English skills. Many participants said they had to study English because they must whereas they never studied it before. In other word, they had no basic English.

Therefore, there should be awareness for students to increase their English skills before enrolling to the Graduate Program. The students should bear in mind that mastering English proficiency is not only for requirements for individual competence. The students need to realize that they need English for their self-development. As stated by Pan (2009, p. 132),

“if lesson content or teaching methodology can be adapted to meet the students' interest, needs, and level of English proficiency, students may be more interested in learning English, and learning outcomes will, accordingly, much improve”

The less practice was the second problem. This was caused much by the less time committed to learn TOEFL. In this case, it is important for students to join a class to prepare them for the test. Pan (2009, p. 131) also noted that ‘test-preparatory classes or test related instruction in regular English need to be offered so that students will have greater familiarization with the test and a clear direction as to what and how to prepare for it’.

Less motivation was the third important problem for the students. The more motivation students get, the higher the students achievement. Brown (2000, p. 60) argued that “the students' personal investment of time, effort, and attention to the second language” influence the success of students. Indeed, teachers may not be needed if the learners are motivated to perform all of the tasks in the classroom (Brown, 2000, p. 59). In line with this, Sindkhedkar (2012, p. 191) commented that it is important to motivate the students by “creating awareness amongst them regarding the importance of English and then gradually helping the student to attain his goal”. In other words, teachers need to “employ various strategies aimed at enhancing student motivation” (Wong, 2013).

This less motivation was caused by many factors. One of them was their limited time committed to the learning process. If the students had committed to the course and studied well, the results of the tests may be improved. Brown (2000:60) commented as follows:

“Successful mastery of the second language will be due to a large extent of a learner's own personal ‘investment’ of time, effort, and attention to the second language in the form of an individualized battery of strategies for comprehending and producing the language”

In addition, students were not highly motivated due to different perceptions of the students towards the learning process. They had different perceptions about the test and the course. They wanted to join the test not to learn but only taken for granted as a requirement. They expected that after joining the course, they can be considered to be helped in the test by upgrading their scores until reaching the passing grades.

These students' perceptions need attention and require further initiatives to ensure the good quality of the teaching. Hiew (2012:19) argued that "learners' perception towards the teaching and learning of English should be taken and reviewed seriously as it is a two-way process involving teachers and learners". Ruesch et al. (2012) had also found the relationship between perceptions and motivations of the students in learning and underscored the importance of including students' perspectives on classroom practices.

The last factor was from the students' individual differences. Findings above show that students sometimes made their age and their social status as barriers to learn hard. Age here is very crucial. Respondents stated they were too old to learn English which was difficult for them. In addition, due to their high social status outside the campus (not only as students), they sometimes felt that learning is not required anymore. They wanted to 'just pay' instead.

Referring to the above problems, it can be stated that students' individual differences could make great influence on students' achievement. Many studies had proved the important roles of social class in education (Shin, 2014; Vandrik, 2014; Gao, 2014). Vandrik's study (2014) recommended that "increased attention to social class in English language education research, teacher education, and language classrooms". Therefore it is important to consider students' background in learning and teaching.

The above findings showed that problems occurred in the students' achievement in answering the TOEFL Test were actually due to the ways the learners learn or their learning strategies. Weinstein and Meyer (1986, cited in Macaro, 2001:17) stated that learning strategies are "the behaviors and thoughts that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learners' encoding process". A study by Nikoopour et al. (2012) showed the important roles of language learning strategy as "one of the cognitive variables that are highly associated with success and achievement".

The learning strategies were influenced by many factors. In the above findings, some of the important factors are the skills of the students, motivation, cultural background, students' background including age, and students' perception about the learning. This is in line with Macaro (2001) who examined the independent variables for factors influencing the learners' background such as motivation, sex, age, background and cultural differences, aptitude, learning style, and beliefs about language learning.

Good learning strategies are important in order to achieve better results in teaching. A study by Ghavamnia et al. (2011) had proved some important variables that are related to the choice and the use of learners' strategy such as motivation, learners' belief, and proficiency. Khamkien (2010) asserted that motivation is the most significant factor affecting the choice of learning strategies besides experience in studying English and gender. Another study by Ghaedi and Jam (2014) also found a significant relationship between motivation and learning style.

In addition, students' basic skills are influential. Sugita and Takeuchi (2010) had examined this case and found that "the effectiveness of some motivational strategies varied according to students' English proficiency level". A study by Chang and Liu (2013) also found that participants with high English proficiency level displayed a significantly higher level of strategy use than their counterparts of lower and intermediate level. In this case, as found in this study, due to the low basic skills, students displayed less useful strategies to learn and tended to be pessimistic.

The above conflicting factors faced in the teaching TOEFL need further considerations from both sides: teachers and students. While the roles of the teachers are to integrate good teaching materials and strategies, students' factors should also be given great attention in order to solve the problems.

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper has discussed the facts from the teaching of TOEFL in one of the state universities in Makassar, South Sulawesi, Indonesia. Based on the intensive interview and classroom observation, the main reasons were due to several conflicting factors, such as the less basic skills in English, less practice on the test, less motivation, and students' individual differences such as age and social status.

Findings from this study are very crucial as input for teachers in organizing and teaching TOEFL preparation Course. This teaching is very crucial as students need to take the TOEFL Test as a measurement in their English proficiency. As had been discussed above, students undertaking TOEFL test found many kinds of problems that hampered their achievement. Therefore, the process of learning and teaching in the TOEFL Preparation Course needed to be given high priority.

It can be revealed that the teaching of TOEFL for English students and Non-English students needs attention to improve further skills. The course needs not only improving the skills but also overcoming the dilemmatic problems they faced in learning TOEFL.

In order to gain better input for this study, it is suggested for further researchers to conduct related studies. One of the important aspects is to investigate the relationship of the above problems with the students' achievement in answering the TOEFL test. Are those above problems influence their achievement or are there any other factors influencing their achievement. Studies should also investigate the tests themselves whether the tests have been operated in standard

procedures or have been reliable in testing. In addition, further research needs to be conducted to see the application of some methods by the teachers in the TOEFL Preparation course.

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Murni Mahmud, graduated from IKIP Ujung Pandang, Indonesia in 1991, finished her Master Degree at American Studies Graduate Program, Gadjah Mada University, Yogyakarta, Indonesia 1999, and did her Ph.D. at Anthropology Department, the Australian National University, Canberra, Australia, 2008. She is a lecturer at English Department of State University of Makassar (UNM), at the Faculty of Languages and Literature. She teaches Linguistics Anthropology, Sociolinguistics, Discourse Analysis, English Literature, Linguistics, and TEFL.

The Impact of the Legendary Love between Yeats and Maud Gonne on Yeats's Creation of Love Poems

Yue Zhang

College of Foreign Languages, North China Institute of Science and Technology, Langfang, China

Lijun Wang

College of Foreign Languages, North China Institute of Science and Technology, Langfang, China

Abstract—W. B. Yeats (1865-1939) is an Irish poet, dramatist and prose writer. T. S. Eliot considers him as the greatest English poet in the twentieth century. The classic and legendary love between Yeats and Maud Gonne is greatly well-known in the Western World and permeates from generation to generation. This essay gives a brief introduction to this romantic and sorrowful legend of love and attempt to analyze its impact on Yeats's creation of love poems in different period of life.

Index Terms—Yeats, Maud Gonne, love poems

I. INTRODUCTION

William Butler Yeats is a world-known Irish poet and playwright. After winning the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1923, T. S. Eliot honored Yeats as “the greatest poet of our age—certainly the greatest in this language” (Stead, 1986, p.45). In a Yeats memorial lecture in 1940, T. S. Eliot regarded Yeats as “one of those few whose history is the history of their own time, who are a part of the consciousness of an age which cannot be understood without them” (Heaney, 2004, p.1). The Royal Swedish Academy thinks highly of him “for his always inspired poetry, which in a highly artistic form gives expression to the spirit of a whole nation” (Cheng, 2010, p.1). Modern readers view Yeats as the greatest modern poet in English language even more than Eliot.

Yeats lives a legendary life, as his life is woven with the times and his country. He combines his fate with the fate of Ireland, his literary creation with the revival of Irish literature, and his personal life with his artistic creation. Born in June, 1864, he was raised in a Dublin painter's family. His father was John Butler Yeats, who was a lawyer and then turned to an Irish painter. Yeats's mother came from a wealthy family—the Pollexfens. The family had a prosperous milling and shipping business. Yeats spent his early years in London and Sligo, a beautiful county on the west coast of Ireland, where his mother had grown. Sligo later appeared many times in some of his poems. Once, Yeats said that “the place that has really influenced my life the most is Sligo” (Ellmann, 1987, p.25). In 1881, the whole family returned to Dublin, the capital city of Ireland. At the beginning, Yeats was willing to become a painter as his father and entered the arts school to pursue his study in Dublin. However, his gifts in poetry drove him to quit painting two years later and began specializing in poems writing. Once began, his fascination grew out of control and unmanageable and he consequently became an outstanding poet in Irish as well as the world. In 1923, Yeats was awarded the Nobel Prize in Literature. People said his poems were always inspirational poetry, and his fine art form expressed the spirit of the whole nation and his efforts of melting Celtic nation and English nation together has never been implemented in the political field before, but it has become a reality in the fantasy world of poetry.

Without any doubt, Yeats is one of the greatest poets in the twentieth century worth of researching and evaluating. Firstly, Yeats is a dominant and influential figure for his contribution to the revival of Irish literature and the Ireland's independence. Secondly, Yeats is a poet who can feel the pulse of the times. Thirdly, Yeats's poems truthfully record his inner world and the world around him. He tries to create a coherent poetic world to put everything in order. At the same time, his poems record the history in his times. Many a immortal masterpieces are passed down through the generations, which consist of his reflections on the temporary time and the poet's legendary life experience. His poetry is a blend of romantic and realistic factors, including the realistic description of the Irish liberation movement, e.g. “Easter 1916”, “Sailing to Byzantium” and “Byzantium”, etc. These works reflect the poet's philosophy of valuing the contradictory unity between life and death, good and evil, beauty and ugliness. Yeats admits, “We are what we are because almost without exception we have had some part in public life in a country where public life is simple and exciting” (Yeats, ed. 1936, p.xv-xvi). However most of his poems are love poems that are rich in romantic colors. A much-told tale is that Yeats's numerous classic love poems are almost all written for one. People are struck by the poet love of constancy and may get a better understanding of Yeats's love poems from his love story.

The girl to whom Yeats presented his whole life was called Maud Gonne, a beautiful actress and daughter of a British colonel in Ireland. When 23 years old Yeats met her on January 30, 1889, she was only 22. Not only had Maud Gonne got outstanding beauty and slender figure, but she showed great sympathy to the Irish people after she witnessed the miserable condition of the Irish people under the oppression of Britain. She gave up the upper class life of Dublin without hesitation and devoted herself into the campaign of fighting for the independence of Irish people. Eventually she became one of the leaders. To some extent, Maud Gonne could be considered as the real Scarlett in *Gone with the Wind*. What she had got was not only the beautiful appearance but also a brave and life loving heart. A kind of extraordinary beauty surrounded her. In the eyes of the poet Yeats, Maud Gonne was the goddess in heaven, pretty but unreachable which put a special and mysterious ring around her beauty.

"I thought of your beauty, and this arrow; Made out of a wild thought, is in my marrow; There's no man may look upon her, no man; As when newly grown to be a woman, Tall and noble; but with face and bosom Delicate in color as apple blossom; This beauty's kinder, yet for a reason; I could weep that the old is out of season" (Finneran, 1996, p.77). Yeats described his first meeting with her as this, which is taken from one of his love poem "The Arrow". He fell in love with Maud at first sight and was passionately devoted to this love. However, Maud Gonne always kept him at an arm's length. In July, 1891, Yeats misunderstood one of her letters and thought that she gave him the sign of love. He ran to propose to her right away. But she refused and said, "Poets should never marry. The world should thank me for not marrying you" (Kelly and Donville, 1986, p.54). From then on, she rejected another three proposes of him. Maud Gonne married the Irish commander Lieutenant McBride. Their marriage was full of ups and downs but she was quiet stubborn. Even when their marriage failed, she still refused Yeats's love. Despite this, Yeats's love for Maud Gonne was life-long, and endless pain continues throughout his life.

The hopeless pain and misfortune drove Yeats to write many love poems. During decades of time, from various angles, this love for Maud Gonne inspired Yeats. His love poems sometimes depicted passionate love, sometimes desperate hatred, but most of them showed the complicated psychological entanglement between love and hatred.

"When You are Old", "The White Birds", "He Wishes for the Clothes of Heaven", "Never Give all the Heart" and "No Second Troy" are all the famous works of Yeats.

II. YEATS'S LOVE POEMS IN DIFFERENT STYLES

Due to the difference of age and time, Yeats's love poems written for Maud Gonne own different styles, which could be roughly divided into the following three:

A. *Passionate Love Poems of Young Age*

Yeats met Maud at a quite young age when he was full of passion, enthusiasm and confidence for love. In spite of his frequent failures, the poet was faithful to his love and pursued his love courageously. During this period, Yeats's love poems are mostly permeated with the yearning and pursuit of sweet love, his deep affection for his lover Maud Gonne, like "He Wishes for the Clothes of Heaven" and "The White Birds".

HE WISHES FOR THE CLOTHES OF HEAVEN

HAD I the heavens' embroidered cloths
Enwrought with golden and silver light,
The blue and the dim and the dark cloths
Of night and light and the half-light,
I would spread the cloths under your feet:
But I, being poor, have only my dreams;
I have spread my dreams under your feet;

Tread softly because you tread on my dreams. (Finneran, 1996, p.73)

The first part of the poem demonstrates readers the poet's longing for love and beautiful life. In order to win the heart of his lover, the poet would like to "spread the cloths under your feet", from which the readers can sense the poet's determination to sacrifice everything for his lover. In the later part, the poet seems as if he returned from the beautiful aspiration to the earth. And on the earth, the poet is down and out. But he is not discouraged because of hope. This poem is full of the energetic youth from the beginning to the end. Young Yeats was not afraid of any challenge and failure and he is willing to pay everything for his beloved in order to win her heart. Between the lines the poet's desperate courage and momentum for love are vividly conveyed.

In addition, another well-known love poem "The White Birds" shares different approach but equally satisfactory result.

THE WHITE BIRDS

Would that we were, my beloved, white birds on the foam of the sea!
We tire of the flame of the meteor, before it can fade and flee;
And the flame of the blue star of twilight, hung low on the rim of the sky,
Has awakened in our hearts, my beloved, a sadness that may not die.
A weariness comes from those dreamers, dew-dabbled, the lily and rose;
Ah, dream not of them, my beloved, the flame of the meteor that goes,

Or the flame of the blue star that lingers hung low in the fall of the dew:
 For I would we were changed to white birds on the wandering foam: I and you!
 I am haunted by numberless islands, and many a Danaan shore,
 Where Time would surely forget us, and Sorrow come near us no more;
 Soon far from the rose and the lily, and fret of the flames would we be,
 Were we only white birds, my beloved, buoyed out on the foam of the sea! (Finneran, 1996, p.41)

There is a story about this poem. Yeats and Maud Gonne walked together on the cliffs at Howth the day after Yeats's first proposal and the first of Maud's many rejections. Two seagulls flew overhead, provoking Maud's comment that of all birds, she would choose the shape of a seagull. Three days later Yeats sent her the poem "The White Birds", characteristically altering her singular wish to a more consolatory plural fantasy. Readers can sense the endless sweetness of youth from the page. The poet expresses his love straightforwardly without any hesitation. His love is pure and romantic, but with kind of profoundness. People can not see sophisticated worry and wretched timidity, but only a flaming heart of the poet.

B. *Mature Love Poems of Middle Age*

With the growing of age and experience of the poet, his attitude toward love and life is becoming mature gradually. During this period, there is less wild teenage love, but more understanding of life and hopelessness of unreachable love. The representative works of this period are the famous "No Second Troy" and "Never Give all the Heart".

NO SECOND TROY

Why should I blame her that she filled my days
 With misery, or that she would of late
 Have taught to ignorant men most violent ways,
 Or hurled the little streets against the great,
 Had they but courage equal to desire?
 What could have made her peaceful with a mind
 That nobleness made simple as a fire,
 With beauty like a tightened bow, a kind
 That is not natural in an age like this,
 Being high and solitary and most stern?
 Why, what could she have done, being what she is?
 Was there another Troy for her to burn? (Finneran, 1996, p.91)

This poem not only contains the poet's negative attitude of love after he is repeatedly suffered setbacks, but reflects the characteristics of that time. Yeats's age coincided with the era of the vigorous Irish liberation movement. Maud Gonne was a radical nationalist who advocated winning the independence through violent revolution. However, her ideas were contradictory with Yeats's revolutionary ideas. Yeats sustained the Irish liberation movement, but he opposed violent revolution. He considered the sacrifice of common people in revolution was unnecessary and kind of foolish. He pinned his hope on British government and believed that they could win the Irish independence and people's liberty by the improvement policies of government. Due to the radically different views of revolution, it was doomed that Yeats and Maud Gonne could not be together. Although Maud Gonne was captivated by Yeats's talents and moved by his burning passion of love, the love would finally become a victim of history and the era which was overwhelmed in the vast wave of history. People felt endless regret for Yeats, but perhaps just thanks to the love setbacks, they had brought more and more insightful life feeling for Yeats, thus inspired more profound creative enthusiasm in his poems.

NEVER GIVE ALL THE HEART

Never give all the heart, for love
 Will hardly seem worth thinking of
 To passionate women if it seem
 Certain, and they never dream
 That it fades out from kiss to kiss;
 For everything that's lovely is
 But a brief, dreamy, kind delight.
 O never give the heart outright,
 For they, for all smooth lips can say,
 Have given their hearts up to the play.
 And who could play it well enough
 If deaf and dumb and blind with love?
 He that made this knows all the cost,
 For he gave all his heart and lost. (Finneran, 1996, p.79)

This poem vividly reflects Yeats's true feelings after suffering frustrations in love. The poem is mixed with a little resentment of his lover, disappointment of his love and the fundamental change of his ideas of love. The reader can feel the dispirited and discouraged of the poet between the lines, the infinite grief after passion.

C. *Peaceful and Profound Love Poems of Old Age*

When the passionate moments and frustrations are all gone, the poet returns to calm after experiencing both pleasure and agony. Yeats of the old age seems of have seen through the vanity of life. His poems of this period become peaceful and profound, like a cup of good old brandy leaving readers endless aftertaste.

THE WILD SWANS AT COOLE

The trees are in their autumn beauty,
 The woodland paths are dry,
 Under the October twilight the water
 Mirror a still sky;
 Upon the brimming water among the stones
 Are nine-and-fifty swans.
 The nineteenth autumn has come upon me
 Since I first made my count;
 I saw, before I had well finished,
 All suddenly mount
 And scatter wheeling in great broken rings
 Upon their clamorous wings.
 I have looked upon those brilliant creatures,
 And now my heart is sore.
 All's changed since I, hearing at twilight,
 The first time on this shore,
 The bell-beat of their wings above my head,
 Trod with a lighter tread.
 Unwearied still, lover by lover,
 They paddle in the cold
 Companionable streams or climb the air;
 Their hearts have not grown old;
 Passion or conquest, wander where they will,
 Attend upon them still.
 But now they drift on the still water,
 Mysterious, beautiful;
 Among what rushes will they build,
 By what lake's edge or pool
 Delight men's eyes when I awake some day
 To find they have flown away? (Finneran, 1996, p.131)

This poem was written in 1919, when Yeats went on a vacation in Coole. Coole was a rural mansion owned by Mrs. Gregory. For many years, Yeats had been going for summer vacation. Mrs. Gregory was the widower of a proconsul. And she passionately advocated the Irish Renaissance. This poem is inspired by the swans in Coole. For 19 years, Yeats had been seeing the swans frolicking in the water and flying in the sky. This poem shows readers both the happy and sorrowful sides of life: a sigh of the bygone days on the one hand, a praise for the vibrant youth on the other hand. Through the ages, a beautiful swan is refined posture and serene dignified manner by the favor of people and has become the symbol of nobility and purity. The poet would like to depict his mood and understanding of love and life by way of describing the swans.

THE MAN AND THE ECHO

Man
 In a cleft that's christened Alt
 Under broken stone I halt
 At the bottom of a pit
 That broad noon has never lit,
 And shout a secret to the stone.
 All that I have said and done,
 Now that I am old and ill,
 Turns into a question till
 I lie awake night after night
 And never get the answers right.
 Did that play of mine send out
 Certain men the English shot?
 Did words of mine put too great strain
 On that woman's reeling brain?
 Could my spoken words have checked

That whereby a house lay wrecked?

And all seems evil until I

Sleepless would lie down and die

Echo

Lie down and die.

Man

That were to shirk

The spiritual intellect's great work,

And shirk it in vain. There is no release

In a bodkin or disease,

Nor can there be work so great

As that which cleans man's dirty slate.

While man can still his body keep

Wine or love drug him to sleep,

Waking he thanks the Lord that he

Has body and its stupidity,

But body gone he sleeps no more,

And till his intellect grows sure

That all's arranged in one clear view,

pursues the thoughts that I pursue,

Then stands in judgment on his soul,

And, all work done, dismisses all

Out of intellect and sight

And sinks at last into the night.

Echo

Into the night.

Man

O Rocky Voice,

Shall we in that great night rejoice?

What do we know but that we face

One another in this place?

But hush, for I have lost the theme,

Its joy or night-seem but a dream;

Up there some hawk or owl has struck,

Dropping out of sky or rock,

A stricken rabbit is crying out,

And its cry distracts my thought. (Finneran, 1996, p.345)

The Man and the Echo is a poem written in Yeats's old age and perhaps is little known among Yeats's countless lyrics. But this poem inherits Yeats strong lyric style, and combines the deep feeling of life at the same time. This poem alternates the voice of man with echo. This arrangement is obviously generated from Greek mythology, Goddess Echo's legend. And what the echo communicates is the man's own most extreme and exhausted recognitions. The echo marks the limits of the mind's operations even as it calls the mind forth to its utmost exertions. Just like Heaney said, "I rhyme to see myself, to set the darkness echoing."

WHAT WAS LOST

I sing what was lost and dread what was won,

I walk in a battle fought over again,

My king a lost king, and lost soldiers my men;

Feet to rising and setting may run,

They always beat on the same small stone. (Finneran, 1996, p.312)

For Yeats, Maud Gonne is both "what was lost" and "what was won". Because the lifelong bitter love is the miserable "what was lost", while the immortal and widespread poems compose "what was won". The irreconcilable contradiction between "what was lost" and "what was won", the emotional opposition between "sing" and "dread" form the philosophic thought of this poem. On the one hand, Yeats in realistic world can achieve "what was won" virtually in his ideal kingdom as a result of "what was lost" in his longing for love through his whole life; on the other hand, the poet feels dreadful and worry about accomplishing "what was won" in the real world, because to this extent, "what was won" makes another kind of "what was lost". And "what was lost" here means exhaustion of vigor of life and creative power. Therefore, the poet can only involve himself in the seesaw battle of "what was lost" and "what was won".

III. CONCLUSION

As one of the greatest English-language poets of the 20th century, Yeats experiences the transition from Romanticism to Modernism, and his poetic styles also change with time. His poetry, including his love poetry, is generally divided into three periods. Through the analysis in Yeats's love poetry, it is found that the attitude of Yeats toward love is evolving all the time. In the early period, Yeats thinks that love should be nature, and it occurs and wanes naturally. And he thinks that love is more spiritual than sexual (Gan, 2010). His love poems in this period are full of passion and enthusiasm. Therefore, when Yeats describes his pursuing of love, his love poems are full of passion and enthusiasm. In the middle period, Yeats expresses his longing for the immortal love. However, as he and his beloved grow old, he realizes that their love could not be immortal as their lives are perishable. In the late period, Yeats expresses his opinion that love is the unity of body and soul. His understanding of love reaches to a peaceful and profound realm.

Yeats's love for Maud Gonne lasts for a lifetime, which exerts a significant impact on the poet. This love is not only reflected in Yeats's love poems, but his works of other types. For instance, in his poem "Easter 1916" which depicts the Irish Easter rebellion in 1916, the poet describes mainly several heroes, one of which is the husband of Maud Gonne John McBride. Despite his grudge, the poet still gives an objective appraisal toward him regardless of personal grievances, which shows the greatness of the poet.

All in all, poets need inspiration. Poets need passion. The great poet even needs these. Only the true reflections of life and personal experiences can inspire poets' creation enthusiasm to write the most excellent works. The love between Yeats and Maud Gonne is recounted by people from generation to generation, not because of its perfection but its poignant sadness leaving us everlasting regret. But this sad love is also the resource of countless great love poems. This classic love gives Yeats profound feeling for life and also brings forth the lines after lines of immortal words in front of us.

