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Linguistic and Sociolinguistic Peculiarities of Family Law Legal Terminology

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Abstract—This paper concerns a comprehensive study of the Family Law legal terminology and attempts to determine its communicative role and functions in linguistic, sociolinguistic and socio-cultural aspects. Increased contacts between people, societal changes associated with migration processes, and more frequent mixed marriages have led to dynamic socio-cultural values and changes to traditional cultural stereotypes. In this regard, it is interesting to examine and study the marital and family problems in contemporary intercultural space and legal discourse, the sphere that has not been studied yet in terms of comparative analysis in Georgian, English and French languages.

Index Terms—family law, marriage, socio-cultural values, legal discourse, legal terminology

I. INTRODUCTION

Family law regulates inter-citizen and legal relations in terms of marriage or divorce everywhere, establishes both personal and conjugal rights and obligations; establishes parental rights and responsibilities towards their children and adult children; regulates spouse's post-marital alimony obligations, issues related to children, custody and guardianship. This paper is based on the analysis of Family Law legal terminology in three countries: Georgia, France and the UK.

Family has a long and rich history. Marriage is a union between a man and a woman. It is a voluntary union, a life-long union and cannot be arbitrarily terminated by any of the parties. These three components are viewed as the basis for identifying marriage as a legal institution. In France and the UK, the Church had a great influence on regulating legal aspects of conjugal relations. In Georgia, during the Soviet period, the function of the Church was diminished. The Church became especially influential in XXI century. Nowadays, almost all couples seek to have their union officially recognized and blessed by the Church.

The legal definitions of “family” itself in all three countries are interesting. In the Georgian Law: the family is a historically established system of relations between a husband and a wife, parents and their children, i.e. a small group of individuals, the members of which are related by blood or marriage, share family life, have mutual responsibility, and the importance of which is conditioned by physical and spiritual needs of the population¹. French law defines “family” as follows:

C'est un groupement de personnes qui sont reliés entre elles par un engagement de vie commune ou par la filiation. L'engagement de vie commune, c'est le mariage ou le PACS (pacte civil de solidarité introduit par une loi du 15 novembre 1999 et profondément réformé par la loi du 23 juin 2006)²- This is a group of people, who are interconnected with each other through family ties or kinship. The obligation of living together stems from either marriage or Civil Covenant of Solidarity, which was introduced in France on November 15, 1999, and has significantly changed since June 23, 2006. In the UK, in 2008, the Labour government defined ‘family’ as follows: Families are the bedrock of our society. They nurture children, help to build strength, resilience and moral values in young people, and provide the love and encouragement that helps them lead fulfilling lives. In the UK no legal definition of “family” exists³.

After having analysed the literature related to Family Law, we have identified a number of lexemes related to the concepts of *family* and *marriage*, such as: *civil marriage - mariage civil - სამოქალაქო ქორწინება; marital cohabitation-cohabitation conjugale-ცოლ-ქმრული თანაცხოვრება; registered partnership-partenariat civil enregistré-რეგისტრირებული ქორწინება; civil wedding ceremony-cérémonie de mariage civil- სამოქალაქო ქორწინების ცერემონია.*

¹ <http://www.qwelly.com/group/sociology/forum/topics/ojaxis-cneba>, (accessed 17/6/ 2017).

² <http://www.cours-de-droit.net/definition-de-la-famille-a121609182>, (accessed 17/6/2017).

³ http://catalogue.pearsoned.co.uk/assets/hip/gb/hip_gb_pearsonhighered/samplechapter/1408255529.pdf, p.1, (accessed 15/8/2017).

There are also terms, which denote unregistered partnership, such as: *de facto marriage - mariage de facto - ფაქტობრივი ქორწინება; cohabitation-cohabitation-თანაცხოვრება; live-in partnership-common-law marriage - living together - concubinage-არარეგისტრირებული თანაცხოვრება; consensual union -partenariat hors mariage - თანაცხოვრება ქორწინების გარეშე*

We have identified terms, which denote partnership between the representatives of the same sex, such as: *same-sex cohabitation - communaut é de m êne sexe-ერთსქესიანთა თანაცხოვრება; homosexual partnership - partenariat homosexuel-ჰომოსექსუალთა პარტნიორობა; same-sex marriage-mariage homosexuel-ჰომოსექსუალთა ქორწინება*.