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Yue Zhang, Assistant Professor in North China Institute of Science and Technology, has received a M. A. Degree from North China Electric Power University, China, 2007. Currently she works at the College of Foreign Languages in NCIST and has been teaching college English for more than 7 years. Her research interests include college English teaching, British and American Literature, the philosophy of translation, and Sino-English translation practice. She has published more than 10 research papers on college English teaching, British and American Literature studies.

Lijun Wang, lecturer in North China Institute of Science and Technology, has received a M. A. Degree from Shandong University, China, 2008. Currently she works at College of Foreign Languages in NCIST and has been teaching college English for more than 6 years. Her research interests include college English teaching, linguistics, British and American Literature, and Sino-English translation practice. She has published 8 research papers on college English teaching, British and American Literature studies.

The Syntax of Topicalization of NP/DP after ‘De’ in Chinese*

Haopeng Yu

Faculty of International Studies, Henan Normal University, Xinxiang, China

Abstract—The purpose of this paper is to study a special phenomenon of topicalization construction in Mandarin Chinese, in which the topicalized constituent is the noun phrase (NP) or the determiner phrase (DP) after ‘De’ in the De phrase (DeP). Two problems will be addressed: (I) what is the derivational process of topicalization in Mandarin Chinese. (II) what constraint is involved in the derivational process of such a kind of topic structure. After examining the derivational process of the structure, we arrive at two conclusions: (I) the Topic feature drives the movement of the structure, (II) the topicalization of NP/DP after ‘De’ in DeP1 does not violate PIC, while the topicalization of NP/DP after ‘De’ in DeP2 does.

Index Terms—topicalization, derivation by phase, PIC

I. INTRODUCTION

Topicalization is a process by which a constituent is made into the topic of a sentence by being moved into a more prominent position at the front of the sentence (Radford 2009). Such behavior might be said to be topicalized in a sentence. The purpose of this paper is to study a special phenomenon of topicalization in Mandarin Chinese, in which the constituent, moved into the topic position, is the noun phrase (NP) or the determiner phrase (DP) after ‘De’ in the original sentence, such as (1). In the following we will call this type of topicalization as the topicalization of NP/DP after ‘De’ in Chinese.

- (1) a. Shu_i, wo xihuan Zhangsan xie de t_i.
book I like Zhangsan write DE
‘I like the book which is written by Zhangsan.’
b. * Xiaoxi_i, wo tingshuo le Zhangsan da le Lisi de t_i.
news I hear LE Zhangsan beat LE Lisi DE
‘I have heard the news that Zhangsan has beaten Lisi.’

As we can see, (1a) is grammatical, whereas (1b) is not. The central issue of this paper is to account for the underlying reasons for the differences between (1a) and (1b).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section is a review of previous studies and unresolved problems. Concerning the topicalization of NP/DP after ‘De’ in Chinese, there are two questions, which need further researches.

The first one is what is the derivational process of such a kind of topic structure. Few of the previous studies touched this special topic structure, though there is much in literature on the derivational process of the common topic structure in Chinese. The focus of the discussions is whether topics in Chinese are base-generated or derived by movement. Some linguists argue that topics are base-generated (Xu & Langendoen 1985; Xu 1986). Other linguists suggest that they are derived by movement (Huang 1987; Shi 1992; Yang & Liu 2014). Whereas, The third opinion is that some topics are derived by movement and others are not (Huang et al. 2009). We will give a unified explanation concerning the way the topic structure in Chinese is derived, which also turns out to be right for the topicalization of NP/DP after ‘De’ in Chinese.

The second one is what constraint is involved in the derivational process of such a kind of topic structure. Closely pertaining to this question is the status of De in Chinese. There are two approaches dealing with the derivation of DeP. The first one holds that De is a Complementizer (C). Huang (1982); Ning (1996) assume that DeP is a relative clause (CP). Simpson & Wu (2002); believes that DeP is a DP, with the CP as a complement. The second approach claims that DeP is a maximal projection of De (Wu 2000).

Among them Wu’s (2000) analysis is the most comprehensive and inspiring. Wu maintains that ‘De’ of Chinese is a special functional category. By merging with an NP or a DP, this functional category will form a DeP. As a matter of fact, DeP can be subclassified into different sorts based on the internal structure of IP in front of ‘De’.

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According to Wu (2000), ‘De’ in Chinese is a special functional category, and carries the strong [Nom], which is uninterpretable and should be checked in the derivation. In order to check its uninterpretable feature [Nom], ‘De’ needs an NP or a DP, which also has [Nom], to match with it.

Let us look at one of the DeP, in which there is an empty NP or DP in the IP preceding ‘De’. The derivational process is illustrated in (2).

- (2) a. [_{DeP}[IP Wangwu shuo e][_{De} de]]
 Wangwu say De
 what said by Wangwu

In some point of the derivation, the functional head ‘De’ merges with its complement IP, then there is a maximal projection of DeP. Because of its uninterpretable [Nom], ‘De’ attracts the empty NP in IP to target on it. So there are the De’ and [Spec, DeP]. The Move-F will move the [Nom] of the empty NP to Spec and make them into the relationship of Head-Spec. At that time the strong [Nom] of De will match that of the empty NP and the uninterpretable feature of ‘De’ will be erased.

We can see that in such a kind of DeP there is at least one empty category in the IP preceding ‘De’. According to Wu (2000), this fact is a crucial condition for the DeP, because it is assumed that only the [Nom] of the empty category that can match with that of ‘De’. This kind of DeP will be called DeP1 in the following.

We also notice that there is no other constituent after De in DeP1. Actually an NP or a DP can be adjoined after De in DeP1. Wu (2000) calls it complicated DeP, such as (3).

- (3) a. [_{DeP}[IP e chengshi] de[_{NP} haizi]]
 honest De child
 ‘an honest child’
 b. [_{DeP}[IP Zhangsan xie e] de[_{NP} shu]]
 Zhangsan write De book
 ‘the book written by Zhangsan’

The derivational process of the complicated DeP is same as that of the DeP1. The only difference is that after the derivation of DeP1 there is an additional adjunction merge, which adds the NP or DP after ‘De’. We should keep it in mind that this adjunction merge is optional, without the NP or the DP the DeP is still grammatical. This is essential for our following argumentation. So we will call the above-mentioned two DePs as DeP1.

Let us look at the second DeP, in which there is no empty NP or DP in the IP preceding De, such as (4).

- (4) a. [_{DeP}[IP Zhangsan du shu] de[_{NP} difang]]
 Zhangsan read book De place
 ‘the place where Zhangsan read books’
 b. [_{DeP}[IP Zhangsan da le Lisi] de[_{NP} xiaoxi]]
 Zhangsan beat LE Lisi De news
 ‘the news that Zhangsan has beaten Lisi’

The functional category De merges with IP *zhangsan dushu*. So there is a maximal projection headed by ‘De’. In order to check the uninterpretable feature [Nom] of ‘De’, the Move-F will attract the NP or DP in the IP to target on De. So, there is the De’ and [Spec, DeP]. However, *Zhangsan* and *shu* in the IP are NPs with phonetical content, in other words, there is no empty NP or DP in the IP. Such NPs can not be moved to the Spec to match with the [Nom] of De. If the [Nom] of ‘De’ can not be matched, the derivation will not converge. We can select another NP or DP from the Numeration and put it on the position of Spec, there, the NP or DP and De is under the Spec-Head relation. Therefore, their formal feature can match and as a result the [Nom] of ‘De’ will be erased. Such kind of DeP will be called DeP2. In DeP2 the NP or the DP after ‘De’ is on the Spec of the DeP2, so it is obligatory.

III. THE MOTIVATION OF THE TOPIC MOVEMENT

The MP assumes that all syntactic structures are merged by lexical items. The premise of the merge is that the lexical items should have identical features including semantic features, categorial features and syntactic features. We will argue that the topicalization in Chinese is derived by internal merge.

The MP holds that the uninterpretable features must be checked off before Spell-Out. If not, it will make the derivation crash. Within Chomsky’s (1995) version of the MP, a feature can be rendered invisible once a local configuration has been established between the element bearing the uninterpretable feature and another element bearing a feature of the same type. This process is referred as feature checking. In other words the uninterpretable features must enter into agreement relations with interpretable features. The feature checking is the driving force of Displacement or Movement.

Interpretable features, on the other hand, must not be eliminated, since they contribute to interpretation. Since movement operations are driven by the need to check morphological features, economy considerations lead us to expect that interpretable features never undergo movement. One proposal is that some semantic features are also relevant to movement. They must be checked off before Spell-Out even though semantic features are interpretable features. In Nakamura et al. (2001), there is a piece of evidence to prove the above proposal. Their view is closely identical with our idea. They discuss the question of topicalization in English.

- (5) a. I believe that you should read this book.
 b. This book_i, I believe that you should read t_i.
 (Nakamura et al. (2001))

The element moved to the beginning of a sentence expresses a general topic and the rest of the sentence represents comment on the topic. The operation adjoins the topical factor to tense phrase (TP). The structure on (5b) is given in (6).

- (6) [TP this book_i [TP I believe that [you should read t_i]]].
 (ibid.)

The additional movement in (6) is not motivated by any feature checking. The position adjoined to a maximal projection is not checked by the head. This movement lacks motivation of feature checking and violates the Last Resort. However, they propose a functional feature attracting the topical factor to evade the Last Resort violation. A functional projection occurs between a CP and a TP. Both the topicalized *this book* and F(ocus) have the semantic feature, and the feature needs to be checked off before Spell-Out. The functional projection with the feature attracts the topicalized element to [Spec, FP]. This derives the representation of (7).

- (7) [CP [FP this book_i F [TP I believe that [you should read t_i]]]]
 (ibid.)

Traditional linguists have regarded the operation like topicalization as an optional movement. We disagree with the viewpoint and think that their syntactic constituents must be moved from the base-position to [Spec, FP] for the sake of feature checking. Moreover, we propose that an interpretable feature is relevant to movement, although the MP only accepts uninterpretable features as a trigger for movement.

As for topicalization in Chinese, we hold that the topic structure is a kind of CP, whose head carries the feature [+Topic]. The topic feature of C will attract the XP, which has the same feature [+Topic], to have feature checking. During this operation, the XP and its [+Topic] feature will move into the Spec of CP together.

IV. THE DERIVATION OF TOPICALIZATION OF NP/DP AFTER 'DE' IN CHINESE

Before we elaborate on the derivation of topicalization of NP/DP after 'De' in Chinese, it is necessary to review Derivation by Phrase (Chomsky 2001).

A. *The Mechanism of Derivation by Phrase*

The central proposal of Derivation by Phase (Chomsky 2001) is that language is an optimal solution of the computational system (grammar) to the constraints imposed by the two interfaces: PF and LF. As Chomsky points out (2001), there is no LF, strictly speaking, in this approach to syntactic relations, since Lexical Array is handed over to Semantic component 'piece-by-piece'. These piece-by-piece units are called phases.

- (8) Phase (Chomsky 2001):

A phase is a unit of syntactic computation that can be sent to Spell-Out.

Following Derivation by Phase, Chomsky assumes that the phases are v^*P and CP, but not TP.

Nissenbaum (2000) argues that what is spelled out and is no longer accessible to the syntactic component is not the phase node itself (vP , CP), but the complement of its head (TP and VP, respectively). After the operation TRANSFER only the edge of the phase is available for the derivation. The edge is the head in the phase and its specifier. The edge is an escape hatch for successive cyclic movement of the complement, which, if it remains in situ, must be spelled out at the operation TRANSFER. The fact that only the edge is available is formulated by Chomsky as the Phrase Impenetrability Condition, PIC.

- (9) Phase Impenetrability Condition (PIC)

Only the edge of a phase can be accessed from outside this phase.

B. *The Derivation of Topicalization of Subject and Object in Chinese SVO Sentences*

As discussed above, we assume that the Subject or the Object in Chinese SVO sentences will be moved to adjoin to [Spec, CP] if it carries [+Topic] feature. In the following we will analyze the derivational process of the topic structure, in which the Object is Topic, as shown in (10).

- (10) Shu, wo xihuan.
 book, I like
 'Books, I like.'

At some point of the derivation we will get (11).

- (11) [_{vP} [_{VP} wo [_v xihuan shu]]]

When Tense Projection (TP) is introduced into the derivation, the Subject *wo* will be moved from [Spec, VP] to [Spec, TP], because the head T is a probe, which has uninterpretable EPP feature, and it will attract the nominal category Subject to check the EPP feature. At the same time this operation will check off the nominative Case of the Subject. This is illustrated in (12).

- (12) [TP Wo_j [_{VP} t_j [_v xihuan shu]]]]

Because the light verb also has uninterpretable EPP feature to be checked off, unlike the checking of uninterpretable

EPP feature of T, the EPP feature of ν can be checked through an application of the operation Agree in which the probe ν enters in a long distance relation with the goal (Object NP). In the operation the accusative Case of the Object can be also checked off. So Object NP does not need to move to the edge of the ν P. Therefore, if the Object remains in situ by the time in which the phase ν P is completed, it cannot be attracted by the COMP carrying [+Topic]. If the Object NP moves from the complement of ν P (or VP, specifically speaking) to the [Spec CP], the movement will violate PIC, because the ν P is a strong phase, it would have evacuated the syntactic derivation by the time the bottom-up derivation reaches the CP level. The only legitimate derivation, as illustrated in (13), is one in which the Object NP moves to the edge of the ν P phase and is therefore visible from the COMP position, in accordance with PIC.

(13) [_{TP} WO_j [_{νP} Shu_i [_{νP} t_j [_V xihuan t_i]]]]

However, in the light of the economic principle in the MP every movement must be driven. We will explain what forces the Object NP to move from its original position to the edge of ν P. Chomsky (2001) assumed that this problem could be handled by adopting the suggestion that syntactic movement might be replaced by the recording of ‘occurrences’. Consider a typical case of agreement between ν and the Object NP. In the occurrences alternative to movement, after ν agrees with the Object NP, the presence of the EPP feature causes ν to be marked as an ‘occurrence’ of the Object NP. In *Beyond Explanatory Adequacy* (Chomsky, 2001), ν is regarded as an occurrence of the Object. Or we can say that the head ν is assigned the OCC feature, triggering movement to the edge of ν P. Tang (2001) represented the partial derivation of *Who did you see* in (14). To make sure that *who* undergoes successive-cyclic movement from the complement of ν P to the edge of CP via the edge of ν P, ν is assigned OCC.

(14) a. [see who]
 b. [ν [see who]]
 c. [you [ν [see who]]]
 d. [who [you [ν [see who]]]] ...
 (Tang 2001)

When the derivation goes to (39), the object NP ‘*shu*’ will move to [Spec, CP], and there it will check off the [+Topic] of C, as illustrated in (15).

(15) [_{CP} Shu_i [_{TP} WO_j [_{νP} t_i [_{νP} t_j [_V xihuan t_i]]]]]]

At this point, we have completed the description of the whole derivational process of topicalization in Chinese in which the Object is the topic of the sentence.

In the following we will present the derivational process of the topic structure, in which the Subject is the Topic, as shown in (16).

(16). Wo, xihuan shu.
 I like book
 ‘I like books.’

As discussed above, in (38) the Subject NP ‘*wo*’ will move from the edge of ν P to the [Spec, TP], there it will check off the EPP feature of T. When the derivation goes to (38), if the Subject NP ‘*wo*’ carries [+Topic], it will move from [Spec, TP] to [Spec, CP], as presented in (17).

(17) [_{CP} WO_j [_{TP} t_j [_{νP} [_{νP} t_j [_V xihuan shu]]]]]]

In this section we have analyzed the derivational process of the topicalization of the Subject and the Object in Chinese SVO sentences. In the next section we will base on the above analysis to present the derivational process of topicalization of the NP/DP after ‘*De*’ in Chinese.

C. The derivation of topicalization of NP/DP after ‘*De*’ in Chinese

The topicalization of NP/DP after ‘*De*’ in Chinese occurs in two types of DeP: DeP1 and DeP2, as illustrated by (1) repeated as (18). The former construction is grammatical, while the latter is ungrammatical.

(18) a. Shu_i, wo xihuan Zhangsan xie de t_i.
 book I like Zhangsan write DE
 ‘I like the book which is written by Zhangsan.’
 b. *Xiaoxi_i, wo tingshuo le Zhangsan da le Lisi de t_i.
 news I hear LE Zhangsan beat LE Lisi DE
 ‘I have heard the news that Zhangsan has beaten Lisi.’

In the following we will describe the derivational process of (18a) and (18b) respectively to show why the former is grammatical and the latter ungrammatical.

We will first look at the (18a). In (18a) the topic is ‘*shu*’, which is an NP after ‘*De*’ in DeP1 before it is topicalized to the front of the sentence. In such kind of DeP, the constituents in front of ‘*De*’ together with ‘*De*’ are adjoined to the NP ‘*shu*’, and the whole constituent ‘*Zhangsan xie de shu*’ will be regarded as an NP, in which the head is the NP ‘*shu*’. Because the whole NP is the Object before it is topicalized, and the ‘*shu*’ is the head of the NP, the derivational process of such kind of topicalization is same as (10), in which the Object is the topic. The partial derivational process will be presented in (19), in which we will omit the V movement.

(19) [_{CP} shu_i [_{TP} WO_j [_{νP} t_i [_{νP} t_j [_V kanguo Zhangsan xie de t_i]]]]]]

In (19), the Subject ‘*wo*’ will be moved from [Spec, VP] to [Spec, TP], because the head T is a probe, which has uninterpretable EPP feature, and it will attract the nominal category Subject NP to check the EPP feature. At the same

time this operation will check off the nominative Case of the Subject NP. The object NP ‘*zhangsan xie de shu*’ will agree with v , by the operation of agreement the EPP feature of v and the accusative Case feature of NP will be checked off. At this moment because the NP ‘*shu*’ has [+Topic] feature, it needs to move to the [Spec, CP]. As discussed above, after v agrees with the Object NP, the presence of the EPP feature causes v to be marked as an “occurrence” of the Object NP. Because the head of the Object NP ‘*zhangsan xie de shu*’ is the NP ‘*shu*’, we will assume further that v is regarded as an occurrence of the head of the Object NP, namely the NP ‘*shu*’. Therefore, the head v is assigned the OCC feature, triggering movement of NP ‘*shu*’ to the edge of vP . So the NP “*shu*” will first move to the [Spec, vP], and then move to the [Spec, CP].

Next we will talk about the derivational process of (18b). In (18b) the topic is “*xiaoxi*”, which is an NP after ‘De’ in DeP2 before it is topicalized to the front of the sentence. In such kind of DeP the NP ‘*xiaoxi*’ occupies the [Spec, DeP], and the whole constituent ‘*Zhangsan dale Lisi de xiaoxi*’ will be regarded as a DP, in which the head is not the NP ‘*xiaoxi*’. The partial derivational process will be presented in (20).

(20) * $[_{CP} \text{ xiaoxi}_i [_{TP} \text{ wo}_j [_{vP} [_{vP} \text{ t}_j [_v \text{ tingshuo le Zhangsan dale Lisi de t}_i]]]]]$

The movement of the NP ‘*xiaoxi*’ to the [Spec, CP] is ungrammatical because it violates the PIC. The moved NP ‘*xiaoxi*’ occupies the complement position of vP . According to DBP, vP is a strong phase, after the Spell-out of vP , its complement is unavailable to the next strong phase, here the strong phase of CP. Unlike the NP ‘*shu*’ in (44a), which can move to the [Spec, vP] firstly, the NP ‘*xiaoxi*’ is not the head of the Object and it can not undergo the cyclic movement.

V. CONCLUSIONS

We hold that the topic structure in Chinese is a kind of CP, whose head carries the feature [+Topic] attracting the XP, which has the same feature [+Topic], to have feature checking. We also have explained why the NP/DP after ‘De’ in DeP1 can be topicalized, while that in DeP2 can not. There are two reasons. The first one is that NP or DP after ‘De’ in DeP1 is optional, which is derived by adjunction merge, whereas that in DeP2 is obligatory, which occupies the specifier of DeP. The second one is that the topicalization of NP/DP after ‘De’ in DeP2 violates PIC, but the topicalization of NP/DP after ‘De’ in DeP1 does not.

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Haopeng Yu was born in Nanyang City of Henan, China. He received the Master’s degree in Syntax in 2005. He is now a PHD candidate in Guangdong University of Foreign Studies. He is an associate professor at the Faculty of International Studies, Henan Normal University. In recent years, he published more than 10 academic papers in the key journals. He has also finished 5 research projects. His academic interests include syntax and language acquisition.

Reading Strategies in Foreign Language Academic Reading: A Qualitative Investigation

Rakchanok Saengpakdeejit

School of English, Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand

Channarong Intaraprasert

School of English, Suranaree University of Technology, Nakhon Ratchasima, Thailand

Abstract—The purpose of this study was to investigate how EFL undergraduate students do to improve their reading comprehension, solve the problems encountered while reading, and overcome comprehension failures. This paper presents a qualitative investigation designed to provide a clear picture of the strategies used by those students in their academic reading. A semi-structured interview served as the main source of data. Thirty-nine students from four different government universities participated in the study. The transcribed interview data was analyzed with ‘open and axial coding’ techniques. The data analyses revealed two main emergent categories of reading strategies: 1) strategies for comprehending reading texts (SCT); and 2) strategies for enhancing textual comprehension (SETC) with altogether 39 individual reading strategies. The implications of the findings for language teaching and learning are discussed.

Index Terms—academic reading, reading strategy, EFL undergraduate students, qualitative investigation

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper describes a qualitative investigation of the strategies used in the comprehension of reading English language texts when the materials being read are specialized academic reading.

Reading has been defined as the process of constructing meaning through the dynamic interaction among: (1) the reader's existing knowledge; (2) the information suggested by the text being read; and (3) the context of the reading situation (Pikulski, 1997). Brumfit (1980, p.3) has defined reading as “an extremely complex activity involving a combination of perceptual, linguistic and cognitive abilities.” Moreover, Goodman (1995, p.11) has seen reading as “a psycholinguistic guessing game”. He defines reading as “a communication between the reader and the writer.” In this paper, reading strategies refer to any sets of learning processes, learning techniques, or learning behaviors; whether observable or unobservable, which EFL undergraduate students reported employing for comprehending an English academic reading text either in the classroom setting or outside the classroom setting including improving their reading comprehension skills, solving the problems encountered while reading, and overcoming their failures to fully comprehend the texts.

Previous research works on L2 reading have indicated that reading is an interactive meaning-making process in which readers utilize a large number of strategies to achieve the goal of reading comprehension (Alderson, 2000; Anderson, 1999; Carrell, 1998). Many researchers have begun to recognize the significant role of reading strategies in reading comprehension. Consequently, they have made attempts at identifying various reading strategies (Anderson, 1991; Block, 1986; Zhang & Wu, 2009).

The relationship of the use of strategies to success in mastering a second or foreign language, as well as to various variables, has been the focus of a growing body of research over the past two decades (Green & Oxford, 1995). Understanding the ways in which the strategic reading behavior of students influences reading comprehension may result in the rigorous construction of appropriate reading lessons.

In the previous studies, for example, Adamson (1990, 1991, 1992) has found that ESL students from different academic and cultural backgrounds displayed a wide range of academic strategies. In other words, the students performed their academic reading tasks in ways they were influenced by their own academic backgrounds and culture. Their individual learning styles and the nature of the tasks assigned were also factors which could influence the students' use of strategies. According to Li and Munby (1996), they have found that ESL academic reading was a very deliberate, demanding and complex process in which the students actively invoked a variety of strategies in order to understand academic contextual materials. The students mentioned paraphrasing, repetition, using contextual clues to predict, looking for purposes and important information, visualizing, self-questioning, using background knowledge, paying attention to connectives, skimming, scanning, paying attention to topic sentences, using comparison and contrast, and picking out key words. Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) investigated the differences in the reported use of reading strategies of native and non-native English speakers when reading academic materials. The results revealed that both US and ESL students display awareness of almost all of the strategies included in the survey. Moreover, both groups

attribute the same order of importance to categories of reading strategies in the survey, regardless of their reading ability: cognitive strategies, followed by metacognitive strategies, and support strategies.

While such research works on L2 reading have increased interest in students' use of reading strategies, to date there has been limited qualitative research on EFL students' use of reading strategies at the university level. In academic reading, these students need to control or monitor their reading more constantly than when they read for general purposes because they might encounter difficulties while reading academic materials (Li and Munby, 1996).

English teaching and learning in Thailand

At present, the educational system in Thailand is undergoing reforms. Students learning English as a foreign language (EFL) are encouraged to be autonomous learners (Ampra & Thaitae, n.d.). Therefore, teachers of English should implement reading strategy instruction in order to help students form good reading habits and become autonomous readers. Although readers' reading strategy use has been recognized in previous research works, very few studies in this area have been conducted in Thailand, particularly with undergraduate students.

In the Thai educational system, English is a foreign language that students must study in schools. It is a compulsory subject from the primary school onwards (Ministry of Education, 2002). Moreover, passing an English examination is a prerequisite for further education. Additionally, undergraduate students in Thailand begin reading lengthy and authentic academic texts starting from the second year of their study. In spite of the importance of English reading, Thai students' reading proficiency is low because of the limited use of English in the students' day to day life. According to Silapasatham (1999), the teaching and the learning of languages in the Thai education system is in crisis because a great number of university graduates cannot use English effectively.

Since many universities benefit from academic materials written in English, English reading proficiency becomes an extremely important requirement for the students. The students are expected to understand what they read regardless of the subject matter they study. Therefore, reading skills are of significant importance in such environments (Ozek 2006). With strengthened reading skills, EFL students will make greater progress and attain greater development in academic areas. As the ability to read an academic foreign language text is difficult, complicated and time-consuming, any strategies that may make academic reading easier have been the subject of much interest.

Hence, this study aimed to produce the data that would contribute to better understanding of EFL academic reading and that would provide useful information for both EFL instructors and EFL students about the nature of EFL academic reading comprehension. By exploring the students' use of reading strategies, the present study may give direction for teaching and learning. Moreover, it may aid teachers in selecting appropriate course materials for their students. In addition, the findings of this study are expected to generate some implications for EFL reading lesson in universities in Thailand. This study was also expected to find answers to the following two research questions in the context of students' use of reading strategies while reading academic texts (such as reading textbooks, journal articles, class handouts, etc.):

- 1) What strategies do EFL students use to achieve comprehension in their academic reading? and
- 2) How do they use these strategies?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total of 39 EFL undergraduate students from four government universities in four different regions of Thailand participated in the study. At the time of data collection, the participants were enrolled in either ESP or EAP courses. All of these 39 students were willing to participate in the study. Although no specific criteria were used to select these 39 participants, they had to come from either the field of Health Science or Science and Technology. Within this group, there were 23 Science and Technology students, and 16 Health Science students. These students were chosen as the subjects of this study because they had to read a lot of academic texts related to their field of study. Color figures will be appearing only in online publication. All figures will be black and white graphs in print publication.

B. Data Collection

A semi-structured interview was used as the main instrument for data collection of the present study in order to elicit information about reading strategies employed by the participants. It is regarded as one of the most powerful ways that researchers employ to understand others (Punch 2005). One of the advantages of semi-structured interview is that interviewer can make clear the questions that are ambiguous to interviewees. The reason for its popularity is stated by Nunan (1992) "...because of its flexibility, the semi-structured interview has been found favour with many researchers, particularly those working within an interpretive research tradition". In the semi-structured interview, the interviewer has a general idea of where he or she wants the interview to go, and what should come out of it, but does not enter the interview with a list of predetermined question (Nunan, 1992). The interviewer used a list of questions as guidelines rather than specific questions worded identically for each participant.

To explore how the participants manage their academic reading texts, a one-to-one semi-structured interview was conducted as the main method of data collection. With respect to the student interview question guide, it comprised altogether 13 questions. 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. This part was intended to (1) develop a good

relationship and trust between the interviewer and the interviewees; (2) increase the interviewees' confidence in the interview scenario; and (3) reduce the interviewees' nervousness in the interview environment (Measor, 1985 cited in Intaraprasert, 2000). The second part (Questions 5 to 13) focused on the students' reading strategies employed both inside and outside a language classroom. The main purposes of this part were to explore the students reading strategies they used while reading academic texts, the problems the students encountered while reading, and how they solved those problems. The questions used in the investigation can be summarised as follows:

Part I:

Q1: a general introduction to the interview including; the interviewer's and interviewees' names, the interviewees' area of study and the purposes of the interview;

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

Q3: an investigation of the number of hours per week that each interviewee is spending, or has spent studying English, and whether he or she considers it to be sufficient;

Q4: an investigation of the number of hours per week that each interviewee is spending, or has spent attending EAP or ESP classes and whether he or she considers it to be sufficient;

Part II:

Q5: an investigation of each interviewee's perception of his/her reading ability

Q6 and Q7: an investigation of each interviewee's opinion about the importance of English academic reading in his/her life, and future career;

Q8: an investigation of each interviewee's opinion about what he/she finds difficult in English academic reading;

Q9: an investigation of reading problems each interviewee encounters while reading English academic material, and how he/she solves those problems;

Q10: an investigation of each interviewee's strategies that he/she employs to discover the meanings of unknown vocabularies;

Q11 and Q12: an investigation of the student's use of reading strategies both within and outside the classroom settings (pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading); and

Q13: an investigation of each interviewee's opinion about reading study from his/her own experience.

Both interviewer and all interviewees agreed to speak Thai during the interviews so that the participants, whose native language was Thai, would not misinterpret or misunderstand the questions which might distort the actual responses. The interviews were held during the first semester of the 2008 academic year and the average length of each interview was about 30-40 minutes. Each interviewee's appointment was arranged at a time that was convenient for them to attend the interview. The participants were told that the researcher was interested in how EFL undergraduate students, whose native language is Thai, achieve comprehension when reading academic materials. At the beginning of the interview session, each interviewee was requested to choose and read one academic passage. Reading materials varied from required textbooks, journal articles, and articles recommended by his/her instructor. In each interview, the interviewer silently read a copy of the material as the interviewee read. Reading averaged 15 minutes. The interview started after both the interviewer and the interviewee had finished reading the passage. While interviewing, the researcher tried to establish a relaxed atmosphere and to develop a good relationship between the interviewer and interviewees by addressing the students by their first name, or nickname based on their preference. In the interview, the participants were requested to answer and talk to the researcher about how they managed to achieve comprehension while reading academic texts, especially an understanding of those parts of the text which they found particularly difficult. The researcher started the interview by talking about the background information of the interviewees, such as their names, major field of study, etc. They were then asked to identify any problems found while reading and how they solve those problems and achieve comprehension. Moreover, their responses guided the subsequent questions for the interview. For example, when unfamiliar vocabulary items were mentioned as being the difficulty in comprehending and understanding a particular text, the issues would be discussed including the ways in which the students solved and overcame that difficulty.

All interviews were tape-recorded instead of taking notes. According to Intaraprasert (2000), taking notes while conducting the interview can interrupt the interview process and eventually it may result in the failure of the interviews. Then, all recordings were transcribed more or less verbatim after having finished interviews. Two strategies were used in order to increase the reliability and validity of the interview transcripts after having finished the first transcribing: 1) repeatedly listening to and transcribing the tape records of the interviews with two colleagues; and 2) equating the literal meanings of transcripts through back-translations by asking for assistance from friends who are university instructors.

C. Data Analysis

The transcribed interview data were analyzed with 'open and axial coding' techniques proposed by Punch (2005) and Strauss and Corbin (1998). According to Strauss and Corbin (1990 and 1998), coding serves to summarize, synthesize, and sort out the emergent themes in interviews. Strauss and Corbin (1998) have defined *Open coding* as "the analytic process through which concepts are identified and their properties (the general or specific characteristics or attributes of a category) and dimensions (the location of a property along a continuum or range) are discovered in data" and *Axial*

coding as “the process of relating categories to their subcategories, termed “axial” because coding occurs around the axis of a category, linking categories at the level of properties and dimension.” For qualitative researchers, coding means creating categories from interpretation of the data and examining the pre-formed categories based on the purpose of the investigation. In the present study, the data collected for this study were analyzed through *Open coding*, i.e. process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing, and categorizing data (Strauss and Corbin, 1990 and 1998) in order to take the data obtained apart and to examine the discrete parts for difference and similarities, moreover *the axial coding* was used in order to reassemble the data fractured during open coding. Then, the researcher carefully read the transcripts for possible codes or categories relevant to the purposes of the study. Initially, hundreds of strategies emerged from the interviews. Thus, these strategies were as far as possible summarized and grouped. Many of the reported reading strategies frequently mentioned by the participants were consistent with other research findings, e.g. use of background knowledge, context clues, translation, prediction, and so forth. However, three reading strategies reported by the participants were singled out because they were not specifically mentioned in any past research findings. These included looking for the parallel article(s) in Thai (if any), reciting vocabulary items in rhymes, and associating the sound of a Thai word with that of a new English vocabulary item. The reading strategies were then categorized based on the definition of reading strategies for the present study mentioned earlier. Categorized data were checked by the researcher’s supervisor and three other colleagues.

III. RESULT

The data showed that the participants actively invoked a variety of strategies in order to achieve the academic reading texts. The analysis of the data revealed a total of 39 statements which the students reported employing while reading an English academic material. Then the 39 statements were classified into two main categories: 1) strategies for comprehending reading texts (henceforward “SCT”); and 2) strategies for enhancing textual comprehension category (henceforward “SETC”). A brief description of each category and the number of items within each category are given below:

Category 1: Strategies for comprehending reading texts (SCT) refer to the actions and procedures that the reader employs when faced with academic reading materials (28 items). This category has been abbreviated as SCT in order to apply a structure and reference system to the data. The strategies in this category can be divided into three purposes as follows:

Purpose 1: To comprehend reading texts before doing the actual reading

(SCTBAR) or *pre-reading strategies* are techniques which the students reported employing to comprehend the academic text before doing actual reading. The interview data revealed that the participants reported eleven strategies running from SCTBAR1 to SCTBAR 11 which were employed before starting reading. These strategies might aid them to get some information about what they were going to read. Furthermore, the interview data showed that the participants generally felt a lot of anxiety about academic reading because they were not capable of comprehending directly in texts written in English. Before reading, they needed to know something appeared in the texts, therefore the participants depended heavily on the BAR strategies. While reading something “for fun”, they might not rely on BAR as much as they did with the academic reading. The eleven BAR strategies include:

SCTBAR 1: Looking for unfamiliar vocabulary items and searching for their meanings

SCTBAR 2: Reading the title of the text

SCTBAR 3: Going through the text quickly (Skimming)

SCTBAR 4: Reading the first and the last paragraphs

SCTBAR 5: Looking at pictures/charts/tables/figures that appear in the text

SCTBAR 6: Looking at questions about the text (if any)

SCTBAR 7: Scanning for main ideas

SCTBAR 8: Thinking of one’s background knowledge about the text

SCTBAR 9: Reading the abstract or introductory part

SCTBAR 10: Looking for the parallel article(s) in Thai (if any)

SCTBAR 11: Predicting what might happen in the text

The examples of students’ statements are as follows:

“I will look roughly through the whole passage, text, etc. which I am going to read for new words and underline them. Then I will look them up in a dictionary.”

“I will glance through the text in order to check how many new vocabulary items appear. Then I will list all of them and look for their meanings. If I cannot discover the meaning of the vocabulary from my colleagues I will look up the meanings in a dictionary.”

“I will read the title of the article in order to imagine what happens and think whether or not I already have some knowledge of that particular topic”

“I sometimes ask myself questions about the text based on its title, prior to my reading of the article. I will then try to answer my predicted questions”

“For my study, I have to read a large number of articles. When reading each text I begin by reading its abstract in order to discover what the article is generally all about.”

For this purpose, the most frequently found strategy being reported was that the students looked for unfamiliar vocabulary items and then searched for their meanings (SCTBAR 1). This was followed by the use of background knowledge (SCTBAR 8). This showed that for this group of students, the problem of vocabulary seemed the most serious. Most students reported employing dictionaries as the main instrument in searching for meanings. A large number of theories and research findings have emphasized the importance of using background knowledge in English reading. Li and Munby's study indicated that the participants gave much credit to the use of background knowledge in their L2 academic reading. They believed that background knowledge of the content was extremely important for reading and that lack of relevant background knowledge impeded their reading comprehension.

Although the participants believed that deficiencies in the use of SCTBAR strategies might impede their reading comprehension, they realized that these strategies were not necessarily effective at all times because in some situations such as in the examination, there was not enough time for pre-reading. The participants also realized that reading strategies were very useful and could help them in the process of academic reading comprehension, but they said that they did not receive any formal training in how to use strategies at school.

Purpose 2: *To comprehend reading texts while doing the actual reading (SCTWAR) or while-reading strategies* are the actions and procedures readers use while working directly with the academic text. The students reported employing a range of specific strategies in order to understand and fully comprehend the academic text that they were reading. Eleven strategies running from SCTWAR1 to SCTWAR 11 emerged from the interview. The interview data revealed that the participants also depended heavily on the WAR strategies. Clearly the participants realized that the use of these emergent strategies played a very important role in reading. As EFL learners, they believed that they always employed at least one WAR strategy not only in reading academic materials, but also non-academic materials. These eleven strategies include:

- SCTWAR 1: Searching for the meanings of unfamiliar vocabulary items
- SCTWAR 2: Analyzing a sentence structure
- SCTWAR 3: Taking notes of the important information
- SCTWAR 4: Guessing the meaning(s) of the sentence(s) from the context
- SCTWAR 5: Rereading certain part(s) of the text
- SCTWAR 6: Reading certain part(s) of the text slowly
- SCTWAR 7: Skipping difficult part(s)
- SCTWAR 8: Highlighting important information or difficult vocabulary items by underlining
- SCTWAR 9: Highlighting important information or difficult vocabulary items by making symbol(s)
- SCTWAR 10: Translating the reading text into the student's first language
- SCTWAR 11: Making a summary of certain part(s) of the reading text in either Thai or English, or both

Some students' statements are shown below:

"Although I have already looked up the meanings of difficult words before starting reading, I will consult a dictionary again if I face new words while reading."

"If I have found some difficult parts while reading, I will try to read the whole text continuously. Then I will understand what I have read by predicting the meaning of the text from the context."

"I often ignore the difficult parts of a particular text if I can't predict the meaning of that section from the context. Later I will re-read that section in order to confirm my understanding."

"I will try to make myself understand the article by translating the text sentence by sentence—I feel that I have to use this technique in order to understand the reading. When finishing each sentence, I will take a note of the translation. After finishing the whole text, I will attempt to understand the text by linking every sentence together."

As mentioned above, the participants reported using at least one SCTWAR strategy in either their academic or non-academic reading. The most favored or most often reported strategy being used was searching for the meanings of unfamiliar vocabulary items (SCTWAR 1), and followed by translating the reading text into student's first language (SCTWAR 10), skipping difficult part(s) (SCTWAR 7), and guessing the meaning(s) of the sentence(s) from context (SCTWAR 4). This finding was emphasized by these students having stated that unfamiliar vocabulary items were the most serious problem in the lack of understanding of academic reading texts.

Translating what is read in L2 into L1 is a unique strategy for L2 readers who use their first language as a base for understanding or producing the second language (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990). Although some students reported that they had obtained high scores in English proficiency test, they still reported employing translation as a strategy to overcome their academic reading tasks. Many participants reported that they often translated individual words into Thai. Furthermore, the interview data revealed that a lot of participants were unable to think directly in English when reading an English academic text. Instead, they read in English and tried to look for the meanings of unknown words in Thai. Then they thought about what they had read in Thai. The participants also reported that they did a lot of translating when they read English text, then they translated each word of the sentence into Thai and wrote the Thai words above, below, or next to the English sentence in the text. This can be concluded that the students depended heavily on the translation process.

Many of the participants agreed to skip some difficult parts they encountered while reading. They reported that they did not want to waste a lot of time on those parts which could be skipped over without losing much comprehension.

Furthermore, the students skipped the unknown words that were considered not essential to overall comprehension. The participants said that sometimes after having finished reading, they would ask their friends or instructors to make sure their comprehension of the whole text was accurate after skipping some parts.

Li and Munby (1996) found that the participants of their study were capable of using context clues to predict unfamiliar words or phrases in the texts being read. They tried to predict the meanings of the words or phrases by examining their relationship with other items in the sentence. In the present study, the participants reported that they were always encouraged to use context clues to predict the unknown words found in the texts but they did not receive any intensive training at school. Therefore, they often failed in predicting the meanings of unknown words using this strategy. The interview data also revealed that using context clues to predict the meanings of the words was one of the most favored reading strategies, though most of the predictions were incorrect. The participants said that sometimes after the predictions, they would look up the meaning of the words in the dictionary to make sure their predictions were accurate. However, the students frequently found that their predictions were proved wrong. Therefore, they preferred to skip words that were considered difficult and not significant to the understanding of the entire text instead of predicting the meanings of words using context clues.

Purpose 3: *To comprehend reading texts after having done the actual reading (SCTAAR) or post-reading strategies* are actions or techniques which the students reported employing to make sure of their understanding after they have finished reading. These strategies are intended to aid the reader in comprehending the text after they have finished reading such as using some methods to search for the meanings of unknown words which were ignored while reading, discussing what was read with colleagues, or preparing a summary of what was read. Six strategies running from SCTAAR1 to SCTAAR 6 emerged from the interview. The interview data showed that the only half of the participants reported employing some strategies after finishing reading. In other words, the participants did not depend heavily on SCTAAR strategies. In reading something for fun, they reported not to use any strategies after reading. These six SCTAAR strategies are:

SCTAAR 1: Searching for the meanings of new vocabulary items skipped while reading

SCTAAR 2: Discussing the reading text with classmate(s) or friend(s)

SCTAAR 3: Making a summary of the whole reading text

SCTAAR 4: Retelling oneself or other people about what has been read

SCTAAR 5: Reviewing one's own notes

SCTAAR 6: Translating the reading text into Thai using Thai script

Some reported statements are shown below:

"After reading, I will reread the unknown words that have been found while reading. Then, I may look for the meanings of those unknown words that I have skipped over while reading using the dictionary or asking other people after reading."

"I like to talk with my friends after finishing reading. If I can't understand some parts, my friends can help me. On the other hand, I can try to explain the part on which they aren't clear."

"After I have finished reading in English, I translate the whole text into Thai. I have to use this technique in order to check how much of what I have just read I can understand."

Although many participants did not rely heavily on SCTAAR strategies, six strategies were still reported to be employed after reading. Again, the finding has emphasized that the most serious problem reported by the participants in academic reading has been the problem of unfamiliar vocabulary items. Therefore, searching for the meanings of new vocabulary items skipped while reading (SCTAAR 1) was reported to be employed the most frequently. It is followed by discussing what was read with the participants' classmates or friends (SCTAAR 2), and making a summary of what was read (SCTAAR 3).

Some participants reported that they were likely to talk and discuss what was read with their friends in order to check their understanding. While discussion, they shared their ideas of what they read. They compared the similarities and the differences between their understanding so that they did not misunderstand the context. Many participants added that when they could understand the text, they listed the important points into their notebooks and make a summary of what they read. Then they would be able to review it many times without reading the whole text.

Category 2: Strategies for enhancing textual comprehension (SETC) are mechanisms to help the reader in understanding new vocabulary items found while reading (11 items). The strategies in this category can be divided into two purposes as follows:

Purpose 1: *To enhance textual comprehension by solving problems dealing with unknown vocabulary items (SETCUV)*

From the interview data, for most of the participants who were EFL students, the major problem in academic reading was the words which they did not know the meanings. They reported that they always suffered from deficiencies at the number of English vocabulary items which have influenced their reading comprehension. The interview data revealed that the participants reported five strategies running from SETCUV1 to SETCUV5 which were employed when they encountered unknown words while reading. They realized that the use of these emergent strategies played a very important role in reading. These strategies may aid them in comprehending what they were reading more easily.

As EFL learners, the participants believed that they always employed at least one strategy to aid them to know the meanings of unknown words not only in reading academic materials, but also non-academic materials. These emergent five strategies include:

SETCUV 1: Guessing the meaning of a new vocabulary item from the context

SETCUV 2: Looking at the root of an unknown vocabulary

SETCUV 3: Looking up the meaning of an unknown vocabulary item from electronic resources e.g. electronic dictionary (Talking dictionary), dictionary program in a computer, and the Internet

SETCUV 4: Looking up the meaning of a new vocabulary item in a dictionary either English – English or English – Thai

SETCUV 5: Asking for assistance

For example,

“While taking a reading test, I often encounter the problems of unknown vocabulary items. What I usually do is to predict the meanings of those words using the context.”

“I sometimes predict the meaning of new vocabulary items from their roots.”

“Normally I take my talking dictionary with me to the reading class because I know that I can’t read any English texts without knowing the meanings of vocabulary items. Therefore I always consult the talking dictionary....I also look up the meanings of unknown vocabulary items on the internet when I work in front of the computer.”

“I always use a dictionary whenever I encounter new vocabulary items. I always look those words up in the dictionary as I believe that it is important not to ignore new vocabulary items.”

“I may ask my teacher for the meanings of unknown words if they are technical words which can’t be looked up from a general dictionary.”

In this study, the participants depended heavily on their knowledge of vocabulary because they wanted to understand what they read. They also reported that they did not think reading was difficult if they knew the meaning of every word in the text. Therefore, they always employed some strategies to establish the meaning of every unknown word from the text. Unfortunately, they often employed ineffective strategies, e.g. predicting the meaning of unknown words from the context and often missing some important information. Thus, the strategies which the participants relied heavily on were looking up the meanings of unknown words from either electronic resources or normal dictionary which could always give them the correct definitions.

Purpose 2: *To enhance textual comprehension by retaining knowledge of newly-learned vocabulary items (SETCRV)*

SETCRV strategies are the actions and procedures the students employ after having learnt new vocabulary items in order to retain meanings of those items. Such strategies include:

SETCRV 1: Using new vocabulary items to converse with classmates and friends

SETCRV 2: Learning the meanings of new words by rote

SETCRV 3: Reciting vocabulary items in rhymes

SETCRV 4: Associating real objects with vocabulary items

SETCRV 5: Associating the sound of a Thai word with that of a new English vocabulary item

SETCRV 6: Tutoring one’s classmate(s) or friend(s) the reading lessons

Some reported statements are shown below:

“I believe that after I know the meanings of new vocabulary items. If I use those words often in my daily life, I will become familiar with them and finally I will be able to remember them. I also try to talk with my friends by using the newly-learned words in our conversations.”

“While reading, I always look some unknown words up in the dictionary. This can help me understand what I read....After knowing the meanings of those words, I try to memorize their meanings.”

“After class, I usually write new vocabulary items that I have learnt in the lessons on pieces of A4 paper and stick them on the wall in my bedroom. I look at and memorize them when I walk pass. This can help me remember their meanings.”

Most students reported not to rely heavily on these strategies. Although the interview data showed that the participants did not employ these strategies often, they realized that these strategies played a very important role in reading, especially academic reading. The purpose of these strategies is to expand and to retain the students’ knowledge of English vocabulary. The most favored or most often reported strategy being used in order to retain the meaning of an unknown word was learning the meanings of new words by rote (SETCRV 2), and this was followed by using new vocabulary items to converse with classmates and friends (SETCRV 1).

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTION OF RESEARCHER-CONSTRUCTED THE READING STRATEGY CLASSIFICATION

Reading Strategy Inventory (RSI)		
Main Category	Purpose to be Achieved	Individual Strategy
Main Category 1 Strategies for comprehending reading texts (SCT)	• To comprehend reading texts before doing the actual reading (SCTBAR)	SCTBAR 1 – SCTBAR 11
	• To comprehend reading texts while doing the actual reading (SCTWAR)	SCTWAR 1 – SCTWAR 11
	• To comprehend reading texts after having done the actual reading (SCTAAR)	SCTAAR 1 – SCTAAR 6
Main Category 2 Strategies for enhancing textual comprehension (SETC)	• To enhance textual comprehension by solving problems dealing with unknown vocabulary items (SETCUV)	SETCUV 1 – SETCUV 5
	• To enhance textual comprehension by retaining knowledge of newly-learned vocabulary items (SETCRV)	SETCRV 1- SETCRV 6

IV. DISCUSSION

The data of this study clearly shows that the participants had an awareness of their activities while reading English academic materials. The information provided by 39 participants revealed that English academic reading in the tertiary level was a complex process in which they consciously employed the number of strategies. They employed these strategies in order to comprehend an English academic text by improving their reading skills, solving the problems encountered while reading, and overcoming reading comprehension difficulties. This study is significant because it provides a detailed account of the reading strategies reported to be employed by the participants in their English academic reading. It may provide empirical support for future study on reading strategies.

Generally, all participants demonstrated a reliance on dictionaries both electronic dictionaries and book dictionaries in attempts to comprehend English academic text. This strategy has been identified as characteristics of less skilled readers (Bang and Zhao, 2007). Therefore, the finding revealed that most students could be classified as less skilled readers because they relied heavily on dictionaries. Contrastingly, some participants reported employing contextual clues, discussion with classmates and friends, and help of peers or teachers as ways of achieving comprehension of English academic texts, all of which have been recognized as habits of more skilled reader (Bang and Zhao, 2007).