Hence, social phenomena expressed in the above-mentioned terms clearly show the full picture of modern family-building models. As a result of the social changes, new legislative acts are being introduced to regulate the established actual family relationships via bypassing official marriage. Though, it should be noted, that we have identified clear differences as a result of comparing the Family Laws of the three countries. Same-sex marriages are prohibited in Georgia, but are permitted in France though only in the form of civil unions and same-sex couples are not allowed to adopt children. As for the UK, same-sex marriages can be blessed by the church.

Same-sex marriages served as a foundation for the introduction of new terms in the Family Law of France. Nowadays *Family* and *Marriage* are being considered separately. New lexical units appear in the legal language, some of which are being introduced through acts and some of them continue to function in common language and in the legal language. First of all, this situation can be explained by the fact that the legislation that reflects family-centred legal relations sometimes fails to catch up with and immediately reflect the changes this field undergoes with respect to societal development.

II. METHODOLOGY

Methods that are to be used in this study are a descriptive method, as well as a deductive method, while providing examples chosen from the research material in order to consolidate the arguments and theory developed during the study; as we consider it important to identify and highlight the similarities and differences that exist in the three languages. In addition the methods such as structural-semantic analysis, comparison and contrast; interdisciplinary and intercultural studies are used, which in turn are of great help in developing correct theories and making appropriate conclusions.

III. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Terms and expressions used in the Family Law can basically be divided into 4 groups:

1. Terms and expressions which are used to refer to persons in family law. For example: *adulteress - femme adult ère - ცოლ-ქმრული ერთგულების დამრღვევი ქალი; wife - épouse - მეუღლე ქალი; husband - mari - ქმარი, child - enfant - ბავშვი, etc.;*

2. Terms and expressions which are used to refer to the property relations between spouses. For example: *original asset (property) - la fortune initiale - ქორწინებამდე არსებული ქონება; fixed or capital assets, property rights of spouses - droit de propri é des époux - ცოლ-ქმრის ქონებრივი უფლება; acquests -acquets - ცოლ-ქმრის საერთო ქონება, etc.;*

3. Terms and expressions which belong solely to the field of Family Law. For example: *spouses - époux - მეუღლეები; civil marriage-mariage civil-სამოქალაქო ქორწინება; bigamy-bigamie- ორცოლიანობა; a religious marriage- mariage religieux- საეკლესიო ქორწინება; nullity of marriage - nullité du mariage - ქორწინების ანულორება; adultery - une adult ère - ცოლ-ქმრული ღალატი, etc.;*

4. Terms and expressions borrowed from different spheres of Law, which have acquired definite meanings in Family Law, in our case these terms belong to Labour Law and Inheritance Law. For example: *spouses' obligation to cooperate-obligation de coopération du conjoint-მეუღლის თანამშრომლობის ვალდებულება; right of women to lead the family -droit de la femme de diriger la famille-ქალის უფლება წარუძღვეს ოჯახს; degree of relationship - degré de parent é - ნათესაობის ხარისხი, etc.;*

Structures of the terms used in the field of Family Law are quite interesting. Relatively older terms use simpler words. Though, terms consisting of two or three words, prepositional phrases used as nouns, as well as structures that use a combination of adjectives and nouns are used in all three languages considered.

Majority of the terms belonging to the field of Family Law and denoting *family* and *family relations* are the terms that consist of single words in all three languages considered. Though, we frequently come across compound terms which consist of two or more than two words. The three languages use word formations, affix-based word-formations, compounds or composite nominals, terms using prepositions and adjectives, word families. Examples of root words are: *wife - femme -ცოლი; husband - mari - ქმარი; child - enfant - ბავშვი*; Examples of terms that are formed through combining two words are: *wedding contract -contrat de mariage-საქორწინო კონტრაქტი; matrimonial regime -*

régime matrimonial - ცოლ-ქმარს შორის ქონებრივი ურთიერთობის რეჟიმი; *common property* - *propriété commune* - საერთო ქონება.