The interview data revealed that the participants were able to monitor the use of reading strategies according to how much they could understand the text and how difficult the texts were. As has been mentioned earlier, the participants customarily used various strategies to help them understand the texts. For example, some were using contextual clues, use of background knowledge, asking for assistance and translation which were consistent with the previous studies from many researchers (e.g. Block, 1986; Sheorey and Mokhtari, 2001; Lau, 2006; and Bang and Zhao, 2007). Reading strategies have played an important role in students' academic reading comprehension, and those strategies will not necessarily be the same as those employed by native English speakers, since EFL students can draw on their native language and on strategies they have developed in their own countries (Adamson, 1991).

Based on the findings of this study, emergent tactics for overcoming English academic reading materials can be classified into 2 groups: 1) strategies for comprehending reading texts (SCT); and 2) strategies for enhancing textual comprehension (SETC). In classifying reading strategies for the present study, it was remarkable that the reading strategies in both categories always support each other. That is, the strategies which students reported employing in order to deal with unknown vocabulary items may help them improve their reading skills in general. In the same effect, the actual reading strategies which students reported employing to comprehend an academic reading text may help them discover the meanings of new vocabulary items. That is, the reading strategies under the two main categories have a spiral relationship rather than linear.

The most obvious implication of this study for EFL instruction derives from the findings that the most serious problem found while reading English academic material may be the problem of unknown vocabulary items. In other words, the students' serious problem is lack of knowledge of English vocabulary. This suggests that due to the demanding nature of vocabulary learning, the teaching of vocabulary may not be productive. Moreover, the findings revealed that the strategies taught in English classes may not be adequate to apply in English academic reading. Carrell (1991) has pointed out that effective language reading pedagogy must include not only training and practice in the use of strategies, but more importantly, information about the significance and outcome of these strategies and the range of their utility. EFL instructors should provide their students knowledge of strategy use and then encourage them to use the strategies while reading. This is according to Grabe (1991), and Bang and Zhao (2007), readers have to employ a wide range of strategies in order to read efficiently.

Although the study provides substantial information about the use of reading strategies reported by EFL students, there was no clear evidence that the participants had finished assignments mechanically if they did not understand the reading materials. Therefore, it would be useful to have a future research work studying this case. Additionally, in replication, another pattern of reading strategy use may be discovered if a researcher will select other groups of students to participate in the future study; for example, students with different levels of English proficiency, students studying in different disciplines, and students having different cultural backgrounds.

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Rakchanok Saengpakdeejit is a Ph.D candidate in English Language Studies (ELS) at Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. She has taught English courses at a university in Thailand. Her main research interests are language learning strategies and reading strategies.



Channarong Intaraprasert (Ph.D) is an associate professor in TESOL at Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. He has been teaching TEFL courses at different institutions in Thailand and Vietnam for more than 20 year. His main research interests are language learning strategies, and learner beliefs about language learning.

On the Relation between Creative Treason and Faithfulness, Expressiveness and Elegance

Peina Zhuang

Foreign Language Department, Yinxing Hospitality Management College of CUIT, China;
College of Journalism and Literature, Sichuan University, China

Abstract—This paper discusses the relation between “creative treason” and “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” based on the concept of “creative treason” with a view to pointing out that the categorization of any deformation or distortion in translation into “creative treason” is overstated, placing the term “creative treason” in a trend of infinity, whether on its meaning or scope. Thus, this thesis holds that “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” in this aspect could serve as a delimiting boundary for the term “creative treason”, or more concretely, “faithfulness” as the basis and “expressiveness and elegance” as the objective reality. The essence of “creative treason” can be defined as variability at the lingual and cultural level in cross language translation and the objective “deviation” from the source text on the basis of maintaining “faithfulness”.

Index Terms—creative treason, faithfulness, expressiveness, elegance, variability

I. INTRODUCTION

Eugene Nida holds that translation means translating meaning, which has been agreed by many domestic scholars who think that in talking of “creative treason”, there should be some ‘extent’. That is, “the means of transferring meaning in translation should come after ‘the meaning’ itself and treason of meaning counteracts the translators’ deadline, which should be prohibited.” (Ni, 2004, p.92) A translator seeks to achieve the perfect transfer of meaning by way of change of linguistic forms. But the meaning of language is composed of signifier and signified. Thus, it is not difficult to understand why Robert Escarpit holds that translation is “creative treason”: “To hold that translation is treason is due to the fact that the original work is put into an unexpected reference system (referring to language); and that translation is also creative means that the original work is given a new outlook and comes into contact with new readers; translation gives the original work a second life”. (1987, p.137) The change in linguistic forms and the ambiguity and complexity may give rise to “deviation” from the original meaning. But a translator can, by way of creative treason, give the original work a new look in compensating at the linguistic or cultural level.

The introduction of the term into literary translation by Xie Tianzhen has aroused wide controversy. Some scholar regard the term as rule as exemplified by “the focus on the discussion of the term is not an issue of ‘how we should translate’, but as mentioned before, is a matter of uncovering the essence of translation and confronting the objective phenomenon in translation” (Xie, 2012, p.37). Some other scholars deem it as a strategy or phenomenon, such as “though sometimes creative treason leads to ‘treason’ at the linguistic level or omission and amplification in content, it is the indispensable strategy after thorough thoughts of the translator” (Huang, 2013, p.91). Different views hover around on the discussion of the term. “Any concept, if it is to be understood, must have some prescriptive features so as to control the infinity of its meaning, thus avoiding the danger of decomposing itself” (Liu, 2006, p.132). This is also applicable to the term. The feature of the term must be clarified in order to identify the academic position of the term. This thesis summarizes the feature as being universal, conventional, prescriptive and descriptive. It is universal since creative treason exists in every stage of translation, visible or invisible. A translator’s ‘prejudice’ determines his historicity of understanding, which is by no means infinite, but is confined by the original work. The original one is the basis for creative treason. It is conventional in that the “deviation” in creative treason should conform to the norm of the original language, target language and translation under different backgrounds in the case of difference between signifier and signified in different cultures. Those who deem the term as a phenomenon or rule start from the feature of being descriptive. Thus, it is improper to classify it just as phenomenon, rule or method. The features of creative treason demonstrate that it is both dynamic and static; both a process and a result; and both a phenomenon and a strategy. The key here lies in the perspective. Escarpit’s view of creative treason does not elaborate on the definition of the term, nor does it fix the term at the level of phenomenon, method or rule. Thus, one could start discussion from a certain level but not in a position to dispel other levels or aspects. But creative treason is not a “black box” into which one can put everything. There should be some “Golden Hoop” to control the spread of its meaning, which is Yanfu’s “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” in translation.

II. RELATION BETWEEN THE TWO TERMS

Yanfu once put forward the translation norm of faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance, which can also be seen as the difficulty in translation. “Faithfulness” means “one should be ‘honest’ to the original work” (Lin, 2000, p.2), that is, the meaning of the translated version should stand true to the original work. “It is difficult to achieve ‘faithfulness’. But ‘faithfulness’ achieved without ‘expressiveness’ can not make an acceptable translation; Thus, ‘expressiveness’ should also be valued” (Editing Board of *Translation Newsletter*, 1984, p.6). Yan only mentions “faithfulness” twice, not because it is unimportant, but it is self-evident for a translator and is the prerequisite in translation. “Faithfulness” means being ‘honest’ both at the level of form and content. In other words, it is the prescriptive requirement of creative treason. In the poly-system composed of the original and target work, the former stands at the center while the latter is a new elucidation on the basis of the former, which may explain why every translation is a different version of the original work and that so as far as the translation of Chinese Classics goes, “‘Other’ translations can never be finished, only laid aside. They can always be improved” (Newmark, 2001, p.140) in one aspect or another since the reproduction of these three elements are at most times incompatible in translation, calling for retranslation and the coexistence of different foreign versions of the same work. Just as the fusion of horizon in the process of understanding, a translator could only achieve the “fusion” after he enters into the horizon of the original work. “While emphasizing the horizon of the original work, we can not neglect that of the original work. No matter how wild the imagination of the translator is, it can not reach beyond the original work” (Cao, 2005, p.197). Every translated version is, in its extent, the fusion of horizon of the original work. Thus, “there is honest element even in the most deviated version” (Dong, 2006, p.5). Thus, “faithfulness” is the basis and prerequisite of creative treason.

But Yanfu also realizes that one can not achieve both the faithfulness in level of form and content: “a translation should extract the meaning from the original work though sometimes with the unavoidable change of the form” (Editing Board of *Translation Newsletter*, 1984, p.6). In such case, the translator could only choose one, which is being faithful to content by adjusting the forms in accordance with the writing style and norm of target language and culture, such as the sentence from *Caigen Tan*, a Chinese work of axioms:

ST: 饥则附, 饱则飏, 燠则趋, 寒则弃, 人情通患也。

TT: When we are hungry we seek relief from others. When we have full stomachs we shun others. If there is a warm shelter, we all flock to it. If there is a freezing shanty, we all turn our backs on it. This is a common flaw in human nature.

In the above example, the heterogeneity between the Chinese and western languages demonstrates that a translator could also achieve “faithfulness” in the level of content. For instance, the above sentence has no subject, object and no conjunction between each part of the sentence. The translator here adds the subjects “we”, “there is” and “this is” to make the version grammatically acceptable in English, which, unlike the ancient Chinese, must have a subject in the sentence. What’s more, the English version also divides the original sentence into four parts by adding some connectives for the understanding of ancient Chinese could to a large extent rely on the inner logics of the sentence without the clues of connectives, while semantic relation in English is more obvious in surface. Some scholar points out that “the Chinese grammar is relatively free without the constraint of tense, passive and active voice, etc.....there is little emphasis on the connectives; thus, every element in a sentence, such as subject, verb and object, etc., can be omitted or reversed” (Ye, 1997, p.115). Chinese is a language of parataxis and English hypotaxis. Western languages are characterized by being accurate in wording while the Chinese characters are highly condensed, using the least words to convey the most meanings, leading to ambiguities and uncertainties, even in the case of philosophical works, let alone literary ones. Thus, it sets great store by the readers’ empathy with the text, seeing through the shell of language to grasp the deep meanings therein. It puts much stress on those from a different cultural background for even a native speaker sometimes can not understand classical Chinese well since modern vernacular Chinese are quite different from the classical Chinese in many aspects. As an English speaker, though he can rely on other references to understand the meaning of the original, the translator can not get rid of expression habit from his mother tongue. Language as part of culture is so deeply rooted in himself that he is always under the influence of it, consciously or unconsciously. Thus, the brevity displayed in the original work is somewhat impaired, which makes the “transfer of meaning” possible and similar cases could be found in other translation of Chinese work into English, the ancient classics in particular, such as the following rendition of “楼上看山, 城头看雪, 灯前看月, 舟中看霞, 月下看美人, 另是一番情境” into: “Things give you a different mood and impression when looked at from a particular place: such as hills seen from atop, snow seen from the top of a citywall, the moon seen in lamplight, river haze seen from boat, and pretty woman seen in the Moonlight”.

Such “treason”, in its essence, is the variation in cross-language translation. The Variation Theory, first proposed by Cao Shunqing in 2005 *Study on Comparative Literature* can be classified into variation in the level of language, national image, literary text and culture, etc. Literary variation has long existed, including the synchronic and diachronic angle. The latter refers to the changes in the meaning of language due to the times, such as the meaning of “wife” as compared with the meaning in ancient Chinese. Variation at the synchronic level is rather pronounced in cross-language and cultural literary exchange and displays the tension of collision therein. Translation serves as a good example in this regard and the variation in translation is the result of such variation since in cross-language translation, when form and content can not be both transferred, the former will be given up in favor of the latter, thus causing variation at the level of linguistic forms. But even the give up of transferring forms can not guarantee the complete

transfer of content. In chapter three of “Migrating Variation” in his book *Poetics Dialogue between East and West*, Wang Xiaolu elaborates the different understandings of the ancient Chinese literary theories by the English world by way of translation, pointing out the role of “trapping” by the language in the process of communication. The view of translation being an impossible task by the Germany linguist William Humboldt may be go too far, but it is reasonable in some extent, especially in the case of Sino-English translation, which is further testified by “five losses and three difficulties” in translation by Dao An, the famous monk in Tang Dynasty in ancient China. “Treason” at the level of language is not so deep as compared with that at the level of culture in the form of “culture filtering”, causing literary misreading sometimes.

Cultural filtering is a hotspot in nowadays’ translation studies since the cultural turn in this field. The book *Constructing Cultures—Essays on Literary Translation* by Susan Bassnett and André Lefevere signifies the advent of the cultural turn in translation studies, which greatly overturns the center in translation studies since the ‘linguistic turn’ and comes to emphasize the cultural aspect of translation which gives rise to various translation theories, for instance the feminism school, the post-colonial school and so on and the definition of translation has ever since then undergone profound changes. And many western translation theorists and experts come up with their own distinguished terms to refer to translation among which the following ones are most widely quoted: intercultural communication by Christiane Nord; intercultural cooperation by Holz-Manttari; acculturation by Lefevere, etc. And this turn has also largely influenced the domestic translation studies. Recent years have seen the publication of many books on this aspect. Guo Jianzhong’s *Culture and Translation* is just one of them where the author of the book collected some representative articles on translation studies from the perspective of cultural studies that largely promote the cultural studies in translation. For instance, Lv Jun, a famous domestic scholar on translation holds that translation is an activity of social cross-cultural and inter-lingual communication and exchange (2001, p.1-2). So from the above review of the cultural turn in translation studies, one can see that translation studies has been adjusted from the prescriptive study to the descriptive study during which the translator’s role has been greatly recognized, for it is the translator’s subjectivity that plays an essential role in dealing with those cultural factors in translation, especially in literary translation and also during which, the phenomenon of creative treason is pushed forward on the stage for wide discussion in recent years.

It has for centuries been taken for granted that translation merely takes place between languages. This assumption unleashed the word vs. sense debate in traditional theory and lies at the heart of the concept of equivalence. Such concept no longer prevails with the development of translation studies since it has become generally known that translations are no longer produced in a vacuum. And cultural filtering is an important phenomenon in the process and has been widely discussed and explored. It refers to the process of selecting, transforming, transplanting and infiltrating of information by recipients from different cultural background and tradition. It is also a reaction of the recipient towards the influence from the original source by way of creative reception (Cao, 2002, p.184) and can be manifested in reproduction of the musicality, artistic and culture-loaded words etc., in translation. For instance, a translator has to face the great difference between Sanskrit and Chinese, whether lingual or cultural in the initial introduction of Buddhism into China, such as that “the rules and its view on life and death of Buddhism are incompatible with the ethics guidelines of the Chinese emperors and it is preachers’ task to coordinate there contradictions” (Zhou, 2003, p.162). For instance, in the view of Buddhism, body of human beings is composed of earth, water, fire and wind. But An Shih-kao renders it into “*qi*” instead of the four elements in *Anapanasati Sutta* since “*qi*” is often used in Chinese culture to understand the universe and various phenomena. The concept of “*yuanqi*” (primordial *qi*) can be traced back to the end of Western Zhou Dynasty as exemplified by “the *qi* of heaven and earth, if in disorder, will lead to chaos among people and even cause earthquake.” “*Qi*” here is physical. But it was further developed by Daoism in the Warring States period. Lao Zi holds that the utmost category “*Dao*” generates yin and yang which give birth to everything in universe. Zhuang Zi further develops the concept on the basis of Lao Zi and holds that the concentration of “*qi*” gives birth to human beings. Thus, an obvious “*yuanqi*” view of life and death. Wang Chong, a philosopher in Eastern Han Dynasty, is another representative of “*yuanqi*” and conducts deep analysis of “*qi*” which is the basis for human life. Thus, it is not difficult for one to understand the rendition into “*qi*” in the above example. Yue Daiyun once said that “the contact of two cultures, due to their differences, will inevitably give rise to misreading which is a way of interpreting another culture from one’s own cultural tradition and mentality” (1995, p.110).

Such “treason” is widely accepted by those engaged in Buddhist script translation, displaying the efforts by the translators in adapting Buddhism to Chinese tradition, paving the path for the sinicization of Buddhism. Creative treason in this stage mainly involves the introduction and fusion of Buddhism into China. With its further development, it may stimulate creative writing. A good example in this regard is *Fumu Enzhong Jing (Script of Parents’ Favor to Children)* in Tang Dynasty. Wang Kefei has also investigated the great influence of Buddhist literature translation on Chinese literature (1997, p.27-43). “Treason” of this kind also demonstrates the consideration of the readers’ expected horizon by the translator since after all, only after the translated version is read can one say the process of translation is done, which is very pronounced in Yanfu’s “elegance”.

“The *Book of Changes* has the following saying that one should display his real intentions in his writing. Confucius once also said that one’s wording should be expressive and that without elegance one’s work can exert little influence. The above three requirement should be the norm both for writing and translation. Thus, besides ‘faithfulness’ and ‘expressiveness’, ‘elegance’ should also be strived not only for wide dissemination of the work but also for the refined

style therein, which could be better realized by use of the ancient Chinese diction and grammar” (Editing Board of *Translation Newsletter*, 1984, p.6). And Yanfu holds the similar view that besides “faithfulness” and “expressiveness”, “elegance” should also be achieved if possible so that the translated version could go a long way. In this connection, He has expanded his horizon from the narrow sense of translation to the broad sense of translation, one including the reader and the receiving environment. “Faithfulness” and “expressiveness” aims to realize the textual purpose while “elegance” seeks to achieve the non-textual purpose by way of creative treason, that is, to attract the attention of the literati at that time. “Elegance” means to use the ancient Chinese diction and grammar with the purpose of the literati’s taste since “he realize he must coat the new thought of the books with a layer of ‘sugar’, which is the ancient Chinese wording; ‘Elegance’ is his trick to attract their attention” (Wang, 1989, p.41). The “chief translator” of modern and contemporary Chinese literature, Howard Goldblatt holds that the great difficulty in translation lies not in understanding the original text but in one’s proficiency of the target language, which shows the reason for the cultural and lingual variation by the translator in consideration of the expected horizon of the reader.

III. CONCLUSION

If one regards “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” as the Golden Hoop of creative treason, the essence of the term is variation, such as at the level of language and culture. The subjectivity of the translator, such as the learning accomplishment, individual horizon and ideological standing, etc., has a great role in the process. Thus, the very essence of creative treason is variability and the phenomenon in creative treason is variation at the level of cross-language variation. Here, the paper will mention more about the Variation Theory so that better understandings about the term could be achieved. The phenomenon of “variation” has long existed since the sinicization of Buddhism as has been explained before. The Chinese Chan Buddhism can be seen as a good example since it is complex form of varied religion from Buddhism examined from the perspective of embryology. And actually many scholars, domestic and abroad have come to notice it such as Wang Guowei who has investigated the Sino-western mutual elucidation, Yan Shaodang in his endeavor in research of literary variation of Japanese literature and the western scholar Edward Said in his work on Travelling Theory, to name just a few. “The proposal of Variation Theory first came up in the third chapter “Literary Variation” in Study of Comparative Literature, which is divided into six subparts, namely, Translatology, Iamgologie, Reception Studies, Thematology, Genology and Cultural Filtering and Misreading, but not includes the investigation of the naming from the theoretical level” (Cao & Zhuang, 2014, p.52). And more information about this theory could be found in works such as Study of Comparative Literature (2005), The Variation Theory of Comparative Literature (2014), Lecturing on Variation Theory of Comparative Literature (yet published) by Cao Shunqing and other papers illustrating the theory. And the paper here is supportive of the view to judge the essence of creative treason from the perspective of this theory.

But Yanfu’s “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” could control the endless spread of the term’s scope in that “faithfulness” is the basis while “expressiveness and elegance” is the objective ground for creative treason. The proportion of creative treason in any quality translation is rather small and is the choice of the translator in case of the huge language and cultural gap. In addition, the adoption of “faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance” to constrain the scope of creative treason could also turn the trend of overcorrection of creative treason by some scholars who thinks that “the textual meaning could be determined by elements such as logical relations, rhetorical speeches, register and context, etc.”(Zhao, 2005, p.41). But translation after all is not carried out in vacuum and it is not proper to hold a thorough scientific view of translation, which goes too far and equals the sense of regarding any translation as creative treason.

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Peina Zhuang is a lecturer in Foreign Language Department, Yinxing Hospitality Management College of CUIT and also a Ph.D candidate majoring in World Literature and Comparative Literature in College of Literature and Journalism in Sichuan University. Her areas of interests in research include comparative literature, cross-cultural studies and translation studies. She has published about ten papers in these fields.

The Vagueness in Chinese Address Terms

Chunming Gao

School of Foreign Languages, Changchun University of Science and Technology, Changchun, China

Abstract—Vagueness is a ubiquitous phenomenon in language. It refers to the finite area and lack of specification of its boundary, and differs from ambiguity. All vague terms share three characteristics: indeterminacy of meaning; determinacy of meaning; and variation. Ambiguity may cause problem or misunderstanding in talking, while vagueness can solve problem and provide more choices for us. Some Chinese address terms are vague to some extent, and the extensive use of them is the most evident manifestation of vagueness. This paper illustrates the vagueness in Chinese address terms particularly with abundant examples.

Index Terms—vagueness, ambiguity, vague terms, Chinese address terms

I. INTRODUCTION

In daily communication, especially in social life other than usual scientific research, we must admit the existence of vagueness, which helps solve some language problems. So we should not avoid vagueness in communication. Not everything is so accurate as the scientific data. When we emphasize accuracy, we should also bear in mind that we can only be accurate in a comparative sense.

When studying language, people used to regard language as symbols with exact meanings referring to exact things. Some scholars have taken exactness as the principle and pointed out some models in analyzing language. However, many phenomena cannot be explained in this way. For example componential analysis cannot give clear demarcation of the words *girl* and *woman*. It is due to the ignorance of the attribute of language: vagueness. This study focuses on the vagueness in Chinese address terms.

II. UNIVERSALITY OF VAGUENESS IN LANGUAGE

A. Universality of Vagueness

Vagueness of language is a universal phenomenon. As an attribute of natural language, vagueness is embodied in various aspects of language such as speech sounds, words meaning, syntactic rules, etc. More and more scholars have probed this field, but they still have different opinions on what vagueness refers to. In this paper, vagueness refers to the kind of attribute that the boundary of the meaning that a word denotes is not fixed. By introducing different aspects of vague terms, the most obvious embodiment of vagueness of language, this paper expounds the attribute and tries to enhance readers' understanding of vague terms from the angle of semantics to reveal the feasibility of the existence of vague terms.

Comparatively, vagueness embodied in semantic field is much clearer and vague terms are the obvious demonstration of the attribute whatever they are observed in written language or spoken language. As the linguistic form of vagueness of language, vague terms are often heard in daily life or used in kinds of styles of written language. Here is an example in daily life:

A: Which one would you like to have?

B: The *blue* one.

A: The *deep blue*?

B: Yes.

The vague word "blue" is hard to define, because in daily life, people seldom recognize the color according to spectrum except the scientists in their studying. People have no knowledge about the scientific boundary between "light blue" and "deep blue", but it does not give any difficulty to people for their understanding of each other. So we can say vague terms can transmit information and people can understand them, or there won't be such cases in the above example.

B. Vagueness and Ambiguity

We know that there is no clear-cut criteria to distinguish the boundaries of *city* and *town* or other expressions such as *mountain* and *hill*, *forest* and *wood*. Likewise we can not draw an evident demarcation line between 青年(young men) to the set 中年(middle-aged men). There is a gradual transition from 青年 to 中年. That process is not abrupt. That is to say the conversion from 青年 to 中年 can not be completed by one step. There is a fuzzy area between them. Such a phenomenon is what we called "vagueness". It refers to the finite area and lack of specification of its boundary.

Peirce is often considered as the originator of vagueness of language. He formulates the notion in this way: A proposition is vague where there are possible states of things concerning which it is intrinsically uncertain whether, had

they been contemplated by the speaker, he would regard them as excluded or allowed by the proposition. By intrinsically uncertain we mean not uncertain in consequence of any ignorance of the interpreter, but because the speaker's habits of language were indeterminate; so that one day he would regard the proposition as excluding, another as admitting, those states of things. Yet this must be understood to have reference to what might be deduced from a perfect knowledge of his state of mind; for it is precisely because those questions never did, or did not frequently, present themselves that his habit remained indeterminate. (Channell, 2000, p.7) That is to say, the language system permits speakers to produce utterances without having decided whether certain facts are "excluded or allowed by" them.

According to *Routledge Dictionary of Language and Linguistics* (Hadumod Bussmann, 2000, p.510), vagueness is a "term complementary to ambiguity: whereas ambiguity refers to ambiguousness which in the framework of grammatical model is represented through multiple description, vagueness in the sense of pragmatic indeterminacy is predictable, but not the object of internal linguistic representation. An expression is pragmatically vague with respect to certain semantic features which it leaves unspecified; e.g. person is not specified with reference to the features [male] vs [female], [old] vs [young]."

Thus, we know that vagueness and ambiguity defers with each other. Hadumod Bussmann (2000, p.19) defines "ambiguity" as a "property of expressions that can be interpreted in several ways, or, rather, that can be multiply specified in linguistic description from lexical, semantic, syntactic, and other aspects." Lexical ambiguity arises from multiple meanings of a particular word. e.g.