As a result of the analysis conducted by us, we identified some groups of words, which participate in the word-formation process; these groups are listed below:

1. Terms, which contain prepositional phrases used as nouns: for example: *დედობის აღიარება* - *recognition of motherhood* - *reconnaissance de maternité*; *განქორწინების შედეგები* - *consequences of divorce* - *conséquences du divorce*; *სასამართლოში გამოძახება განქორწინებისათვის* - *divorce notification* - *assignation en divorce*, etc.;

2. Terms, which are formed by combining nouns and adjectives; for example: *ბავშვის აღიარება მამის მიერ მშობიარობამდე* - *prenatal (paternal) recognition* - *la reconnaissance paternelle prénatale*; *ბავშვზე უარის თქმა* - *parental neglect* - *le déaissement parental*; *გენეტიკური კოდი* - *genetic code* - *code génétique*; *კანონიერი ბავშვი* - *legitimate child* - *enfant légitime*; *მამობის პრეზუმფცია* - *presumption of paternity* - *la présomption de paternité*; *სამოქალაქო ქორწინება* - *civil marriage* - *mariage civil*; *ცოლ-ქმრული ერთგულება* - *marital fidelity* - *la fidélité conjugale*, etc. English and French terms are much the same, but we cannot say the same when we compare these terms with their Georgian equivalents. A single term, which has the same structure in all the three languages considered, is the term *გენეტიკური კოდი* [genetikuri codi], the reason is that the term in Georgian language is formed using words borrowed from a foreign language.

3. English and French languages have some identical terms, such as: *testament* - *testament*; *apatride* – *apatride*; *divorce* – *divorce*; *cohabitation* - *cohabitation*; *simple adoption* - *adoption simple*; *conception* - *conception*. The term *apatride* is formed using a word borrowed from a foreign language, therefore, the term in the three languages sound identical.

4. Identical terms with different spelling. Some terms in English and French languages are identical but they are spelled differently and these terms are also pronounced differently; for example: *bigamy* - *bigamie*; *separation* - *séparation*; *emancipation* - *émancipation*; *lesbian* - *lesbienne*; *polygamy* - *polygamie*; *testator* - *testateur*; *pederasty* - *pédérastie*; *pederast* - *pédéraste*; *incest* - *inceste*; *paedophilia* - *pédophilie*; *procreation* - *procréation*; *adoptive parents* - *parents adoptifs*; *putative marriage* - *mariage putatif*; *subsequent marriage* - *mariage subséquent*; *reconciliation* - *réconciliation*; *mediation* - *médiation*; *adultery* - *adultère*; *artificial insemination* - *insémination artificielle*; *remarriage* - *le remariage*; *the homosexual* - *l'homosexuel*; *post-nuptial contract* - *contrat post-nuptial*. In the Georgian language the terms such as *ბიგამია* [bigamia], *პოლიგამია* [polygamia], are borrowed terms, though their equivalents exist in the Georgian language: *ორცოლიანობა* [bigamy], *მრავალცოლიანობა* [polygamy]. It should be noted that English and French terms are almost identical; the difference is revealed in the position of adjectives with regard to nouns. Pre-position of adjectives is common in the English language, while post-position of adjectives is common in the French language, which is due to the specificities of the languages compared.

5. Terms which are formed through verb-noun combinations; for example: *განქორწინების შედეგების მორიგებით მოგვარება* - *amicable divorce* - *régler les conséquences du divorce à l'amiable*; *კანონიერი შვილის ყოლის აღიარება* - *possession of the status of a legitimate child* - *avoir la possession d'état d'enfant légitime*; *ორივე მხარის დანაშაულის და პრეტენზიის გამოხატვა* - *statement of guilt and claims of both parties* - *énoncer les torts et griefs des parties*; *მეუღლის გვარის გამოყენების უფლების დაკარგვა* - *deprivation of the right of using the spouse's surname* - *perdre l'usage du nom du conjoint*; *სავგარეულო ქონების გაზრდა* - *increase ancestral property* - *faire fructifier son patrimoine*.

6. Abbreviations, such as: *ლგბტ* - *LGBT* - *LGBT* in the French and English languages are formed by abbreviating the same words and therefore are absolutely similar, whereas the abbreviation in the Georgian language was borrowed from the English language. We have to highlight the abbreviation - *PACS* – in the French language, which is the abbreviation that is well-known to everyone in France, and it stands for *Pacte civil de solidarité* – a contractual form of civil union between two adults. The abbreviation does not have an equivalent in the Georgian language. The English equivalent of *PACS* is *civil partnership agreements*. It should be noted that the abbreviation served as the basis for formation of different adjectives in the French language - *pacsé*; *pacsable*; *pacsage*; as well as for the formation of verbs, such as: *pacser*; *se pacser*. It can be said that a word family was formed by adding suffixes to the abbreviation.