(a) John is drawing a cart. (John is pulling a cart.)

(b) John is drawing a cart. (John is making a picture of a cart.)

The above ambiguity results from the two meanings of "draw", that is, "pull" and "make a picture". While for the syntactic ambiguity, it refers to the phenomenon that a clause or a sentence may have more than one interpretation because of potential grammatical functions of the individual words. For example:

(a) Flying planes can be dangerous. (Planes that are flying are dangerous.)

(b) Flying planes can be dangerous. (It is dangerous to make planes fly.)

"In this sense, ambiguity is different from the complementary term vagueness as a designation for pragmatic ambiguousness or indeterminacy, which cannot be systematically described."

Ambiguity can be solved or represented (a) by a competent speaker, who can clarify the different readings with the help of paraphrases, (b) by grammatical analysis, for instance, within the framework of generative syntax models, which accord each possible interpretation of ambiguous surface structures with different underlying structures."

Vagueness of language is a ubiquitous phenomenon in communication. Ambiguity can cause problem or misunderstanding in talking, while vagueness can solve problem and provide more choices for us. For that reason, ambiguity is a problem-maker, and on the contrary, vagueness can be called a problem-solver. Usually we try to make things as exact as possible, and avoid ambiguity as much as possible. But we do not avoid vagueness in communication because not everything is so accurate as the scientific data. We need vagueness to describe some vague concepts. When we do not have an accurate idea, we can turn to vagueness for help.

III. TYPES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF VAGUE TERMS

A. Types of Vague Terms

Generally, there are two main types of vague terms. One is words with vague boundaries, and the other is hedge. Since hedge is usually discussed in the pragmatic phenomenon, it will not be discussed here. Words with vague boundaries are generally divided into four types: continuum, comparative type, words which express abstract concepts, and generic words.

Continuum includes words about colors, time, age, etc, which might be nouns or adjectives. And the main characteristic of them is that they are in a continuum and there is no clear cut between adjacent ones. In the previous part of this article, we mentioned the color of "blue" and "deep blue", as well as Chinese 青年 and 中年, which all belong to this type. Words about "time" are included into this type is also because they all share the obvious characteristics: continuum. During a *day, dawn, morning, noon, afternoon, dusk, evening, night* constitute a continuum. There is no sharp demarcation to divide one from an adjacent one.

The second type is comparative type. In the theory of semantic fields, words are all interdependent and interrelated. Some words get meaning only through comparison, like *big, small, fat, thin*. How big is big? And how fat is fat? There is no clear definition for it. The meanings of them vary with their collocations. Suppose *big* and *small* are collocated with *ant* and *elephant*. It's clear that *a big ant* cannot be bigger than *a small elephant*. The meanings of the two adjectives depend on the noun collocating with them. When people talk about the weight of someone, *fat* and *thin* usually have a comparatively limited field. How much weight makes a person belong to the category of "fat" on the earth? There is no clear standard for it.

The third type is about the words with abstract concepts. Different people usually perceive these words differently and it also depends on one's subjective judge. For example, the word "friend" holds an abstract concept. Its meaning usually is interpreted by comparing to others such as acquaintance, intimate, etc. and people with different experiences, backgrounds hold different understanding. Wu Tieping (1999) demonstrates many examples to show that people from

different countries give different understanding of the word *friend*: American likes to use the word *friend*, while the word is used more seriously in German. The person an American calls a *friend* might at least be a *Bekannter* (acquaintances) in a German's opinion, and *Freund* (friend) called by German usually keeps a more intimate relation than *friend* in an American's view. This also tells that those words showing abstract concepts usually are vague and the meaning of them varies to certain degree with people.

Type four is generic words. As for this type, Zadeh (1987, p.29) has made a clear explanation by talking about "animal". "More often than not, the classes of objects encountered in the real physical world do not have precisely defined criteria of membership. For example, the class of animal clearly includes dogs, horses, birds, etc. as its members, and clearly excludes such objects as rocks, fluids, plants, etc. however, such objects as starfish, bacteria, etc. have an ambiguity status with respect to the class of animals."

B. Characteristics of Vague Terms

Words with vague boundaries share three characteristics: indeterminacy of meaning; determinacy of meaning; and variation. (Zhang Qiao, 1998) Leech has broken down "meaning" in its widest sense into seven different kinds and gives primary importance to conceptual meaning. Vagueness of word meaning discussed here is from its conceptual meaning. But the other six kinds of meaning should not be ignored, because the vagueness embodied in word meaning might be from the word connotative meaning, social meaning, affective meaning, collocative meaning, associative meaning or thematic meaning.

(1) Indeterminacy of meaning

The meanings of some words sometimes are boundariless, as has been mentioned in the previous part of this article. It is believed that recognizing this feature is essential for a genuine understanding of vagueness and an account of its semantics. The vagueness is a degree of deviation from model language, which is the indeterminate part of meaning. The difficulty in delimitating boundary lines between *young* and *old*, *warm* and *cool*, *desk* and *table* good exemplifies the indeterminacy of the meaning of vague terms.

(2) Determinacy of meaning

Determinacy of meaning is not contradictory with the above indeterminacy of meaning. Because the determinacy of meaning refers to the core meaning, instead of the extensional meaning. No vague terms are said to be completely vague. Though different people have different opinion on how big is big, all people believe among the animals an elephant is a big one. So the core meaning of a vague term is not vague and this makes people able to understand it.

(3) Variation

This characteristic can be seen from two aspects: the variation between vagueness and exactness of meaning and the variation of word meaning itself. The first is connected with people's prescription or the linguistic habit formed by long period. Big and small is a pair of vague terms. But people don't regard *big mountain* and *small river* as words with vague meanings any more because people have such a linguistic habit. The second is influenced by kinds of subjective or objective factors. The meaning of a word can shift. Accordingly, the meaning of a vague term may vary basing on different situation. We do not call a person who is in his forties a *young man*. But if this man is a president of a country, we usually say he is young. So the word *young* is interpreted differently.

IV. THE VAGUENESS IN CHINESE ADDRESS FORMS

A. The Definition of Address Terms

Address terms, called "address forms" as well, are frequently used in daily interactions. To define it, however, is not an easy task because it involves many aspects. There are various definitions, which were made from different perspectives. A brief review of them may shed some light on our understanding of address terms.

(1) The word or words used to address somebody, in speech and writing. (Richard et al., 1985, p.4)

(2) An address term is a numerically and attitudinally-marked designator which (a) functions as a particle to pronominal "you" to form a notionally paradigmatic phrasal "you"; (b) consists of names, words, or a combination of both; (c) is used for the benefit of a speaker, an addressee, or a third-party hearer either optionally or necessarily for grammatical, practical, social, emotional, or externally-imposed reasons. (Dunkling, 1990, p.22)

(3) Address forms are the words speakers use to designate the person they are talking to while they are talking to them. In most languages, there are two main kinds of address forms: names and second-person pronouns. (Fasold, 2000, p.1)

(4) Forms of address are words or phrases used for addressing. They refer to the collocutor and thus contain a strong element of deixis. (Braun, 1988, p.7)

(5) A form used to refer to, or to name a person directly in speech or writing. (Wales, 1992, p.9)

(6) By "address" we mean a vocative, a direct reference to the addressee such as "Mr." or "Mrs.". "Term" is best defined by Oster as designating a value judgment that qualifies the formality of "address" according to certain invariable (social position and the like) but more often according to the situation. (Lee-Wong, 1994, p.229)

These definitions define address terms from different point of view. Fasold (2000, p.3) tells us that we must carefully distinguish "address forms" from "summonses". Address forms are used when a speaker already has the listener's attention; summonses are used to get their attention. This can be an important distinction. As a matter of fact, it is common for American English speakers to get the attention of any adult male by calling him "sir", but it would most likely sound

overly stiff to use “sir” once you have his attention. The definition of Dunkling (1990, p.22) is an all-around way, which is a little hard to understand. The definition of Richard et al and Wales are somewhat much easier to comprehend. No matter whose definition it is, it is not difficult to find that the definition of address terms covers following aspects: (a) Address terms are the words or phrases used for addressing people. They are different from address forms, which require directly addressing. (b) They can be in the form of either writing or speech. (c) They indicate the relationship between the addresser and addressee. (d) They include names, kinship terms, titles, pronouns, etc. such as 小明; 姐姐; 教授; 二位.

In the selection of materials for this study, the author found a lot of equivalents or similar expressions for “address terms”, such as forms of address, address forms, terms of address, modes of address, addressing terms, etc. In this paper, “address terms” are adopted in a broad sense, for making reference to the addressee (pronouns, transferred names, titles, common nouns, offensive and endearment terms, etc.).

B. The Vagueness in Chinese Address Terms

Vague terms generally are divided into two categories. One is word with vague boundaries, and the other is hedge. As for the word with vague boundaries, we have words which express abstract concepts, such as address terms. There exist some things or some activities that human being found impossible to express. Thus they are taken as vague because there is no clear boundary to fix their meanings and the meanings might vary in certain degree because of kinds of factors. There are many address terms which are vague, such as “同志”, “小姐”, etc. But only “朋友”, “叔叔” and “阿姨” will be discussed here.

(1) Address Term “朋友”

Different people usually perceive these words differently and it also depends on one’s subjective judge. For example, the word “朋友(friend)” holds an abstract concept. Its meaning usually is interpreted by comparing to others such as acquaintance, intimate, etc. and people with different experiences, backgrounds hold different understanding. Wu Tieping (1999) demonstrates many examples to show that people from different countries give different understanding of the word *friend*: American likes to use the word *friend*, while the word is used more seriously in German. The person an American calls a *friend* might at least be a *Bekanntere* (acquaintances) in a German’s opinion, and *Freund* (friend) called by German usually keeps a more intimate relation than *friend* in an American’s view. This also tells that those words showing abstract concepts usually are vague and the meaning of them varies to certain degree with people.

While, this holds true for some Chinese address terms, like 熟人(acquaintance), 朋友(friend), 知己(bosom friend), which are used to describe a certain kind of relationship between people at hierarchical degrees. At first they are defined separately and clearly to show the intimacy or indifference degrees between people.

熟人(acquaintance): A person that you know but who is not a close friend.

朋友(friend): A person you know well and like, and who is not usually a member of your family.

知己(bosom friend): A very close friend.

These definitions are all from *Oxford Advanced Learner’s English-Chinese Dictionary (Sixth edition)*. However, in actual speech, for some intended purposes, we can mix up the intimacy or indifference degrees between them to show liking or disliking. In that way they overlap each other pragmatically. Therefore, some vague areas arise.

From the above definitions, we get the rough idea that both the definition of 熟人 and 知己 are based on 朋友. In fact, there is no very clear boundary line between them. A 熟人 is “a person that you know”, but how much do you know him? A 知己 is “a very close friend”, but how close are you? So we may call someone 朋友, when he is only a 熟人, or when he is a 知己 indeed. We often mix them up in practice no matter what they mean in original, because daily communication possesses an important feature of flexibility and it is unnecessary to make a clear-cut between them. So when we apply address terms in actual use, the denotative meaning of them will be left behind.

(2) Kinship Terms “叔叔” and “阿姨”

We have noticed another noticeable phenomenon, that is the extensive use of kinship terms, which are one of the important parts of address terms. Such extensive use, in fact, is the most evident manifestation of vagueness in Chinese.

The extensive use of kinship terms refers to use kinship terms to address those who are not the relatives of the addresser. China is a country which worships politeness, and Chinese people tend to call someone by kinship terms even if he or she is still a stranger to us. For example, when asking the way, we had better call an old woman “大娘”, otherwise we are considered to be impolite. Likely, there are “叔叔(uncle)” and “阿姨(aunt)”.

According to *Oxford Advanced Learner’s English-Chinese Dictionary (Sixth edition)*, “aunt” is originally defined as “the sister of your father or mother; the wife of your uncle”. Later there is an extended usage of it, that is “aunt: used by children, with a first name, to address a woman who is a friend of their parents.” Till today, we may call a female doorman “阿姨”, as long as she is not too old or too young. But actually we have no kinship with her at all.

Similarly, “叔叔” has similar function. However, we all know that “叔叔” refers to “the younger brother of one’s father”. As for “the elder brother of one’s father”, we have a word “伯伯”. They take the age of father as a demarcation line. But for the extensive use of them, when addressing a man, we do not think too much whether the man is younger or older than our fathers. So nowadays 叔叔 and 伯伯 are used to address any man older or younger than one’s father, though not a member of one’s family. They become vague in two ways: no more limitation for age; no more limitation for kinship.

V. CONCLUSION

In daily communication, especially in social life other than usual scientific research, we must admit the existence of vagueness. We do not avoid vagueness in communication because not everything is so accurate as the scientific data. When we emphasize accuracy, we should also bear in mind that we can only be accurate in a comparative sense. When we do not have an accurate idea, we can turn to vagueness for help. We need vagueness to describe some vague concepts.

An important concept concerned with the extended Chinese addresses is the vagueness in language since the extensive use of address forms is the most evident manifestation of vagueness in Chinese.

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Chunning Gao was born in 1979 in Jilin Province, China. She received her M.A degree in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics in Foreign Languages from Changchun University of Science and Technology in 2006 and then began to work there as a lecturer. Her major research interests include applied linguistics and cross-cultural communication.

Synonymy in English and Arabic with Reference to the Holy Qur'an: A Contrastive Study

Sana Kamel Al-Omari

Department of English Language and Literature, Irbid University College, Al-Balqa' Applied University, Irbid, Jordan

Abdel-Rahman Husni Abu-Melhim

Department of English Language and Literature, Irbid University College, Al-Balqa' Applied University, Irbid, Jordan

Abstract—This is a contrastive linguistic study the primary purpose of which is to shed light on the concept of synonymy as employed semantically in Arabic from one side and English from the other. The study highlights the controversy that surrounds synonymy as debated by classical and modern Arab scholars comparing that to the various opinions held by modern and contemporary English linguists. Since the study is theoretical and qualitative in nature, the researchers relied mainly on different linguistic sources especially those in the field of semantics in the data collection process. Such sources included specialized dictionaries, linguistic encyclopedias, scholarly books in addition to the Arabic and English - translated versions of the Holy Qur'an. The major findings of the study revealed that synonymy is a universal phenomenon that is not limited to Arabic or English, there is no such things as absolute synonymy but rather near synonymy exists at best, there is a clear controversy that exists among classical and modern Arab linguists concerning the existence or absence of synonymy in language. Finally, Absolute synonymy in the Holy Qur'an is simply an illusion and it does not exist at all. What exists is simply near synonymy which appears to be synonymous at first glance but reveals different and distinct semantic meanings upon deeper semantic analysis of the vocabulary items that are generally regarded to be synonymous at the surface.

Index Terms—general synonymy, absolute synonymy, near synonymy, Qur'anic synonymy, affirmation of synonymy, denial of synonymy

I. INTRODUCTION

Synonymy is an important sense relation which refers to the relationship that exists between words such as synonymy, antinomy, hyponymy, polysemy, etc.

Definitions

English linguistic scholars provide various definitions of the term '*synonymy*'. Jackson (1988) for example, points out that two words are Synonymous if they have the same meaning. Therefore, synonymy needs to be defined in terms of contexts or usage. He further states that two words are said to be synonymous if they are interchangeable in all contexts. Jackson also claims that if the two words are interchangeable in all contexts, this means that the words are strictly synonymous (p.65).

Moreover, Lyons (1968) states that two items are considered synonymous if they have the same sense or meaning. He adds that different synonyms present different shades of meaning affirming that there are few 'real' synonyms in natural languages (p.446).

However, Cruse (1986) defines synonyms as "lexical items whose senses are identical in respect of 'central' semantic traits, but differ, if at all, only in respect of what we may provisionally describe as 'minors' or 'peripheral' traits". He adds that "Synonyms also characteristically occur together in certain types of expressions. For instance, a synonym is often employed as an explanation, or a clarification of the meaning of another word" (p.267).

Furthermore, Ullman (1972) points out that "if more than once word is available for the expression of the same idea, the writer will select the one which is best suited to the context: The one which carry the right amount of emotion and emphasis, which will fit most harmoniously into the phonetic structure of the sentence, and which will be attuned to the general tone of the utterance" (p.151).

Farghal (1998) defines synonyms as those words that sound different but have the same or nearly the same meaning. That is to say, synonymy is the relationship that holds between two words that have the same meaning. He points out that absolute synonymy are hard to find in English and other human languages. He adds that most native speakers of English should consider the pairs of words '*sofa/couch*' synonymous. He gave an example to support his argument. This example is '*He is sitting on the sofa*' and '*He is sitting on the couch*' (p.116).

Palmar (1976) points out that synonymy is used to mean '*sameness of meaning*'. He says that for the dictionary-maker many sets of words that have the same meaning are synonymous. He points out that this makes it possible to define '*gala*' as '*festivity*' or '*mavis*' as '*thrush*'. He adds that synonymy can be defined as symmetric hyponymy. So, if '*mavis*' and thrushes are synonymous, we can say that all '*mavises*' are thrushes and all thrushes are '*mavises*'. Moreover, he states that English is rich in synonyms for the historical reason that its vocabulary has come from two different

sources, from Anglo-Saxon, French, Latin and Greek. However, Palmar argues that there are no real synonyms and that it seems unlikely that two words that have exactly the same meaning would both survive or exist in a language (pp.88-89).

Arab linguistic scholars also provide definitions of the word synonymy.

Ramadan (1983) defines synonymy as utterances that convey the same meaning and are mutually interchangeable in all contexts. He points out that absolute synonymy is extremely rare. He adds that absolute synonymy represents extra fillers that language cannot provide easily. When this type of synonymy occurs, it does so for a very brief and limited duration. As soon as this happens, very minor semantic differences begin to appear gradually between utterances that are generally considered synonymous. Thus, the use of each utterance becomes suitable and convenient to express a specific meaning out of the multi uses originally possible for each utterance (pp.309-310).

Al-Zayadi (1980) says that the meaning of synonymy has changed throughout history as a result of scholars who pondered over this phenomenon due to clear differences in their approaches and beliefs. The idea of synonymy was initially represented in the differences in the use of vocabulary items that refer to the same meaning or object. This happened prior to reaching consensus and the development in research to finally arrive at an understanding for its concept. He adds that this situation remained the same until the concept of synonymy was studied by modern linguistic scholars who placed a limit on absolute synonymy and imposed more specific constraints concerning its use compared to those imposed by former linguistic scholars. Therefore, it was impossible to expect the concept of synonymy to have been identically used by linguistic scholars throughout the various periods of history (p.48).

II. PURPOSE

The primary purpose of this study is to shed light on the phenomenon of synonymy in both English and Arabic with special reference to the Holy Qur'an. A review of related literature concerning this issue revealed that there was relatively little attention paid by linguists and language scholars to this phenomenon which fosters the need for further research into this issue. This shows that synonymy deserves greater attention and needs to be studied thoroughly as strongly recommended by Cruse (2004), who directly stated that "Much research remains to be done in the field of synonymy". Moreover, this study will attempt to draw comparison and contrast between the use of synonymy in Arabic as opposed to its usage in English highlighting the various theories and opinions offered by scholars and linguists who specialized in the study of both languages.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

In linguistic research, basically two factors have been used to test for synonymy: Semantic resemblance and replacement or substitutability in syntactic structure. Though there are many several factors in deciding whether words are synonymous, semantic similarity is the most important (Murphy, 2003, p.137).

Murphy (2003) points out that "words can be more or less similar in two ways. They are more similar (than another pair) if they share more attributes in common (having the same denotation, connotation, register, etc.), or they are more similar because they match more closely on anyone of these attributes". He adds that "the most relevant attribute in almost any context would be denotative meaning" (p.137). In other words, how close two words have to be in meaning in order to be synonymous. Consider the following examples:

1. What's a synonym for a prize?--Award.
2. The plaintiff received a hefty award (not a prize) in the lawsuit.
3. Jan won the prize/award for the best drawing.

In the above examples, we can see that award and prize might not be similar enough for the particular sentential context as in (2), but might be perfectly well suited to another sentential context as in (1) and (3). Thus, while award and prize have different senses but for some purposes and certain contexts they are similar enough to be judged as synonyms. He adds that "since similarity judgments involve comparison, the salience of an item's attributes is affected by the item it is being compared with".

Substitutability is the second major factor for synonymy; one word can replace another without changing the sentence meaning.

Palmar suggested two ways of testing synonymy. One way is substitution i.e., replacing one word for another. It has been suggested that if two words are said to be true or total synonyms, they must be interchangeable in all contexts or environments. Indeed, not two words have exactly the same meaning. For example, we can say '*deep*' or '*profound sympathy*' but we can only say '*deep water*' not '*profound water*'.

Another test that is suggested by Palmar is to investigate the opposites or antonyms. For example, '*superficial*' is to be contrasted with both '*deep*' and '*profound*' but '*shallow*' is just in contrast with '*deep*'. Perhaps it seems possible to treat them as synonyms. But they should be interchangeable in all environments in order to consider them as total or true synonyms.

Ullman (1972) mentions three ways to test synonymy. The first test is substitution. He says that this test is one of the fundamental methods of modern linguistics. He adds that even if two words are interchangeable, one will find a certain overlap in meaning and they must be interchanged in some contexts but not in others. For example, one can say

'*broadest sense*' or '*widest sense*', but '*abroad accent*' not '*a wide*' one. However, he argues that if the difference between synonyms is stylistic, there may be no overlap between them at all. For instance, '*pop off*' is hardly substitutable by '*pass away*' in any context (pp.143-144).

Finding a common antonym for a pair of synonyms is the second test. For example, the verb '*decline*' is synonymous with '*reject*' when it means the opposite of '*accept*' but no when it is the opposite of '*rise*'.

Ullman suggests another way of differentiating between synonyms that is arranging synonyms into a series "where their distinctive meanings and overtones will stand out by contrast". As for example, the different adjectives denoting swiftness: Quick, swift, fast, nimble, fleet, rapid and speedy.

Moreover, he points out that "distinctions between synonyms are a great challenge to the ingenuity of the lexicographer. For many languages there exist special dictionaries of synonyms".

Thus, it is clear that many factors have been used for determining whether two words are classified as synonymous but the most important are replacement and closeness in meaning.

Types of Synonymy

At least three types of synonymic relations have been described in the literature. The first type is full synonymy (Murphy, 2003) or absolute synonymy (Cruse, 1986). These are words that are exactly the same in all aspects and can be interchanged in all contexts. For example, '*hate* and *loathe/kill*' and '*murder*'. It has often been pointed out that absolute synonyms are, in fact, partial and extremely rare phenomenon and possibly not existent. It is rare to have two synonymous words that can replace each other in all contexts. For example, one can say '*deep thinking*', deep rivers and '*profound thinking*' but not '*profound rivers*' words tend to differ in some traits or become specialized to specific context.

A second type of synonymy is cognitive synonymy (Cruse, 1986) or sense synonymy (Murphy, 2003). These are pairs of words that have one or more senses but differ in all other senses that they express. An example is '*father*' and '*daddy*' (Cruse, 1986, p. 274). Both of them refer to '*a biological father*'. But '*father*' has another sense. '*Father*' refers to a religious figure but '*daddy*' does not refer to a religious figure. Cruse (1986, p.88) uses a definition where by "x is a cognitive synonym of y if (i) x and y are syntactically identical, and (ii) any grammatical declarative sentence S containing X has equivalent truth-conditions to another sentence S, is identical to S except that x is replaced by Y". The following pair of sentences exemplifies.

1. He plays the violin very well.
2. He plays the fiddle very well.

Assume that sentence (1) is true of the world if we replace '*violin*' for '*fiddle*', as in (2), the result is a sentence which is also true. The two sentences are said to have the same truth conditions. If we determine that two words have the same truth-conditions in the same sentence, as in (1) and (2), then Cruse considers them synonyms.

A third type of synonymy is near-synonyms or plesionymy (Murphy, 2003 & Cruse, 1986). Near-synonyms have no senses which are exactly the same, but each member of a near-synonym pair has a sense that is similar to a sense of its counterpart. Murphy (2003) gives the examples of '*foggy* \approx *misty* and *mob* \approx *crowd*'. Cruse (1986, p.285) argues that plesionyms yield sentences with different truth-conditions. One can assert one member of a plesionymous pair, while denying the other: It wasn't foggy last Friday-just misty.

The three types of synonymy are not always adopted by linguists. Cruse (1986, p. 268) states that since there are some pairs of words are more synonymous than others, this raises the possibility of a scale of synonymity. Under this view, the higher the degree of synonymity the lexical item has, the closer it is to the end-point i.e., absolute synonymity would be on one end point of the scale and non synonymity would be at the other end; possibly capturing the fact that some words are better synonymous than others. Absolute synonymy can be seen as the zero point in the scale i.e., at the far end of the scale. Near-synonyms lie further down the scale. Cruse adds that "the dividing line between synonymy and non-synonymy is relatively vague in many cases".