7. “False friends of the translator”. According to K. Djachy and M. Jashi (2003): “There is not translation but speech. The minimal unit' of translation is a sentence. Word-for-word translations should be avoided. Words that are phonetically similar in two languages are like traps for translators especially for beginners; these words are called *false friends of the translator*” (Djachy & Jashi, 2003, p.7). Translators are well aware of the term and the phenomenon or concept it stands for: phonetically similar words that have different meanings in different languages. For example: a French term *mariage blanc* literally meaning a *white marriage* is translated as *fictitious marriage*, whereas in English language there exists a term *white wedding*, which is translated as the marriage through the Church, when a bride is wearing a white dress.

8. Specific terms. In English and French languages there are terms which are characteristics of only these languages. For example: *შოტლანდიური ქორწინება* [Scottish marriage] - *Gretna-Green marriage*, meaning a marriage, which

is registered based on the consent of the couple only. Scotland used to be a popular wedding destination for runaway couples from England. This phenomenon is not common among French and can be translated as follows: *mariage à Gretna Green*, though it might not be quite understandable without further explanations. The term - *mariage à l'anglaise* – which can be literary translated as *English wedding* - in the French language means a kind of marriage when a couple live in their own part of the apartment. This term does not have an equivalent in the English language and needs to be explained. One more example of this type of specific terms is: *თავისუფალი ქორწინება* - *open marriage* - *mariage libre*. The English equivalent of the term has an adjective *open*, whereas in the French equivalent, the adjective *libre* – meaning *free* – is used. Usage of different adjectives in the term is worth considering, in order to avoid interference.

9. Structures having different syntagmas. There are concepts which are expressed in one word in the English language but use two or more words in the French language. For example: the relationship between family members – *the filiation* - *le lien de filiation*, though, the single word *filiation* can be used in the French language as well; *best man* - *t'énoin*; *affidavit* - *déclaration sur l'honneur*.

10. Words borrowed from the French language: *fiancé fiancée* - *fiancé fiancée*; in this case the French words maintain not only the French spelling but also the French pronunciation.

It should be noted that Family Law both in the English and French languages have a term which denotes *სექსუალური განათლება* [*seksualuri ganatleba*]: *sexual education* in the English language and *éducation sexuelle* in the French language, which is not taken into account in the Georgian Family Law. We strongly believe that this is a big mistake, as neglecting the issue affects the lives of the society, and particularly the lives of the young generation. Providing young people with the appropriate knowledge in this sphere will form a basis for multiple positive changes in our society.

Thus, the structure and the general characteristics of the Family Law terminology is defined on the one hand by intra-system factors – determining specific characteristics of common law as well as family law terminology, on the other hand the dynamics of interaction between these characteristics are influenced by extra-linguistic factors associated with developmental peculiarities of socio-cultural situations in the institute of Family and family relations, in the respective societies of the three countries considered. Linguistic literature defines terms as words with strictly defined meanings, which differ from the words in the common language which are characterized by polysemanticism. However, this criterion is controversial in relation to some legal terms, as there are terms which are polysemantic. Interpretation of these terms in the course of intercultural communication depends on a set of linguistic and extra linguistic factors, which can result in different versions of their translation. Searching for adequate ways of translation and considering polysemantic nature of the terms in the legal discourse is of crucial importance in the course of intercultural communication. Analysis conducted in the legal literature demonstrated that one and the same concept can generate different meanings in different contexts, which can impede the proper understanding of a concept. For example: *დანაშაული* [*danashauli*] can have different equivalents in the English and French languages: in the French language: *crime, délit, infraction, forfaiture* – *crimes associated with performance of job responsibilities or obligations; delict, crime, abuse of power, infraction, official malfeasance, malfeasance in office*; In order to distinguish between high crimes and misdemeanours, the term *დელოქტი* [*delikti*] has been introduced in the Georgian language. Though, the specificity of the term should be considered in the process of translation. In case the variety of the terms did not impede the proper understanding, there would be no need for the standardization of legal terminology. It should also be noted that those synonyms can be found in the family law terminology. There are absolute as well as partial synonyms; and according to the functional characteristics, there are ideographic and stylistic synonyms.

When studying the Family Law terminology in the three languages, from the viewpoint of the intercultural perspectives, special focus is on socio-cultural context associated with the development of the legal relations; for example: *საქორწინო ასაკი* - *marriageable age* - *âge légal du mariage, l'âge de nubilité*. Marriageable age in Georgia i.e. the minimum age at which a person - a man or a woman - is allowed by law to marry is 18 years. Though, with the consent of parents a person is allowed to marry at the age of 16. Marriageable age in the UK and in France is 18. In Georgia, even if the parents are against their children's marriage, because of their age, the court may consider granting consent to register a marriage under certain circumstances. There exists an exact equivalent of premarital agreement in the English and French languages: *wedding contract* – in the English language, and *contrat de mariage* – in the French language. Premarital agreement is mandatory in the UK and France. In Georgia, future spouses are not required to sign this kind of agreement but they can sign an agreement, which regulates their property rights and liabilities during the marriage and in case of the divorce. It should be noted that the practice of signing a wedding contract is not common in Georgia and as a result many people, particularly women are insecure in case of divorce and do not receive any property if the couple do not have children.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Multiple amendments have been made to the civil codes, inter alia to the Family Laws of the three countries since their introduction. The Civil Code of Georgia is the one of the three which has been amended not long ago. These amendments have been reflected in the language of legal documents. Changes of public opinion and of the attitude of

Family Law towards this or that issue are inevitably followed by changes in the language concerned. Studying cultural and historical changes in the course of the development of a legal language and diachronic-comparative or contrastive analysis of legal texts allow us to identify and describe the linguistic facts of Family Law of all three countries, which reveal the interrelation between linguistic and socio-cultural aspects in the course of studying legal terminology. We would like to substantiate the above mentioned based on the two examples given below:

1. Axiological aspect of the reflection of the legal norms in the language. Social norms which include Family Law norms, function as pragmatic attitudes, the nonexistence of these norms makes it impossible to explain social values and to understand the impact of certain cultural-historical connotations on the means of legal norms. English term - *illegitimate child*, and its equivalent in the French language - *enfant illégitime* - can serve as an example to substantiate the above mentioned. Georgian Law does not discriminate between children in this respect, which makes the Family Law of Georgia different from the Family Laws of France and the UK.

2. Explaining the development of family relations in the legal language. The term father's care has been replaced by the term parent's care.

In France, in 1804, Napoleon developed a concept, according to which authority in a family belonged to fathers, as they were supposed to be household heads, assuming the responsibilities and functions of authority figures for the household members. A husband was an authority figure in the family, responsible for protecting his wife and a wife was supposed to obey her husband. A family should have a house and the wife was required to live together with her husband. The Civil Code reflected the habits established in Paris. Certain though limited progress was detectable in the Civil Code of France in this regard: daughters were obliged to obey their fathers exactly as it was envisaged in the Roman law⁴. Today, both parents care about their children. They share their responsibilities for their children's wellbeing. Parental duties include upbringing their children and providing them with the opportunities to receive education; though it should be noted, that children have some responsibilities as well; their responsibilities include caring about their parents, which is not the case quite often. A good example of it is the developments in France in 2003 and 2015. Heat waves killed too many elderly people; they died of dehydration and the majority of them had children of their own. This fact remains as a shameful fact in the history of France.

Family relations have undergone certain changes in the UK as well. Women are no longer dependent on their families. Some analysts believe that since the beginning of the 21st century we have witnessed fundamental changes in the family relations. People tend to get married at older ages than they used to. The Number of marriages has declined. The number of people living together as a couple without being married has increased. The number of divorces has risen dramatically. The number of single parent families has increased. Birth rate has been declining for years. More and more people over 18 are more likely to be living with their parents. In 2006, 58% of men and 39% of women aged 20-24 were still living with their parents. According to the 2009 statistics, more than 7 million people in the UK (12% of the UK total population) live in single-person households⁵.