Palmar (1976, pp. 89-91) mentions five ways to distinguish between synonyms.

First, some set of synonyms belong to different dialects of the language or to different regions. For example, '*fall*' and '*autumn*'. Whereas '*fall*' is used in the USA, '*autumn*' is used in Britain. Palmar points out that "the works of dialectologists are full of examples like these. But these groups of words are of no interest at all for semantics. It is simply a matter of people speaking different forms of the language having different vocabulary items".

Second, some synonyms are used in different styles. For instance, '*pass away*' might be '*die*' (posh) or '*pop off*' (colloquial). These are difficult to deal with because there is a less clear distinction between the styles than that between dialects.

Third, some pairs of synonyms differ in their emotive or evaluative meanings and the remainder of their cognitive meaning remains the same. For example, '*politician*' and '*state man*'. A '*politician*' is seen as a liar and a deceiver who never tells the truth. While a '*state man*' is seen positively as a person who deals with politics. However, Palmar argues that it is a mistake to separate emotive or evaluative meaning from the cognitive meaning because we do not always judge in terms of '*good*' and '*bad*' but also we judge size and use the suitable term e.g., giant/dwarf, mountain/hill, etc. and other kind of judgments.

Fourth, some synonyms are collocation ally restricted i.e., their occurrence is limited to certain words. Thus '*rancid*' occurs with '*bacon*' or '*butter*', '*addled*' with '*eggs*' or '*brains*'. Palmar says that some argued that these are true synonyms but differing only in that they occur in different contexts or environments. In fact they are not.

Finally, some synonyms overlap because their meanings are very close i.e., there a loose sense of synonymy. This kind of synonymy is exploited by the dictionary maker. For example, for the word '*govern*', the dictionary suggests '*direct, control, determine and require*'. Consequently, each of these words has a further set for each getting further away from the meaning of the original word. He adds that dictionaries, unfortunately, do not give us the precise connections and differences between words and their defining synonyms.

Differences in form do not always signal differences in meaning. Ullman (1972, pp.141-142) argued that it is wrong to deny the possibility of complete synonymy. He says that complete synonymy can be found in technical terminologies and "such synonymy may even persist for an indefinite period". For example, in phonetics, the words '*spirants*' and '*fricatives*' can be used synonymously. Another example is the words '*semantics*' and '*semasiology*'. However, he points out that recent studies concerning the formation of industrial jargons have shown that a lot of synonyms will arise around a new invention until they are finally sorted out. In other words, Ullman wants to say that the industrial vocabulary does allow some synonymy even if it is for a short period of time.

Synonymy as defined in Al-Munjed (1997, pp.29-30) is something that follows something else in the literal sense. The idiomatic meaning of synonymy in linguistics is not as clear since there is no consensus by linguists over what synonymy means. This holds to among modern linguists and scholars just as it did among researchers and linguist scholars throughout history since they had fundamental differences between them regarding the definition of this phenomenon.

Sibawaih (1988) was probably the first linguistic scholar in Arabic who pointed to the phenomenon of synonymy in speech. He divided the semantic relationship between words and their meanings into three parts:

1. Two separate words for two different meaning.
2. Two separate words to convey the same meaning.
3. The same pronunciation for two separate words to convey two different meanings.

This classification figured linguistic scholars to launch investigations and conduct numerous studies into the synonymy of synonymy.

However, some modern linguistic scholars follows the steps of former linguistic scholars in their definition and interpretation of synonymy strictly referring to it as the use of different words to convey the same meaning or using different terms to identify the same object. On the other hand, some other contemporary linguistic scholars have reservations and place certain conditions and restrictions over what they may consider synonymous .Such conditions include:

1. Absolute synonymy where the different words convey exactly the same semantic meaning. Although some modern scholars (Ramadan) for example, claimed that this kind of synonymy rare to a great extent.
2. Belonging to the same linguistic environment i.e., for the two separate words to belong to the same dialect. Thus, we should not expect synonymy to take place through words used in different dialects.
3. Belonging to the same era .Therefore, synonymy is supposed to take place between two different words as long as that happens during the same time period. For example, a certain word that is used during the pre-Islamic era may not be considered synonymous with another word that belongs to the post-Islamic era.
4. One of the two words should not have come to existence as a result of a development in the phonological process.

Accordingly, we can safely define synonymy as that synonymy which refers to the existence of two or more words which truly identify a specific object in a genuine and independent manner conveying one and only one semantic meaning in the same linguistic environment.

Skalman (2012) conducted a study focusing on a set of Spanish verbs namely: *arrojar, echar, lanzar* and *tirar* which all share the meaning "to throw". Data were elicited through a questionnaire consisted of 30 sentences in which a verb was missing from. Respondents were asked to fill in the blank with the verb or verbs that would best complete the sentence. The options were only the four throw-verbs. These verbs exhibit two features; synonymy and polysemy. The researcher investigated the characteristic of the four verbs by exploring data from corpora in two studies (the major source of data is a 400-sentence corpus which is explored using statistical tools) and from an experimental test. The results revealed that each meaning that a verb can express tend to be associated with specific participants roles or arguments (a thrower, an object thrown and a trajectory of motion). Moreover, the results showed that all the meaning extensions are shown to be connected to the central concept '*throwing*' which is shared by all four verbs in addition to other meaning extensions. However, synonymy was only partial since there are many other meanings which the verbs do not share. Speakers also have knowledge of overlap between the verbs uses: where the verbs are used interchangeably and cases where one verb is the only preferred choice.

IV. METHODOLOGY

This study is theoretical and qualitative in nature. Therefore, data were collected from several written sources and scholarly reference publications including specialized dictionaries, linguistic encyclopedias and books some of which are available in Arabic only while others are available in English only whereas a few other references were made available in both languages. Since special attention was paid to the use of synonymy in the Holy Qur'an, the researchers conducted a thorough survey and investigation in to the use of synonymy in the Arabic version of the Holy Qur'an as well as the English-translated version of the Holy Qur'an by Yusuf Ali in particular. Selected illustrative examples

regarding the use of synonymy were extracted from several verses from the Holy Qur'an while other examples were chosen from the various references and scholarly books mentioned above.

V. LIMITATIONS

This study is limited to one type of sense relation that is synonymy involving English and Arabic. This study aims at viewing synonymy in both English and Arabic with specific reference to the Holy Qur'an.

VI. DISCUSSION

A. *Synonymy in the Sciences of the Holy Qur'an*

Al-Munjed (1997, pp. 109-120) points out that the phenomenon of synonymy had the Lion's share throughout history in the studies conducted by various Muslim scholars in their attempts to interpret the meaning of the Holy Qur'an. Similarly, modern Muslim interpreters pay this phenomenon a great deal of attention since the synonymous words have a tremendous impact on clarifying and explicating the Qur'anic meaning. Opinions and stances regarding synonymy vary greatly among those scholars whose primary goal is to interpret the intended meaning of the Holy Qur'anic verse. Such opinions include affirming the existence of synonymy on one hand and refuting its existence on the other. Affirmation of existence or refuting the existence of synonymy varied greatly both in the level and direction.

B. *Affirmation of Synonymy*

Affirmation of synonymy was not meant to be studied as an isolated phenomenon but it was dealt with by Muslim scholars as a means to arrive at the intended meaning of the Holy Qur'anic verse in an attempt to show the miraculous nature of the Holy Book. Those who affirmed the existence of synonymy mentioned that it was employed in the Holy Qur'an for different functions including:

1. The use of synonymy for the purpose of emphasis since the use of synonymous words emphasizes a certain meaning. This is achieved through providing the synonymous words such as '*broad highways*', (Al-Anbiya, Verse 31) and '*black intense in hue*', (Fater, Verse 27).

Another way of achieving emphasis is through the use of two successive synonymous words separated by (and) as a connective such as '*Without fear of being overtaken (by Pharaoh) and without (any other) fear*', (Taha, Verse 77) and '*Naught doth it permit to endure, and naught doth it leave alone!*', (Al-Muddaththir, Verse 28).

2. Using substitution or replacement of a certain word in place of another to convey a similar meaning in different verses and different locations for example, they say: '*Nay! We shall follow the ways of our fathers*', (Al-Baqarah, Verse 170) and they say: '*Nay, we shall follow the ways that we found our fathers (following)*', (Luqman, Verse 21). In addition to, '*qushed forth*', (Al-Baqarah, Verse 60) and '*qushed forth*', (Al-A'raf, Verse 160).

3. The use of synonymy in the interpretation of the Qur'an through providing synonymous words or lexical items that have an approximate meaning for purposes of clarification of Qur'anic meaning and getting rid of any ambiguities surrounding it. An example of this usage is found in Al-Matridi's interpretation of the Holy Qur'an in which he used three different synonymous words to convey the same meaning '*Khalaqa, Bara'a and Sawwa*' which all convey the same meaning '*created*'.

It is worth noting that Muslim scholars who affirmed the existence of synonymy in the Holy Qur'an didn't study synonymy for its sake but rather utilized it as a tool to serve the Holy Qur'an and its sciences. This utilization of synonymy was obviously used to achieve several functions including: Emphasis, substitution and interpretation.

Omar (1988) pointed out that numerous linguistic scholars dealt with the phenomenon of synonymy from the point of view of classical linguists. Thus, only a few scholars dealt with the same phenomenon from the point of view of modern linguists.

a. *The Classical Stance*

There was a great controversy among classical Arab scholars regarding the affirmation or denial of synonymy in Arabic:

a). *Affirmation*

One group of Arab scholars proved the existence of synonymy providing evidence that all speakers of the language would use the term '*brain*' to provide an explanation for the term '*mind*'. This proved that both terms are synonymous to them.

Those scholars who were particularly concerned with the study of synonymy provide narrative and anecdotes as evidence to prove their opinion. One of which that anecdotes related to Prophet Mohammad who dropped a knife and asked one of his followers to pick up the knife using the Arabic term '*sekk Ğ in*' his follower apparently did not comprehend the intended meaning. Then, he asked the prophet is he meant '*!?Lmudiyya*' which is a synonymous term for it.

It appears that there were two groups of Arab linguist who were concerned with the affirmation of synonymy. The first group expanded the concept of synonymy without placing any restrictions on its use. However, the other group placed several constraints on synonymy using numerous preconditions for its usage. In accordance with what was

previously mentioned regarding the usage of synonymy, Al-Asfahani (2002) for example, states that real synonymy exists only within synonymous words that convey the same meaning within the same dialect.

b). *Denial*

There was another group of classical Arab linguist who denied the existence of synonymy among whom Al-Askari (1998), who pointed out that two words cannot convey the same meaning which would result in needless redundancy in language. Moreover, he made a distinction between /**madh**/ and /**ṭanā**/ in Arabic stating that the first refers to praising for one time only while the second refers to repeated praise. He also elaborates on the distinction between these two words and the word /**ʔitrā**/ saying that it refers to praising someone in his or her presence while /**madh**/ can be in someone's absence.

C. *The Modern Stance*

Omar (1988) points out that we find the same dispute among modern Arab linguists over the existence of synonymy just like we did among classical scholars with the exception that among modern scholars we find genuine attempts especially among those who affirmed the existence of synonymy to define, classify, and clarify it in a comprehensive manner.

Among the same lines, Omar also states that several modern scholars make the distinction between different types of synonymy and near synonymy. This distinction is made clear as follows:

- **Absolute synonymy:** This occurs when the two words convey exactly the same meaning and the native speakers of the language use these two words in an alternate manner freely without noticing any difference in meaning in all contexts.

- **Near synonymy:** This type of synonymy occurs when the meaning of the two words is almost identical to the point that non-specialists cannot detect the semantic differences between the two words. An example of this type includes the words: '*Sanah*' and '*Aam*', both referring to '*Year*' which are used in the Holy Qur'an. An English example of this type of synonymy includes the words '*sick*' and '*ill*'.

- **Semantic approximation:** This type exists when the conveyed meanings are approximately the same with the exception that one word differs from the other in the sense that it conveys a slightly different form of meaning. Examples of this type of synonymy in English include '*crawl, skip, hop, and run*' and '*walk*' which all convey a similar meaning and have '*movement*' add a common semantic significance. The distinction between the words lies in the fact that the number of legs, the manner of movement and the relationship between the legs and the surface differ from one word to another.

- **The use of periphrastic or synonymous sentences:** This occurs when two sentences convey the same meaning in the same language. Nilsen & Nilsen (1975) classified this type into the following:

1. Transformational: This occurs through changing location of words in the sentence in order to highlight a certain word or words without changing the overall meaning. An example of this type is: *Mohammad entered the room slowly* versus *slowly, Mohammad entered the room*.

2. Substitutional: In this type of synonymy, we substitute a certain word with another resulting in a new sentence that still conveys the same meaning. For example, I bought a typewriter from Mohammad for \$ a hundred dollars versus Mohammad sold me a typewriter for \$ a hundred dollars.

- **Translation:** This type of synonymy occurs when the two words are identical in two languages or within the same language when the discourse style changes. An example of this is the translation of a certain scientific text from the scientific language into a simpler colloquial style or the translation of a certain poem into prose.

D. *Denial of Synonymy*

Al-Munjed (1997, pp. 120-224) pointed out that the attitudes of those scholars who deny the existence of synonymy especially those dealing with synonymy in the Holy Qur'an and its sciences varied as well as their opinions regarding this phenomenon. He adds that before starting to study these synonymous utterances in the Holy Qur'an, it is necessary for us to remember the definition of synonymy in the light of which we should decide whether two words are synonymous or not. Accordingly, synonymy may be defined as the true and independent reference of two or more utterances to the same meaning as long as the utterances exist in the same linguistic environment. Furthermore, scholars who study synonymy are not concerned with the factor of language development because the semantic significance of utterances used in the Holy Qur'an has a sacred nature that protects it from the factor of linguistic development and change overtime. The following are examples of synonymous terms extracted from the Holy Qur'an:

ʔb, **wālid** / (Father)

The first term *ʔb* is a general utterance that refers to the person who provides another person with food and shelter and is concerned with the education of that person both physically and mentally. Moreover, he also provides guidance and counseling. For examples, '*And when they entered in the manner their father had enjoined*', (Chapter Yusuf), (Joseph)-Verse no. 68, and '*Therefore will I not leave this land until my father permits me*', (Chapter Yusuf), (Joseph)-Verse no. 68. The term *ʔb* can also be used to refer to our grandparents and great grandparents. For example, '*it is the cult of your father Abraham. It is He Who has named you Muslims*', (Chapter Al-Hajj), (The Pilgrimage)-Verse no. 78 and '*Allah, your Lord and Cherisher and the Lord and Cherisher of your fathers of old?*', (Chapter As-Saaffat), (Those

Ranges in Ranks)-Verse no. 126. This term is also used figuratively to refer to scholars and leaders who are viewed as mentors and role models who are usually followed and imitated. For example, *'We found our fathers following a certain religion, and we will certainly follow in their footsteps'*, (Chapter Az-Zukhruf), (The Gold Adornment)-Verse no. 23.

In contrast, the term /wālid/ is used only to refer to a biological parent who is the immediate father or mother excluding the grandparents or great grandparents. This is clarified in the Holy Qur'an since it is mentioned only in either the singular form or the dual form as illustrated in the following example: *'treat with kindness your parents'*, (Chapter Al-Baqarah), (The Cow)-Verse no. 83.

The final important difference between the term /ʔb/ and /wālid/ is that the second /wālid/ is always associated with emotions and compassion unlike the first term /ʔb/ which is associated with logic and reason. This is also illustrated in the fact that all verses in the Holy Qur'an that specifically refer to emotions and passion preferred the reference to /wālid/ instead of /ʔb/ as illustrated in the following examples: *'Show gratitude to Me and to thy parents: to Me is (thy final) Goal'*, (Chapter Luqman, Verse no. 14) and *'treat with kindness your parents'*, (Chapter Al-Baqarah), (The Cow)-Verse no. 83. Therefore, the two utterances /ʔb/ and /wālid/ cannot be considered synonymous and should not be used interchangeably.

A final example which does not support the existence of synonymy is the use of the two utterances /ʔtā/ and /jāʔ/ to mean 'came'. These terms are used in numerous verses in the Holy Qur'an but they all within they all fall within the same semantic reference framework which shows that the use of the term /ʔtā/ is almost always surrounded with ambiguity, doubts, ignorance and lying. While the use of the term /jāʔ/ is almost always surrounded with clarity, belief, awareness and certainty. For example, *"'Inevitable' cometh 'to pass' the Command of Allah: seek ye not then to hasten it"*, (Chapter An-Nahl), (The Bees)-Verse no. 1.

Another difference in the use of the two terms is that /jāʔ/ implies an action that comes as a result of a clear will and intention while the term /ʔtā/ usually refers to an action that happens accidentally and unintentionally as clarified in the following examples: *'Then there came a caravan of travellers: They sent their water-carrier (for water)'*, (Chapter Yusuf), (Joseph)-Verse no. 19 and *'At length, when they came to a (lowly) valley of ants'*, (Chapter An-Naml), (The Ants)-Verse no. 18. Therefore, the two terms cannot by any means be considered synonymous and nor can be used interchangeably since they do not convey exactly the same meaning or have the exact semantic reference in the Holy Qur'an.

In conclusion, we can safely claim through the detailed and careful analysis of a considerable number of terms that are often regarded as synonymous in the Holy Qur'an that the proposed existence of synonymous terms in the Holy Qur'an is simply an illusion and that practically do not exist in any form or fashion. Furthermore, careful analysis of such terms in the Holy Qur'an reveal that each term is used for a specific reason and significance which leads us to the solid belief that exact and absolute synonymy does not at all exist in the Holy Qur'an as was generally perceived previously by Arab linguistic scholars.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

Upon thorough analysis of the illustrative examples extracted from different sources dealing with particularly with semantic and functional usage of synonymy, the following conclusions maybe reached:

- Synonymy is a universal semantic phenomenon and may be considered as one of the most important sense relations.
- Modern Arab linguistic scholars placed specific constraints on the use of synonymy compared to those restrictions imposed by former linguistic scholars.
- There was a great controversy among classical Arab scholars as well as modern Arab linguistic scholars regarding the affirmation or denial of the existence of synonymy in Arabic with each group of scholars giving illustrative examples to support their argument and substantiate their claim.
- There was a clear consensus among Arab and English linguists that absolute synonymy hardly ever exists since neither language accepts that two words are absolutely and completely synonymous even if they are used interchangeably.
- What exists in language in reality is what may be termed as "near synonymy" which reflects two relatively similar meanings at first glance but convey two distinct semantic meanings upon close examination of their functions.
- The existence of absolute synonymy specifically in the Holy Qur'an is nothing more than an illusion and does not exist at all. This finding is substantiated by clear evidence drawn from numerous explications of the Holy Qur'an conducted by professional Arab linguists and properly trained Muslim scholars.

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Sana Kamel Al-Omari is an instructor of English at Al-Balqa' Applied University, Irbid University Collage in Jordan. She holds an M.A. degree in English linguistics from Yarmouk University 2008. Her research interests include: General linguistics, pragmatics, major language skills and first and second language acquisition.



Abdel-Rahman Husni Abu-Melhim was born on February 14, 1958 in Jerash, Jordan. He is a Jordanian-American, currently teaching as an Associate Professor of English language and literature at Al-Balqa'a Applied University in Jordan. He graduated from Texas A&M University, College Station in 1992. His Ph.D. degree was in English with emphasis on socio-linguistics. His research interests include: Socio-linguistics, Applied Linguistics, Psycho-Linguistics, and Cross-Cultural communication.

Nonverbal Teacher-student Communication in the Foreign Language Classroom

Qi Pan

English Department, Zhenjiang Watercraft College, Zhenjiang, China

Abstract—Nonverbal communication refers to a form of communication without using the words to repress oneself. Nonverbal communication is so basic that the teachers tend to take it for granted and always ignore it in the English classroom teaching. For attaining the goal of teaching, and improving teaching quality and efficiency in the foreign language classroom, the improvement of teaching method is a very important factor. Briefly introducing the definition and types of nonverbal communication, this paper discusses the functions and principles of using nonverbal communication in English teaching classroom and it explains some ways of using the nonverbal behaviors to improve the foreign language teaching. Therefore, the significance of nonverbal communication should be fully acknowledged by both teacher and students.

Index Terms—nonverbal communication, foreign language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

For many years, researches of all backgrounds have been done in different aspects of communication. As we know, human beings communicate with others by exchanging information. Usually, there are two ways of exchanging information, one is verbal communication, and the other is nonverbal communication. On occasion, some research findings are concerned with verbal fashion, while some are from what is observed nonverbally. Nonverbal communication is only one facet of the giant field of communication, and yet it has been claimed that 65% of meaning is conveyed through nonverbal communication (Birdwhistell, 1970). One statement goes like this: we speak with our verbal organs while we converse with our bodies. Conversation not only makes up of a simple interchange of oral words. As English teachers, our aim to teach language, especially a foreign language, is to teach the students how to use language to communicate more effectively with other people. However, we have laid much emphasis on the nonverbal communications, both in oral and written form, while neglecting that of nonverbal communication. Many teachers do not pay enough attention to nonverbal communication in class, contributing directly to failure in achieving teaching goals and students' acquisition of knowledge.

Studies on nonverbal communication have generally focused on the teaching methods in the classroom which may be used in teaching any subject. Learners haven't paid enough attention to the unique situation in language classes. Yet foreign language teachers who intentionally control their movements and position enjoy a delicate but effective power. During pattern drills, they can increase observably the tempo of the class, while decreasing teacher talk at the same time. Language teachers can use body language such as gestures to signal and instigate changes in the class atmosphere and thus further their instructional goals, throughout a class period encompassing such various activities as conversation and choral repetition. Furthermore, through nonverbal communication, they can effect personalization between class members and thus lessen the inhibitions which normally plague language students. It is suggested that a videotape recording of the class provides useful and objective feedback for teachers who wish to analyze and improve their own use of gesture and nonverbal communication in the classroom. Therefore, the significance of nonverbal communication should be fully acknowledged by both teacher and students. In fact, nonverbal communication plays an important role in our daily communication, and it is an indispensable part of language teaching. This paper will focus on the nonverbal communication taking place in the foreign language classroom.

A. Concepts of Nonverbal Communication

As we know, the communicative behaviors of human beings can be divided into two types: verbal communication and nonverbal communication. When it comes to the nonverbal communication, it has a rich history to some extent. The prime research of nonverbal communication can trace back to the Aristotle's research. Nonverbal communication refers to a form of communication without using the words to express oneself.

However, the Nonverbal communication in itself can be divided into many subcategories such as proxemics, kinesics, haptics and so on. (Samovar, 2000) Therefore, nonverbal communication is one academic research that has rich content and promote communication. In this paper, proxemics and kinesics will be discussed in particular, so literary review of them will be presented in great detail:

Proxemics refers to the use of space in a given situation. The use of space varies depending on the situation and the relation of the participants involved. Edward Hall has divided the use of space into 4 categories: intimate, personal, social, and public. (Edward Hall, 1966) An intimate interaction usually requires six to eighteen inches, personal

interaction usually requires one and a half to three feet, social interaction requires three to five feet, and public interaction usually requires ten or more feet.

Kinesics is the term used for bodily movement. Body movement includes the use of eye contact, facial expressions, posture, and gesture. The use of bodily movement helps individuals express an emotional state, as well as the intensity of such a state. The second type of bodily movement is facial expression. An example of this would be the smile. A simple smile may carry with it many different meanings.

B. Types of Nonverbal Communication

Verbal communication only has oral form and written form. Different from verbal communication, nonverbal communication has many forms, including gesture, touch, body language, facial expression, eye contact and so on. According to the different standards of classifications, Bi Jiwan divided nonverbal communication into four types: body language, paralanguage, object communication, and physical environment. Body language refers to designation for instinctive, conscious and conventional expressive movements of the body, including posture, head movements, facial expressions and gesture and so on. Paralanguage, sometimes called vocalic, is the study of nonverbal cues of the voice. It includes voice quality, emotion, and speaking style, as well as prosodic features such as rhythm, intonation, and stress. These paralinguages may change the meaning of the words. Nonverbal communication can be communicated by object communication. And object communication includes clothing, hairstyle, architecture, symbols and so on. Physical environment also has influence on communication behaviors. However, this environment is not research about natural environment. It includes furniture, architectural style, interior decorating, lighting condition, colors, temperature, noise, and music. Also proxemics and chromatics also are physical environments. All physical environment factors may affect the behaviors of the communicators during interaction.

II. METHODOLOGY

As we know, The most appropriate methodology to use in this research study is a classroom observation schedule in which detailed notes and analysis are made based on nonverbal communication between teacher and students observed. I observed a first-year English class in my college. Every class consists of 80 minutes' classroom interaction between teacher and the students. The participants of this study included a teacher from my English Department and the students of Class 5 which consists of 25 male students.

The data was analyzed according to the aforementioned nonverbal communication categories: proxemics, kinesics, haptics and artifactual communication. However, due to time constraints I will focus on the first two categories-proxemics and kinesics-for this paper.

III. FINDINGS—PROBLEMS DURING THE NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION BETWEEN TEACHER AND STUDENTS

A. Proxemics (Interpersonal Distance and Spatial Orientation)

Proxemics refers to the use of space in a given situation. In classroom communication, the distance between teacher and students and physical classroom arrangement are the two major proxemics aspects.

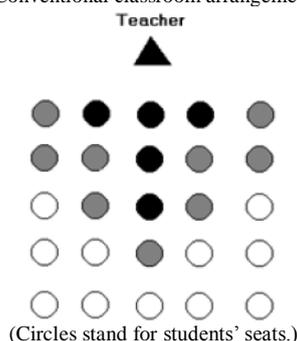
a. Interpersonal distance

Interpersonal distance in the classroom, especially the distance between teacher and students, has profound influence on the effectiveness of teacher-pupil communication. However, nowadays not many teachers pay attention to this field of nonverbal communication. Some teachers just stand on the stage in front of the classroom during the whole process of a class and have little interaction with his students below.

b. Spatial orientation

The classroom itself has limited amount of space and the way that the kind of communication will certainly be affected. It is not only the seating arrangement of the classroom but also the way students are distributed in the class that affects significantly the students' learning. In the teacher-centered (traditional) seating arrangement style, students sit one after another in columns facing the teacher. The place they prefer to sit brings some advantages and disadvantages in terms of learning and participation. (Ikram, 2010)

Conventional classroom arrangement



In this traditional type of classroom arrangement, people who seating the dark seats will bring about a majority of interaction between teacher and the students. People who occupying the gray positions account for some interaction, but less than those in the dark seats. However, students in the white circles will participate very infrequently. This kind of classroom arrangement causes physical and mental barrier between teacher and students.

B. Posture Participance of Students

The phenomenon that students who will not or cannot actively participate in classroom discussions is the most disappointing classroom phenomenon. Student withdrawal or fear of interacting not only deprives that student from sharing what he knows, but also deprives the teacher and other classmates from benefiting from what he can offer.

In the class discussion, the reasons why students lack of active participance are: (1) unconfidence: students who lack of confidence and regard themselves as incapable and tend to be silent out of shame; (2) different ctures: communicators are often affected by culture difference and nearly forbidden from speaking up, such as the deference out of respect for teachers' opinions, higher status students' or elder students ideas, and gender or race difference; (3) to prevent contradiction: shy, inexperient, or less unconfident individuals depend on keeping silent in preventing contradiction. Therefore, this strategy needs to be confronted delicately with alternative strategies offered as substitutes for unwanted silence, such avoidance should commonly be easy to diagnose by alert teachers.

C. Direction and Movements of Gaze

Teachers often forget about the importance of nonverbal communication in their own and their students' performance, although they know that speech is only one part of communication. Mentioned nonverbal communication, the eye contact is a useful tool for both the teacher and the student, however, much time is spent with eyes firmly fixed on the book, the blackboard, the window, the floor, or learning environment during the class. During class, when the teacher is looking at the students or seems to be paying attention to them, most of them tend to withdraw or move away their gazes which were previously on their teachers instinctively due to shyness.

IV. RECOMMENDATIONS—HOW TO ENHANCE TEACHER-PUPIL NONVERBAL COMMUNICATION

A. Improve Proxemics Communication

It is essential that conflicts exist during the cross cultural communication. If we want to communicate with each other more smoothly, we must respect and learn the culture differences and the reasons behind them.

a. Interpersonal distance

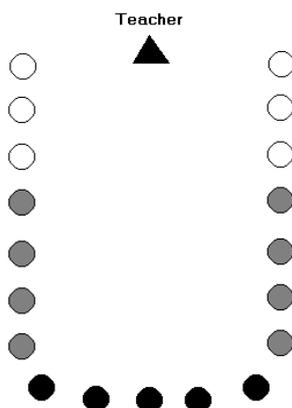
When the teacher is giving a lecture, he should walk off the stage to join the crowd of students and make moderate interaction with them instead of standing on the stage all the time.

When a student is answering a question, the teacher can lean a little bit to him to listen attentively, showing interest and attention on the teacher's part.

b. Alternatives of traditional classroom arrangement

Kimberley Thoresen in his article physical classroom arrangement provides two ways of classroom arrangements. Each one has its own advantages based on the scale of the class and the teaching goal of the teacher.

(a). Horseshoe classroom arrangement



(Different colors of seats have same meaning as above)

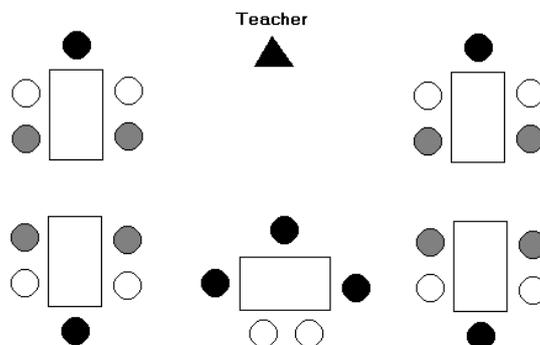
Classes with quite small enrollments can be arranged in this fashion. Such an arrangement provides for each student equivalent visual access to most other students and the teacher.

Through this way, there is more participation in classes arranged. Students who are at the opposite end of the horseshoe from the teacher, however, are those most likely to interact, while those at the right and left hand of the teacher are those least likely to interact. (Kimberley, 2008)

The horseshoe arrangement may be the most desirable, if the teacher hopes that the full-class interactions occur. That will encourage interaction both among the students and between students and teacher.

Moreover, this arrangement results wider participation than the traditional arrangement. It also seems reasonable to say that a teacher is perceived as less intimidating when he is seated in a circle with the students rather than behind the formal and imposing symbol of his large desk.

(b). Modular classroom arrangement



This arrangement is especially suitable for classes requiring interaction among smaller groups of students. Modular arrangements such as this one tend to increase the amount of student interaction.

The modular arrangement may be preferred, if quite important part of the learning in the class is rely upon student interaction with other students. This arrangement makes many students to be interacting at the same time without interrupting on one another. While many other elements will determine the nature of communication in a given teacher's classroom, the arrangements of classroom space may have the largest impact. (Kimberley, 2008)

B. Break the Silence

The solution lays mainly on the teacher's part, because he is the dominator of the classroom and he has certain authoritative power over students. The teacher needs to try to create learning and sharing atmosphere for the students, which will in return benefit both of the teacher and the students.

a. Offer a wide array of communication channels i.e.: discussion, debate, analysis, brainstorming, group work, etc.

Based on a case study of classroom management by Professor Fan Yi, he makes a case study of a double-period lesson of reading comprehension that he personally observed in Tiong Bahru Secondary School, Singapore, during his teaching practice. By recording some typical management problems in an English language class and by evaluating the strategies dealing with them, he gives supportive evidence to the thesis that the effective classroom management for an English language class is to create a positive class climate for learning.

With the aid of other approaches, communicative channels have been widely employed in the English language teaching in Singapore schools. Communicative channels are established on such a psycholinguistic assumption that effective language teaching and efficient language learning only occur in a positive class climate, which involves three essentials ---easy atmosphere, motivating environment and active participation (Widdowson, 1978; Littlewood, 1984).

The teacher had noticed that although the class discipline had been much enhanced, the stressful atmosphere and poor motivation hindered the pupils from participating in learning activities. In the second period of the lesson, she employed some remedial strategies.

First, in order to break the tense atmosphere in class and motivate the pupils for the topic, the teacher did not go straight to the second part of the essay. Instead she asked the class a few questions about their own personal eating experience, such as "Where do the Singaporeans go for meals?" "How many different styles of food can we eat in Singapore?" "Where did you have your Chinese New Year dinner?" and "What food did you have for the dinner?". These questions were very stimulating and immediately stirred up the class into a hot discussion. Some boys even stood up to offer their answers. A silent class now became very alive. When the students had been involved in the class discussion, the teacher turned the topic to the text. It was still group work, but each group member had to prepare for one of the given questions and present it to the group. After every group member presented it to the group, the group representative summed up their ideas and presented them to the class. This strategy involved every pupil in the learning activity. Each pupil had a clear task to fulfill and a strong desire to communicate with other group members. In order to make a successful presentation, he had to read the text and prepare for the given question carefully, integrating reading the text, writing down the notes, listening to the others and speaking to the group all together. Effective learning started from the moment the pupils took active part in learning activities. Some pupils had a tendency to speak dialect, but once he had got a role to play as the representative to speak up to the group or the class, he had to communicate in English. Thus dialect was prevented in the class. Obviously, by employing the remedial strategies, the teacher had rather

successfully conducted the second period of the lesson. Although the remedial strategies were used to deal with specific management problems in a specific lesson, they were of general significance and applicability. Setting up an easy class atmosphere certainly helps to diminish the tension and anxiety existing in the class. Associating the lesson with the pupils' personal experience and interest always helps to motivate the pupils for the lesson. By giving pupils specific tasks, the teacher supplies them with desire for communication in English. All these strategies certainly involve pupils in learning activities. (Fan, 2000)

b. Initially create "no lose" situations for students. Construct options where each is a winner to instill confidence and foster a greater willingness to participate.

A general knowledge contest was held in the College. There were all together 5 classes representing 5 groups in this contest, so it was like having a class but with larger scale. Eventually, each group was awarded some honor. Some particularly outstanding students in acting or grasp of profound knowledge were awarded special prizes. As a fact, our group did not do a good job in the contest, but we were still awarded the third prize. Though it was kind of consolation prize, it made us feel less embarrassed and feel willing to take part in this kind of activity again. At the same time, those special prizes profoundly showed our teachers' appreciation for the performance and participating of the students.

c. Be patient with reticent students. Do not rush them nor allow them to stall and thus have others called upon to fill the silence gap.

According to the classroom observation, 2 situations have great worth elaborating. When a reticent student was urged by the teacher to answer a certain question, she seemed quite anxious. Her face blushed and her murmuring demonstrated her blank in mind. She tried great effort to find the answer from her book and from her classmates, while she gave up her own thinking for this question.

For another reticent student, the teacher posed a question to her. Before she got anxious about not being able to finding the answer, the teacher began talking about relevant details about this problem until she had her own opinion of this question. Afterwards, the teacher didn't judge whether it was right or wrong. Instead, she asked opinion of another student of this class, thus triggering a heated discussion on this issue among students.

Apparently, the second situation is more helpful for students' intellectual and mental growth. The teacher showed more understanding and respect for the student and she didn't let silence defeat this girl.

C. *Break the Shyness*

a. Motivating students with a smile

If the teacher wants to improve the students' performance, he can implement some simple and positive behaviors in his classroom and models these behaviors for his students.

A smile of teacher has great influence on students, especially those sentimental ones. They will feel warm-hearted, motivated, and more willing to acquire new knowledge.

b. Use eye contact proactively

Some teachers are good at dealing with interpersonal relationships, and they do well in gaining attention from the students from the beginning of the class. Their appealing sounds pleasant and makes people be willing to follow. The lack of eye contact is sometimes due to the absence of a clear appeal from the teacher.

Susan has done a case study of Ms. Rossi who has a classroom full of energetic juniors and she introduces to the reader how Ms. Rossi makes her students to pay full attention to her class. Ms. Rossi begins a lesson by saying, "I need all eyes on me." With continuous teacher-pupil eye contact, she gives her students an effective and informative class.

The importance of establishing and maintaining eye contact when we encourage students to make friendly and respectful eye contact with each other is greatly acknowledged. But do we pay attention to our own use of eye contact? Making eye contact with individual students can help a teacher establish a presence in the classroom and reinforces the importance of the teacher's message. (Hodge, 1971) It may also assist students in their ability to recall information. In one study, students whose teacher made eye contact with them while reading a story had greater recall of details of that story than students whose teacher did not make eye contact while reading the same story. (Otteson & Otteson, 1980, as cited in Rosa, 2003) If the teacher decides that he'd like to improve his use of eye contact, he can enlist the children's help by letting them know that he'll be practicing his use of eye contact during lessons with them just as they practice good eye contact. Simply letting the children know that this is a goal he is working on can help keep them focused on the goal.

V. CONCLUSION

Human communication is divided into verbal communication and nonverbal communication, verbal communication is the most basic and most commonly used communication mode of human beings, and nonverbal communication is the essential part of human communication. In teaching Chinese as a foreign language, nonverbal communication also plays a very important role, in certain circumstances, non-verbal communication can achieve the goal that even verbal communication can't, application of nonverbal communication in teaching Chinese as a foreign language must be considered, different forms of nonverbal communicative behavior play a very important role on the teaching Chinese as a foreign language.

The effective way to achieve your students' attention in your classroom is nonverbal communication. Your students

send out their own messages throughout your lecture and give you vital clues to understand whether you are reaching them or if you need to alter your teaching style. Your own nonverbal messages can inspire your students to participate in your lesson, an important part of your job as a teacher. Other nonverbal commands can help you get control of a disruptive student and ensure peace in your classroom.

The students' attention is easily attracted by the use of body language, and the body language can also help them deepen their impression and imagination. Appropriate body language can reflect the teachers' temperament and demeanor to strengthen their personal glamour. Through this way, the students' ability of English will be certainly and greatly improved. However, the teachers' body language often exists during the oral language. We need use the body language accurately during the class, or it will cause a bad influence on the English teaching course.

In a nutshell, nonverbal communication plays an important role in communicative behaviors. Content of the nonverbal communication is pretty rich and has various forms. English teaching also is communicative behavior, so that it is unavoidable that nonverbal communication has effect on language teaching. In reality, nonverbal communication can improve teaching effect. On the other hand, language teacher can make language teaching more vivid and visualization. And teacher can get a better teaching result with nonverbal communication more easily than without nonverbal communication. Moreover, we all know that nonverbal language is affected by culture and it is difficult for us to observe the diversity in the use and interpretation of nonverbal communication when we communicate with foreigners. The same nonverbal communication may be interpreted differently by people from different culture. And different nonverbal communication may also be used to convey the same idea or emotion. So that if teacher can teach nonverbal communication knowledge of English, students can understand English easily and improve their communicative abilities. In one word, nonverbal communication is beneficial for us to language teaching.

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Qi Pan was born in Zhenjiang, China in 1987. She received her B.A. degree in English language and literature from Jiangsu University of Science and Technology, China in 2009.

She is currently a tutor in English Department, Zhenjiang Watercraft College, Zhenjiang, China. Her research interests include Second Language Acquisition Contrastive Studies of English and Chinese.

The Analysis of the Phenomenon of Language Right Weakening of Cantonese Translated into English

Xia He
Huaiyin Institute of Technology, China

Abstract—A global society has made the communication and cooperation in politics, economy, culture and many different fields between countries booming. As a link in international communication and exchanges, translation has been playing an increasingly significant role. Translation is the communication of conveying the meaning of a source-language with target-language. However, in the process of translation, due to different language systems and cultures, when source language is translated into the target language, the meanings and culture elements cannot be fully kept, thus causing the loss of meaning. Language right is a part of human right. It refers that every human being or human group enjoys the right to freely use the language. It also refers that the used language enjoys the right to survive, develop and be fully transmitted. The loss of meaning in one language is the result that the language right of it is not guaranteed or weakened. This paper, researches on the characteristics of Cantonese, through the analysis of the English lines of the Cantonese movie *The Infernal Affairs*, presents the language right weakening of Cantonese translated into English. Some tentative strategies are hopefully to be discovered.

Index Terms—Cantonese, language right weakening, translation

I. INTRODUCTION

A global society has made the communication and cooperation in politics, economy, culture and many different fields between countries booming. As a link in international communication and exchanges, translation has been playing an increasingly significant role. Translation is the communication of conveying the meaning of a source-language with target-language. From Nida's point of view, translation is about achieving lexical equivalence, or in other words, the equivalence of words' meaning as well as the semantic and styles of the original context. (Susan Bassenett, 2003)

However, in the process of translation, due to different language systems and cultures, when source language is translated into the target language, the meanings and culture elements cannot be fully kept, thus the right of the source language to be fully expressed cannot be guaranteed. That is to say, the language right of the source language is weakened.

Actually, the phenomenon of language right weakening in translation is not uncommon, especially when the source language is the minority language while the target language the majority, and when the two languages belong to totally different language systems. However, the phenomenon of language right weakening in the study of translation hasn't become one of the key issues. This paper researches on the phenomenon of language right weakening of Cantonese translated into English, through presenting the characteristics of Cantonese, and with the analysis of English lines the Cantonese movie *Infernal Affairs*. It aims to find the possible solutions or strategies to compensate the weakening of language right of Cantonese.

II. LANGUAGE RIGHT WEAKENING IN TRANSLATION

An Introduction of Language Right Weakening (LRW)

1. Definition of Language Right

The concept of "language right" was firstly introduced in the west as a part of human right. The English expressions of it can be: linguistic human rights, language rights, human language rights. According to Wikipedia, language right refers to:

Linguistic rights (or language rights or linguistic human rights) are the human and civil rights concerning the individual and collective right to choose the language or languages for communication in a private or public atmosphere. Other parameters for analyzing linguistic rights include the degree of territoriality, amount of positivity, orientation in terms of assimilation or maintenance, and overtness. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linguistic_rights (accessed 9/11/2014)

2. Language Right Weakening

Language right can be divided into individual language right and collective language right. In terms of individual language right, human have the right and freedom of expression and to use their own language with other members of their group. In terms of collective language right, it means that the right of a linguistic group to ensure the survival of its

language and to transmit the language to future generations. http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Linguistic_rights (accessed 9/11/2014) That is to say, if the survival of a certain language as well as the transmission of it cannot be ensured or in a full manner, the collective language right is weakened or not guaranteed. This paper is set up on the theoretical foundation of collective language right weakening.

3. Language Right Weakening in Translation

Although Nida once said "Anything that can be expressed with one language can be expressed with another language", translation is not simply a process of transferring individual words from one language to another, but "an extremely complicated process". And even Nida himself admits that language is a series of verbal habits that represent aspects of a culture. (Eugene A. Nida, 2006) Actually, in the process of translation, due to different language systems, and cultures, the tone, style, culture elements, and unique characteristics of the original language cannot be completely represented in the target language. In translation, this is called semantic loss. Semantic loss is not a kind of translation mistake, but unavoidable in translation. The occurring of semantic loss in translation weakens the right of the language to be fully expressed.

In such cases, translators always risk inappropriate spill-over of source-language into the target-language translation, thus 100% equal interpretation from one language to another in every situation cannot be achieved. Usually, such cases happen most frequently when the source language belongs to a very different language system and cultural system with the target language. Therefore, this paper, through analyzing the characteristics of Cantonese, a southern dialect in China, which is totally different from English, researches on the phenomenon of language right weakening of the minority language Cantonese with a Cantonese movie as an example, and possible solutions to the problem of language right weakening are concluded.

III. THE CHARACTERISTICS OF CANTONESE

A. Introduction of Cantonese

Cantonese is a language that originated in the vicinity of Canton (i.e., Guangzhou) in southern China, and is often regarded as the prestige dialect of Yue. It is an official language in Hong Kong (along with English) and in Macau (along with Portuguese). Sometime also known as Guangfuhua, a broader definition which also include the Guangzhou dialect, Hong Kong dialect, Xiguan dialect, Wuzhou dialect, and Tanka dialect. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cantonese> (accessed 9/11/2014)

Cantonese is the prestige language of the Cantonese people. Inside mainland China, it is a lingua franca in Guangdong Province and some neighbouring areas, such as the eastern part of Guangxi Province. Outside mainland China, it is spoken by the majority population of Hong Kong and Macau in everyday life. It is also spoken by overseas Chinese communities in Southeast Asia (like Malaysia, Christmas Island), Canada, Brazil, Peru, Cuba, Panama, Australia, New Zealand, Europe, and the United States. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cantonese> (accessed 9/11/2014)

The Cantonese language is also viewed as part of the cultural identity for the native speakers across large swathes of southern China, Hong Kong and Macau. Although Cantonese shares much vocabulary with Mandarin Chinese, the two languages are not mutually intelligible because of pronunciation, grammatical, and also lexical differences. Sentence structure, in particular the placement of verbs, sometimes differs between the two languages. The use of vocabulary in Cantonese also tends to have more historic roots. To be specific, the characteristics of Cantonese, which differ from Mandarin, can be presented as following. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cantonese> (accessed 9/11/2014)

B. The Characteristics of Cantonese

Cantonese is an analytic language in which the arrangement of words in a sentence is important to its meaning. A basic sentence is in the form of SVO, i.e. a subject is followed by a verb then by an object, though this order is often violated because Cantonese is a Top-prominent language. Unlike synthetic languages, seldom do words indicate time, gender and plural by inflection. Instead, these concepts are expressed through adverbs, aspect markers, and particles, or are deduced from the context. Different particles are added to a sentence to further specify its status or intonation. Among them, the most typical characteristics are as follows. <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cantonese> (accessed 9/11/2014)

1. Grammar

(1) Morphology

"The suffix used for the plural of pronouns, 哋, cannot associate with human nouns, unlike its similar Mandarin counterpart 們 -men. Mandarin 學生們 xu shengmen "the students" would be rendered in Cantonese as (啲)學生." (Qianwei, 2010 p.2)

"There are words in Mandarin which require the suffixes 子 or 頭, but they are normally optional in Cantonese, e.g. 鞋子 "shoe" and 石頭 "rock" can simply be 鞋 and 石 in Cantonese." (Qianwei, 2010 p.2)

(2) Comparison

Cantonese usually use the marker 過 after an adjective to expressive adjective comparison. For example, 佢瘦過我 "He is thinner than me."

In Standard Mandarin Chinese, comparison is marked by the word “比”. The sentence above can be translated as “他比我瘦”.

(3) Passives

Cantonese passive sentence usually contains a word “畀”, similarly to “被” in Mandarin. For example, 苹果畀人食咗 "the apple have been eaten by someone"

(4) Final Particles

There are many final particles in Cantonese which can change the moods or sometimes even the meaning of an utterance. Sometimes these final particles can be combined together to enhance the effect. For example:

你食饭未呀? have you had lunch?

你去邊度呀? Where are you going? 我返屋企呀 I'm going home.

There are more final particles than those shown above, such as 嘞, 囉, 咯, 吓, 呵, 吖, 喎, 啱, 噃, 嘸, 啲 and 咩.

Final particles may sometimes combine to convey multiple moods. There are unwritten rules about which particles can be combined and in what order they occur which are probably too complicated to explain here. However, one good rule of thumb is that 嘅 always comes before the other particles. In addition, the particles used in questions (呀 aa3, 咩 me1, 呢 ne1, 嗎 maa3, etc.) always come last. (Zhong Ping, 2012)

(5) Reiteratives and Rhyming words

Reiteratives are typical in Cantonese and a characteristics of it, like “佢快脸红扑扑” (她的脸红扑扑)、“饭菜香喷喷”、“尼朵花好好睇啊” (这朵花好好看啊)

Both Cantonese and Mandarin are featured with many such rhyming words such as: “出尔反尔”、“以事论事”、“人云亦云”、“听之任之”

2. Culture

(1) Massive Ancient Chinese

“One of most significant features of Cantonese is that it remains massive of the ancient Chinese pronunciation characteristics. Cantonese contains lots of ancient Chinese words which are already not used in Mandarin Chinese. These words are often used in oral expression. For example, the uses of “髀”、“翼”、“狼”、“戾”、“多谢”, etc. These words are not used in normal Mandarin Chinese. “鸡髀” (鸡腿), “鸡翼” (翅膀) These Cantonese words are oriented from ancient Chinese. Besides, there are also words like 佢 (他), 匙羹 (勺子)、锁匙 (钥匙), 银包 (钱包)、癲 (疯)、“针眼” (线人)、“鸳鸯袜” (穿错袜子)、“擦鞋” (拍马屁), and so on.” (ZhuYueming, 2004, p.80)

(2) Unique Expressions

Moreover, many Cantonese words carry deep local characteristics. Such as “叹茶”、“饮茶”、“早茶”、“大排档”、“蛋挞”、“虾饺”、“叉烧包”、“糖水”、“老火靚汤”、“凉茶”、“骑楼”、“白车” (救护车)、“家产” (武器)、“靚仔” (小子), etc. These words are all closely related to local cooking and life culture. They are something unique in areas where Cantonese is spoken.

IV. CASE STUDY: THE PHENOMENON OF LANGUAGE RIGHT WEAKENING IN THE ENGLISH LINES OF INFERNAL AFFAIRS

A. Language Right Weakening of Cantonese—Metaphors



(1) 我条针眼话倪永孝拧左成百万粉出来

我的线人说倪永孝拿了一百万毒品出来。

My secret man informed me that Hau took out a million's worth of coke.