Georgian Law does not discriminate between the families where children live with both parents and so called single-parent families, where children live with only one parent. From a legal point of view, single parent families appear as a result of unmarried women giving birth to children, as a result of a divorced, when children live with one of the parents, or when children are brought up by widows or widowers. Besides, children and parents living together are considered as a single household, but if a child does not live with one of his/her parents (in case the parent is alive and the parenthood has been legally established), the child and the parent are not considered as members of a single household, instead their relations are that of kinship type and the patterns of relations characterized by a whole set of rights and obligations (alimony, inheritance, etc.) arising out of this kinship prevail between them (Chikvashvili, 2004, p.53).

After having discussed the developments, the terminology and terms that are used to denote the above mentioned concepts and relations are of special interest: *მამობა - paternity - paternité; მშობლის ზრუნვა - parental care-soin du parent; მოკრძალებული შიში მშობლის მიმართ - respect and gratitude towards ascendants - crainte et respect envers un ascendant; მამობის პრეზუმაცია - presumption of paternity - la présomption de paternité; მშობლის ავტორიტეტის მფლობელი - the holder of parental authority - le détenteur de l'autorité parentale; მშობლის ავტორიტეტის სრული ან ნაწილობრივი გადაცემა - total or partial delegation of parental authority - la délégation totale ou partielle de l'exercice de l'autorité parentale; მშობლების ორი გვარის გადამბა - parents two names joined - deux noms accolés des parents; მეურვე - trustee, guardian - tuteur (trice), curateur (trice); მეურვეობა - guardianship - curatelle, tutelle.*

Legal terminology of Family Law in spoken and written languages has the function characteristic of general terminology. The phrases used in all three languages denote certain concepts. From this point of view, they have nominative function. Though, it should be noted that the function is characteristic of majority of words in general language.

In this regard, V. Danilenko (1977) and R. Kobrin (1969) suggest that it is more appropriate to talk about a common nominative-definitive function of terms (Danilenko, 1977, p.7-8; Kobrin, 1969, p. 63). The definitive function of terms

⁴ <http://www.cours-de-droit.net/histoire-du-droit-de-la-famille-c27647228>, (accessed 11/10/2017).

⁵ http://catalogue.pearsoned.co.uk/assets/hip/gb/hip_gb_pearsonhighered/samplechapter/1408255529.pdf, p.51, (accessed 28/10/2017).

allow us to distinguish one object from another, as a definition helps define the scientific concept, in spite of the fact that some terms, including Family Law terms, do not have a single definition. A good example of this is the definition of *Family*.

The reach of the concept of *family* depends on the legal basis the term is used in, as well as on the attitude of certain lawyers towards the issue concerned; moreover, because same-sex cohabitation and marriage, in the UK and France, have completely changed the definition of the term ‘family’.

The situation in Georgia is different and the term *family* is still understood and defined in its original, traditional sense, i.e. a typical modern Georgian family is based on a marriage involving a romantic relationship and equality between family members, which guarantee the strength of a Georgian family. This attitude stems from a set of historically established universal elements characteristic of a Georgian family, such as: a serious approach to the issue of starting a family; close, multilateral and traditional ties between parents and their children and other members of the family; a strong sense of kinship; a special care for the young generation. Marriage is a union between a man and a woman, i.e. between representatives of different sexes. Until recently the definition raised no questions. Sexual relations between persons of the same sex - as an element of human culture - have been known from ancient times; though, legal recognition of unions between individuals representing the same sex is a recent phenomenon, which has become increasingly common during the past few decades in a number of countries, such as: Denmark, Norway, Sweden, France. The issue is a subject of fierce discussion in scientific literature and in many countries, as these countries’ legislations do not recognize legitimacy of these unions and are against introduction of legislation allowing same-sex marriage (Chikvashvili, 2004, p. 50).

A term has a significative function. The significative function of a term means that it is capable of expressing a concept. We think that not all terms are capable of expressing concepts equally. It will be more appropriate to talk about the function of a term, since there is a special concept behind every term. If a term expresses a scientific concept, it should accurately determine its boundaries. Thus the definitive function of the term is raised again.

S. Grinev (1993) suggests identification of the gnoseological function of the term, which is of complex nature. The gnoseological function, first of all, implies heuristic function, a function of acquiring new knowledge, methodological, diagnostic function (Grinev, 1993, p.216). The above mentioned example indicates that, apart from legitimate family relations, there is a new form of family relationship that is formed on the basis of relations between a man and a woman, which is stable and is a kind of marriage in its essence. The fact that the term has been entered in the vocabularies of the English and French languages demonstrates that such form of *marriage* is allowed in the UK and France. Family Law has been developed and enriched this way. A systemized function of the term is that it belongs to the sphere of Family Law.

It can be assumed that lawmakers in Great Britain and France take into account the existing situation and use different terms to express unregistered unions. For example: *cohabitation, marital cohabitation, conjugal cohabitation, common-law marriage, non-marital relationship, extra-marital cohabitation, cohabiting union, consensual union-cohabitation, union matrimoniale, régime conjugal, communauté conjugale, concubinage, mariage en dérempe, mariage du côté gauche, union de fait, partenariat non matrimonial, situation familiale extra-conjugale, communauté de vie non maritale, vie commune hors du lien du mariage, un pacte de vie non maritale* – ქორწინების გარეშე თანაცხოვრება-all meaning relationship outside marriage. As we can see, sets of synonyms are used in both English and French languages of justice to express the concept.

It should be noted that the gnoseological function implies cognition, which formally defines the level of knowledge on a given object, subject or event. Certain level of knowledge can be found in an encyclopaedic dictionary. The gnoseological function implies a transfer of didactic and informative functions of knowledge. The didactic function of a term implies that the term can be used while teaching the law that deals with family matters and domestic relations.

The informative function implies the expression of the content of definition using relatively brief terms. When the issue of cohabitation is raised, there is an attempt to express the information using one of the abovementioned terms. In Georgian language we have a phrase -დაუქორწინებელი წყვილის თანაცხოვრება - *cohabitation of unmarried couples*. It is not quite a common form of cohabitation in Georgian reality, though it should be noted that such form of cohabitation has become more common among young people in recent times. The concept which in Georgian language is expressed by a single term can be expressed by a whole group of terms in the English and French languages.

The term კოჰაბიტაცია [*cohabitacia*] is used in Georgian language. The French term – *cohabitation* – is a word borrowed from the English language. In this respect we would like to quote Marianne Lederer (2006), saying that “According to the Webster’s Dictionary, *cohabitation* means ‘living together as a husband and a wife’. In March 1993, BBC interpreted this term literally and used it to refer to the President of France François Mitterrand and Prime Minister Édouard Balladur: “The problem is the power-sharing, which the French call cohabitation, since for them everything partakes in the pleasures of the flesh, even in politics”[...]. It is the fact that the British accuse the French of being too fond of love affairs, but using the French term *cohabitation* in its English meaning was an exaggeration (Lederer, 2006, p. 214-215).

In the Georgian language the term კოჰაბიტაცია is used only in the field of politics and has no bearing on conjugal relations or on cohabitation of unmarried couples. The problem related to the description of a term, which helps give cultural information, is quite common and well-known. E. Vereshchagin and V. Kostomarov (2005) were the first

scientists to give a theoretically founded thesis on the background characteristics of the terminological vocabulary (Vereshchagin & Kostomarov, 2005, p.94-97). They suggested that the category "lexical concept" and "lexical background" refers to not only the common language, but also to terms.

As a result of the analysis of terms, they found out that majority of terms form part of the common language and therefore, they behave like normal words (Vereshchagin, Kostomarov, 2005, p. 95). In order to further elaborate the thesis we developed a method of analysis of the background characteristics of the legal terminology.

The term *ქორწინება* [qortsineba] in the Georgian language and its English equivalent *marriage*, as well as its French equivalent *mariage*, taken from Family Law, can be analysed as an example. The term implies a concept that is recognized by the Law as well as by the Church and means a voluntary relationship between a man and a woman. Some sets of words are associated with this term, such as: *ქორწინება (ვაქტობრივი)* - *valid marriage-mariage valable*; *ქორწინება (უკანონო)* - *void marriage-mariage nul*; *ქორწინება (ძალადობითი)* - *forced marriage - mariage forc é*; *ქორწინება (გარიგებით)* - *arranged marriage - mariage arrang é*; *ქორწინება (ვინმეს ჯიბრით)* - *spite marriage - mariage de dépit*; *ქორწინება (ანგარებით)* - *marriage of convenience - mariage de convenance, mariage de raison*; *ქორწინება (თავისუფალი)* - *open marriage - mariage libre*; *ქორწინების გარეშე თანაცხოვრება* - *common-law marriage - concubinage, mariage en d'árempe, mariage du c'á é gauche*.