针眼: 针孔, 比喻秘密监视, 线人—secret man

“针眼” means needle eye in Chinese and a special expression in Cantonese meaning the person who secretly spying

someone else. It is a metaphor. It is translated as “secret man” and the vivid expression of this metaphor is gone. Thus the original in Cantonese is not fully expressed.

Actually, there are many such vivid expressions and been used in their metaphorical meanings now, which cannot be fully presented their original colors in English. For example:

- (2) 见一见头先着鸳鸯袜果个人—
先见一见刚才穿错袜子的那个人。
...go see “Mr. wrong socks” first;
- (3) 尼几日风声紧，你翻屯门住一排先—
这几天风声紧，回屯门一段时间吧—
Hide in Tuen Mun till things quiet down.

B. Language Right Weakening of Cantonese—Unique Expressions



到了现场，见几十人挥舞刀棍在械斗

- (1) 见到几十人刺晒家产，系度做紧大戏。
见几十人挥舞刀棍在那里械斗。
A gang fight was taking place.
家产：工具，武器；财富
刺晒家产：拿着武器，挥舞刀棍—a gang fight

Analysis: “家产” in Cantonese means tools or weapons. It is the unique expression indicating fighting, because weapons are usually needed in a fight. In this example, both Cantonese and Mandarin emphasize the weapon (家产-刀棍), while the English translation omits it, thus weakening the language right of Cantonese here.

More examples:

- (2) 不过两年前，比我见翻个靓仔
两年前，我再遇到了他。
But when I saw him again two years ago.
靓仔：帅哥，小混混—him
- (3) 阿 Sir，不如叫白车啦！
警官，叫救护车吧。
How about calling an ambulance, Sir?
白车：救护车（救护车是白色的）
白车-ambulance

C. Language Weakening of Cantonese—Reiteratives



我见你最近没精打采，还以为你不想去

- (1) 我见你尼排盞砗砗咁，仲以为你唔想去添
我见你最近没精打采，还以为你不想去呢。

I thought you'd been dreading it.

盗砗砗 (reiterative 叠音词): 傻瓜, 没精打采

盗砗砗—dread (a feeling of great fear or terror)

Analysis: Reiterative is the act of repeating a process with the aim of approaching a desired goal, target or result, which are for reinforcing the effect. Reiteratives are typical in Cantonese and a characteristics of it, like “佢快脸红扑扑”、“饭菜香喷喷”“尼朵花好好睇啊” Unfortunately, Reiteratives of Cantonese cannot be represented in English.

D. Language Right Weakening of Cantonese—Rhyming Words



- (1) 点样？未见啲打啲咯。
怎么样？当然是见一次打一次。

I'll kick your ass every time I see you.

见啲打啲: Rhyming Words, -- kick your ass every time I see you

A rhyme is a repetition of similar sounds in two or more words. Rhyme partly seems to be enjoyed simply as a repeating pattern that is pleasant to hear. Both Cantonese and Mandarin are featured with many such rhyming words such as: “出尔反尔”、“以事论事”、“人云亦云”、“听之任之”, etc. However, these rhyming words as well as their effected and not be represented in English.

E. Language Right Weakening of Cantonese—Final Particles



- (1) 我见你尼排盞車車咁，仲以为你唔想去添。
我见你最近没精打采，还以为你不想去呢。

I thought you'd been dreading it.

There are many final particles in Cantonese which can change the moods or sometimes even the meaning of an utterance. Sometimes these final particles can be combined together to enhance the effect. While in English, the moods or sometimes the meaning of an utterance can only be realized by the change of tones. There are many unique final particles in Cantonese, and when they are translated into English, all of them cannot be rendered in English. More examples:

- (2) 我都话你今晚会杀我嘅啦。

我说过你今晚杀我的。

You'll whack me tonight. I told you so.

我係今日返屋企嘅 I'm going home today. (the "today" is emphasized)

(3) 你係幾時返來嘍? When are you coming back? (the "when" is emphasized)

佢返一日啫 He's only coming back for one day.

V. TENTATIVE STRATEGIES FOR LANGUAGE RIGHT WEAKENING IN TRANSLATION

From the introduction from Chapter two, we have already known the definition of Collective language rights. Since the above analysis shows that Cantonese cannot be fully re-expressed into English, the survival of it as well as the transmission of it cannot be guaranteed, the language right of it is not ensured or weakened to some extent. It is not convincible to the development of the language as well as the protection of the diversity of language types. Actually, the main reason for this phenomenon is the differences between language systems and cultures.

As a matter of fact, Eugene Nida thinks that anything that can be expressed by language can be expressed by another language. Corresponding expression can be sought by different means such as information recombination and semantic reconstruction between language and culture. Usually, the strategies for compensating the lost information or cultural elements of the source language to realize full equivalence between two languages in translation are:

(1) Free translation. Free translation is a way when translators cannot save the literal meanings and have no way but to give up the metaphor and forms, finally just express the meanings of the original language. This way suit for dealing with semantic absence phenomenon with heavy cultural color like idioms, proverbs, common sayings, etc. Interpreting should be closely related to the original contents and pragmatic functions when interpreters use free translation. For example, “家产”—weapons, “风声紧”—the situation is urgent,

(2) Paraphrasing. There are some expressions which have special meanings. The connotation and cultural characteristics will be neglected if we just use transliteration or free translation. In this case, adding notes may come in handy. Adding notes, as the name suggests, is to paraphrase like attributes or connotations about the original thing or words. Paraphrasing is usually used in the translation of special mechanisms, allusions or catchwords, and can reach the complementation of meanings and pronunciation. For example, 老子曾说过, 治大国如烹小鲜。To run a big country is like cooking a small fish. Do not overdo it. “鸳鸯袜”—Yuanyang Socks, which means wrong socks. 针眼—needle eye, which means a man secretly spying others.

(3) Zero translation. However, in some cases, the unique features of the source language like the examples listed above are impossible to be fully rendered. Otherwise, the translation would be very unnatural. For example, the reiterative and rhyming words in Cantonese listed above cannot be translated at all. 嘞, 囉, 咯, 吓, 呵, 吖, 喲, 啱, 啱, 啱, 啱 and 啱.

VI. CONCLUSION

In the process of translation, due to different language systems, and cultures, the tone, style, culture elements, and unique characteristics of the original language cannot be completely represented in the target language. Translators always risk inappropriate spill-over of source-language usage into the target-language translation. It is a kind of semantic loss. Semantic loss is not a kind of translation mistake, but unavoidable in translation. The occurring of semantic loss in translation weakens the right of the language to be fully expressed. Thus the phenomenon language right weakening occurs. Therefore, this paper, through analyzing the characteristics of Cantonese, a southern dialect in China, which is totally different from English, researches on the phenomenon of language right weakening of the minority language Cantonese with a Cantonese movie as an example, and possible solutions to the problem of language right weakening are concluded.

Although there are many similar vocabularies between Cantonese and Mandarin Chinese, the two languages differs from each other because of pronunciation, grammatical, lexical differences and Sentence structure. Cantonese vocabulary tends to have more historic roots. The language right weakening of Cantonese, through the examples of the English lines of the Cantonese movie *The Infernal Affairs*, are analyzed from four aspects: Metaphors, unique expressions, reiteratives, and rhyming words.

The strategies for compensating the lost information or cultural elements of the source language to realize full equivalence between two languages in translation are free translation, paraphrasing. However, in some cases, the unique features of the source language like the examples listed above are impossible to be fully rendered. Zero translation is a have-to strategy. Therefore, problem language right weakening cannot be solved all the time, although we should try our best to protect the linguistic right of languages.

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Xia He was born in Sichuan, China in 1986. She received his Master's. degree in translation theories and practices from Sichuan University, China in 2009.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Huaiyin Institute of Technology, Jiangsu, China. Her research interests include translation theories and practices.

Metalinguistic and Linguistic Knowledge in Foreign Language Learners

Sepideh Alipour
Jahrom University, Iran

Abstract—This study aimed at providing further insight into the relationship between metalinguistic and linguistic knowledge. Thirty-eight university students took two tests (metalinguistic and linguistic cloze test) in the study. Their tests were analyzed for accuracy. Bivariate correlation and paired sample t-test were conducted. The study has discovered a moderate positive relationship between L2 learners' metalinguistic knowledge and the ability to correct, describe, and explain L2, and their proficiency in L2 by the use of a written test.

Index Terms—metalinguistic awareness, linguistic knowledge, writing

I. INTRODUCTION

It is of the utmost priority, before presenting the analysis of the point at issue, to briefly discuss the several meanings with which the term “metalinguistic knowledge” has been used.

Metalinguistic awareness is defined as one's ability to consciously, think about language and its nature by means of the skills mentioned below: (Roehr, 2007):

1. an awareness that a language is not just the symbols of that language, but it can go beyond the meaning
2. an awareness that the words and their referents are quite separate (meaning is in the language user's mind, not in the words, i.e. Sue is Sue, and I will be the same person even if others call me something else)
3. an awareness that language is rule-based and its structure can be manipulated, you can write things in many different ways.

Metalinguistic knowledge is typically defined as the learners' ability to correct, describe, and explain second language (L2) errors (Roehr, 2007). The famous linguist, Noam Chomsky (1975), has defined the field of metalinguistic as "the subject knowledge of the characteristics and structures of language." Metalinguistic awareness refers to the understanding that language is a system of communication, connected to the rules, and forms the basis for the ability to discuss different ways of using language (Kuile, et al., 2010).

Roehr (2007) pointed out that metalinguistic ability refers primarily to “the possibility of using language above the surface structures, of using language in an abstract way, of thinking deeply it, while making use of it in our understanding and observations”

Metalinguistic is an awareness of the language, its structures and functions that let the speakers of that language to think about and use the language consciously. It consists of the knowledge and awareness of phonemes, syllables, rhyme, and morphology (Andrew, 2004).

A number of studies have examined the relationship between learners' implicit and explicit knowledge (Hulstijn & Hulstijn, 1984). In all of these studies, explicit knowledge is defined as the learners' being able to explain language, its features such as structures and phonemes, while implicit knowledge was operationalized through using these features in oral or written forms of language.

Bialystok (1999) has defined metalinguistic awareness as the ability to attend to and reflect upon the properties of language. Metalinguistic awareness can be defined as the awareness of the features of the language that gives the speakers of that language the ability of not only comprehending or producing utterances, but also checking the linguistic form and structure underlying the meaning of the utterances (Malakoff, 1999).

Metalinguistic knowledge is also defined as learners' explicit knowledge about language (Bialystok, 1999), and linguistic knowledge is defined as the learners' implicit knowledge about language. There are two types of knowledge: explicit and implicit. While implicit knowledge is acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a language by a process which takes place naturally and without conscious attention, explicit knowledge is conscious in the sense that individuals attend to particular aspects of the stimulus and structures (Ellis, 2008).

Metalinguistic knowledge is parallel to explicit knowledge about L2 categories and relations between categories (Roehr, 2007) and the important processes such as proficient manipulation of metalinguistic knowledge defined in this way are analysis of language and creative use of language (Ellis, 2005). Therefore, describing and explaining an error needs the tagging of a linguistic unit and also the connection of this unit with a stored pedagogical structure that explains (an aspect of) its use in phrases, sentences, or connected discourse (Roehr, 2007)

In her 1999 study, Bialystok proposed the idea that metalinguistic awareness involves the operation of *control* as a cognitive process. She defines control as the process of selective attention, the ability to monitor and regulate the

processing of information. It concerns the intentional selection and application of knowledge employed in solving metalinguistic problems.

Grammatical competence is the knowledge in the mind that occurs automatically and is not available to introspection, implicit knowledge that a speaker has about language, and that comes from the distinct but the interrelated unit of the mind associated with the human language faculty (Chomsky, 1975).

L2 proficiency is defined in a limited way as learners' knowledge of L2 grammar and vocabulary, that is, a subcomponent of general language ability (Bachman and Palmer 1996).

The research on metalinguistic presents an asymmetry between linguistic production and linguistic comprehension with comprehension seeming to be easier than production. It is in fact a very well known fact that learners learn to understand structures far earlier than to produce them (Bates, Thal, Finlay, & Clancy, 2002).

The importance of having grammatical awareness is emphasised by many scholars for various reasons. Denham and Lobeck (2002), for instance, state this importance in regard with teachers that many English education textbooks comment on the necessity of teachers being aware of certain essential grammatical structures in order to help students identify patterns of errors.

Metalinguistic awareness is often assessed using tasks of syntactical awareness (Bialystok, 1999). Generally speaking, a metalinguistic task is the one that requires the individuals to reflect on the linguistic features of the language and the linguistic nature of the messages (Malakoff, 1999).

The Importance of Metalinguistic Awareness

Metalinguistic ability in the L2 is often promoted by classroom attention to the formal system of the L2. Metalinguistic awareness allows creative and unique language use that is unseen without such awareness (Malakoff, 1999). Past studies have shown that it is better to improve the metalinguistic awareness of the bilingual children, as the learning of two languages requires the learners to focus on the features of the two languages.

Metalinguistic awareness or explicit, conscious knowledge of form/meaning relationships in a language, usually considered as the ability to express thoughts about language, is one of the best investigated differences between bilinguals and monolinguals (Malakoff, 1999). Previous studies have shown that metalinguistic awareness has a positive correlation with upgraded reading ability in young children (Castles & Coltheart, 2004). Metalinguistic awareness has been found to be closely linked to reading comprehension (Zipke, 2007). It was found that bilinguals have a better ability compared to monolinguals to understand an unknown language, mostly because of their greater metalinguistic awareness.

Knowledge and use of metalanguage is likely to make the development of an L2 learner's metalinguistic awareness easier, that is, 'an improved self-awareness and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language' (Carter, 2003), which can lead to language development (Berry, 2005).

There is considerable evidence (Hu, 2002) that metalinguistic performance plays an important role in learning how to read. Children with deficient or inefficient comprehension and production processes might have to rely on their metalinguistic abilities in order to learn certain aspects of language. Several recent studies have discovered that there is a positive correlation between metalinguistic awareness and L2 proficiency. In a study involving 372 first-year undergraduate students in Hong Kong, Berry (2009) found that the students were, to a great extent, different in their knowledge of 50 items of metalanguage and that this knowledge was considerably correlated with their top grades in English, indicating 'a correlation between knowledge of language and proficiency in English'. Renou (2001) also found consistently significant correlations between metalinguistic awareness and L2 proficiency in a sub-sample of learners being taught French as an L2 through the grammar approach. but such a relationship was missing for the sub-sample being taught the foreign language through a communicative approach.

Some results have indicated that phonological awareness, as part of metalinguistic awareness may play a role in the comprehension of L2 learners. The greater the level of the phonological knowledge, measured by the means of phonological awareness tasks, the greater the level of speech comprehension (White and Ranta, 2002).

The study was guided by two research questions and two hypotheses:

RQ1 What is the relationship between advanced university-level learners' L2 proficiency and their L2 metalinguistic knowledge?

RQ2 Is there a difference between students' performance on metalinguistic test and their performance on linguistic test?

R H1 There is no relationship between students' performance on metalinguistic test and their performance on linguistic test.

R H2 Students' performances on the two tests are to some extent similar.

One of the limitations of the study is that it did not control for the age variable. As Burke and James (2000) state "it is more difficult for older people to retrieve known structures". Maybe different results will be obtained by students at different ages.

Also the study did not control for the level of proficiency and aptitude variable, as White and Ranta (2002) say: 'it is found that performance on metalinguistic Tasks co-varies with levels of L2 proficiency and levels of L2 attitude.

Linguistic knowledge was obtained just from the written measures of second language proficiency, and it is the limitation of the study. Students' performance on oral tests will be different from their performance on written tests.

The findings of the study are about a specific sub-population of L2 learners, that is, university-level language learners who receive form-focused instruction. Therefore, the current findings may not be extended beyond such learners, due to its limitation.

II. METHODOLOGY

L2 learners' L2 proficiency, operationalized as knowledge of L2 grammar in the present study was assessed by means of an open-ended cloze test with 22 gaps to be answered by them. The reason behind using cloze test was to provide learners with context in which language is used. This test included a range of L2 features based on English grammar which were part of university courses.

The construct of L2 metalinguistic knowledge was operationalized by means of a test aimed at measuring learners' ability to correct, describe, and explain selected L2 features. This section had 30 sentences each of which with one underlined error. Learners were asked to correct, describe, and explain the underlined errors.

The L2 features tested in the description/explanation section of the metalanguage test were constructed in a way to match, to the extent possible, the items on the language test. The reason behind this was to find the correlation of the two tests, and if there is any correlation, it will be obtained under optimal condition, parallel tests, in this research.

The L2 features included in the language cloze test and the description/explanation section of the metalanguage test are summarized in Appendix A and Appendix B.

The participants consisted mainly of 40 EFL learners at the university level. 20 were in their first year of study and the remaining was in the second year of their study. This sample is representative of specific EFL learners, rather than general EFL learners.

The metalinguistic test and the language cloze test were administrated with three weeks interval. First the metalinguistic test was administrated and then the language test. The students were tested under the supervision of a superior student. The time allocated for the completion of each test was 45 minutes. Due to learners missing in the linguistic test, just 38 completed the second test, so their metalinguistic test was also deleted from the whole test.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The first research question examined the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge operationalized in terms of ability to correct, describe, and explain L2 errors, and linguistic proficiency operationalized in terms of ability to perform fill-in the blank tests. The first test had a scale between 0 and 30, and the second test had a scale of 0 and 22. But in the statistics they were weighted against scale 30. Bivariate correlation was used to address the relationship between the two constructs. The 2 missing subjects were excluded from all the analysis.

The second question explored the difference between performances on each test. The difference was examined by conducting paired sample t-test and then comparing means of both groups.

Bivariate correlation and paired sample t-test are shown respectively in Table 1, and Table 2.

In order to address RQ1 bivariate correlation was calculated. Table 3 shows that the correlation between the two tests is significant ($\text{sig}=.001$), so null hypothesis is rejected and performance on the two tests is related. But considering its numerical value (.534), this relationship is moderate.

TABLE 1

Correlations			
		metalinguistic_test	linguistic_cloze_test02
metalinguistic_test	Pearson Correlation	1	.534**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	38	38
linguistic_cloze_test02	Pearson Correlation	.534**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	38	38

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

Descriptive statistics for the metalinguistic test and linguistic cloze test demonstrate that linguistic cloze test proved harder for the students than the metalinguistic test. In addition, the linguistic cloze test shows a larger standard deviation than the metalinguistic test. Considering the significance of the paired sample t-test ($\text{sig}=.557$), the second hypothesis is not rejected and students' performances on the two tests are nearly similar.

Paired Samples Test										
		Paired Differences					t	df		
		Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference					
					Lower	Upper				
Pair 1	metalinguistic_test - linguistic_cloze_test 02	.38789	4.25331	.68998	-1.01013	1.78592	.562	37	577.577	0.577

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

With respect to the first question, it was found that in university level learners, metalinguistic knowledge; the ability to correct and explain errors in language; and linguistic knowledge were correlated.

With respect to the second question, the results of the analysis of students' performance on two tests, the ability to correct, describe and explain highlighted errors exceeds, to a small extent, the ability to produce those grammatical points. The reason is that as people get older, in fact it gets more and more difficult to retrieve structures. On the other hand, there seems to be no decrease in the language understanding capacity whatsoever (Burke & James, 2000).

Language production, is also cognitively burdening, as it is a burden on respondents' shoulders to "search within their own mental storage of conscious knowledge about language in order to find the proper metalinguistic features to describe a language item. Similarly some respondents either did not answer or provided incorrect answer for the production test.

A plausible explanation for the relationship between metalinguistic knowledge and second language production is the design of the study. The positive correlation obtained is attributable to the items matched across both tests. Thus, learners who have knowledge of a specific linguistic feature as measured by linguistic cloze test also seem to have explicit knowledge of that feature.

Naturally, correlation just presents covariance and cannot reveal the direction of any cause-effect relationship, so no firm conclusions about the contribution of metalinguistic knowledge to L2 proficiency or vice versa can legitimately be made on the basis of the obtained statistics.

V. IMPLICATIONS

The study urged for the following implication. Given that grammar benefits language learning, helping students to connect their knowledge of grammar to language production (in the forms of production tests, writing) makes learning grammatical structures easier.

Finally, L2 teachers can use metalanguage in a proper way to help L2 learners connect new knowledge of the language with already established materials, materials acquired previously.

APPENDIX A. LINGUISTIC CLOZE TEST

No sooner had we decided not to fix the TV, we found our children behaved as they used to be. Pair of TV shows and game shows were forgotten. After some months neither the older, the younger complained about watching TV. Our older son surprised us by behaving in a more appropriate way than..... in the house.

We decided that we had better..... (break) the TV. By the time they got out of TV, there..... (be) a decline in their spirit. It is not natural to feel like (run) our interests in such a short time, but the children were able to develop other interests. Both registered in a sport club and became professional in a sport game. We feel..... (impatient) for the day to come and to see..... one, their team or their rivals will win the game .

Now, instead of watching TV, we talk about the issues of the day or..... (go) to cinema rather than..... (listen) to other people talk about such matters, and there is a benefit that we can discuss the issues (far). Since that time much free time (be) saved for us.

Most people think that TV is an essential part of their lives, because of their interesting programmes, but it has isolated people from their family and society and (bring) about a sense of loneliness. The idea TV would bring families together is not justified yet. In the short run it is true, but not in the long run that they become accustomed to Tv.

I didn't even notice him. (realistic), it was my daughter, who pulled at my coat and said: "Daddy, that man's cold". "If he had been inside, he..... (get cold)." Although I was in doubt, I made up my mind to help him. I went and talked to him. He suffered from cold and had difficulty (make) himself understood. I took him to the house. The boy..... real name was Micheal said that his parents were..... (economic) and science teachers, and they were killed in an accident and their corpse is not yet found, that he is hoping that one day their corpse (find).

APPENDIX B. METALINGUISTIC TEST

Tick the incorrect answer

- Only about a half a year do the swallows spend time in the surrounding area of the San Juan Capistrano no Mission.
- No sooner had the curtain fallen when the audience jumped up from their seats.
- Those pair of silver bookends that the museum had ordered from a European dealer doing business in Africa, became lost en route to this country.
- The oldest contestant in the hundred-year cash surprised us spectators by running faster than everyone in the area.
- Most people think that wolf is a ferocious beast because of their reputation based on stories and movies; actually it is afraid of people.

- When John died, in 1921, he had written and published 20 nature books and gave America much greater awareness of the wonders and joys in nature.
- The committee is hoping that a concert can be arranged imminently in which the works of Bach will play.
- Psychologists tell us that it is perfectly natural to feel like to run away from our responsibilities once in a while.
- The two teams are palying the championship game next week to see whom, the red team or the blue team, will win the pennent.
- When asked why he was painting a sunset, the man replied that he was paint Sunset because he wanted.
- By the educators introduced reforms in education, there has been a serious decline in achievement in fundamental subjects.
- Feeling impatiently for someone to return and give him an answer, the student paced up and down the hall.
- Neither George Washington or Abraham had ever seen an airpalne fly during his life time.
- The idea which the world may be destroyed by nuclear weapons has raised Qs about justification of their development and use.
- The Dow Jones average indicates the daily average value of stock shares that are purchase and sold through stock exchanges.
- One group was satisfied with the explanation whereas the other group wanted to explore the subject farther.
- Since 1782, the bald eagle, which signifies power and courage, is the national emblem of the united states.
- Sheep are among the most important animals that has been domesticated because they provide food and clothing; moreover, they are used in making other products such as soap and glue.
- Not being able to speak the language of the country which we were visiting, we naturally had difficulty to make ourselves underestod.
- perhaps a little known fact about Twain, which real name was Clemens, was that at one time, hoping to make a fortune, he prospected for gold.
- Although primary a vegetarian, the chimpanzee, a four-foot tall member of the ape family, likes eating meat occasionally.
- The farmer realized that he'd better, if he didn't want to have a total loss, to harvest his crop earlier than usual.
- All the designer had all kinds of samples, but she couldn't make up her mind which one to select.
- According to newspaper advertisements, there appears to be a great need today for economic and science teachers.
- By the time jet could fly at a speed faster than sound, train transportation in the united states was declining over several decades.
- Mrs block is one of the women who, I believe, is running for office in this district.
- Realistic, there seems to be no way of setting the issue of water rights for fisherman to the satisfaction of all.
- Some examinations are exempt from paying income tax; foe example, a welfare organization need not to give money to the Department.
- If the drilling platform had built to withstand the violent storms, it wouldn't have collapsed.
- Don't you think that she would have helped you yesterday if he were able to?

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Sepideh Alipour, has an M.A in English teaching and now is teaching at English institutes and Jahrom University. Her fields of interest are applied linguistics, computer assisted language learning, and ESP.

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

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Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 10 to 15 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

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