Thus, the word *marriage* has been entered as a common word into the general language of all the three languages. When used as part of the general language, the term does not have the characteristics which are important for a marriage from a legal point of view (temporary characterization, a basis for marriage - marriage contract and marriage form and procedures).

We have already explained the concept behind the term *marriage* from a legal point of view. Apart from differences, there are some important similarities between the word and the term, which implies the legally recognized relationship between a woman and a man. Therefore, the word and the term are of equal value from the viewpoint of semantics: both have a concept and a background; though the content and background of the word significantly differs from the content and background of the term (Vereshchagin & Kostomarov, 2005, p. 96).

Terms are divided into two lexicological groups according to their origin: terminologized (the creation of terms by taking general language words already in existence in the language and matching them to source terms denoting foreign concepts) and of terminological origin (terms that enter the general language as words). Terminologized vocabulary units, as a rule, maintain their vital inner form and their figurativeness, as well as the cultural and historical associations characteristic to the original word (Vereshchagin & Kostomarov, 2005, p. 96).

For example the English and French languages use an identical legal terms - *filiation* - *filiation* - to express or denote kin relations. In the French language there is another term *parent é* which maintains its association with neutral usage in the general language. For example: *la filiation des sens des mots* — development of the meanings of words; *la filiation des id ées* — development of ideas; *la filiation des évenements* — sequence of events; *filiations* from a common stock — a branch of a particular language; *filiation* - branch, department.

Vocabulary of terminological origin also has a national and cultural semantics. Certainly, most terms developed within a certain field of science do not exceed the boundaries of that particular field. Despite this fact, growing level of education of the native speakers of a language facilitated the introduction of this vocabulary into the general language; so that the words maintain their "terminological" semantics and develop secondary lexical meanings (Vereshchagin & Kostomarov, 2005, p. 96).

Family Law in all three languages studied is characterized by a particular feature, namely, while comparing and contrasting legal terminology of the three languages, we came across lacunae, which appear in a language because no equivalents of them can be found in this language. Lacunae are the words or collocations, which cannot be translated into other languages and expressed with a single word or a collocation. Lacunae are translated using free word combinations or explanations. Ethnopsychology (1988) identifies the following types of lacunae (Ethnopsychology, 1988, p.125):

- Linguistic (lexical, stylistic and grammatical). This type of lacunae can be either absolute or partial;
- Cultural lacunae (ethnographic, psychological, associated with a behaviour, i.e., behavioural and kinetic);
- Textual lacunae.

The most numerous and diverse of all linguistic lacunae are lexical lacunae. There is virtually no word, which, in other languages, has as many meanings as in the language it has derived from, or can collocate with as many words as in the language it has derived from. The words characterising the English and French lifestyle represent absolute lacunae in the Georgian language. They can be expressed by free collocations or explanations; otherwise they cannot be correctly understood.

- ლეგატარი* /a person to whom a bequest is left/ - *legatary - légataire*;
- სანდერძო დანაკისრი (ლეგატი)* /bequest/ - *legate - legs*;
- ნათესავები დაღმავალი ხაზით* /descended from a particular ancestor/ - *descending-descendant*;
- ნათესავები აღმავალი ხაზით* /a person from whom another is directly descended/ - *enscending-ascendant*;
- პატარძლის მეგობრები* /members of the bride's party in a wedding/ - *bridesmaid - demoiselle d'honneur*;
- სამკვიდრო წილი* /succession by right of blood; inheritance/ - *heirdom - héritage, succession*;

ქორწინება (შოტლანდიური) /a marriage according to the Scottish rule/ - Gretna-Green marriage - mariage à Gretna-Green

ქორწინება (ინგლისურად) /a marriage according to the English rule, when a couple live in their own part of the apartment/ - mariage à l'anglaise – the term does not have an English equivalent.

შვილება (სრული) - (cutting all ties with the family of origin of the adopted child) – full adoption - l'adoption plénière.

Cultural lacunae are very interesting. In this respect we would like to quote Marianne Lederer (2006), saying that problems related to culture are most frequently cited as the difficulties associated with translation. Certain objects or concepts associated with a particular culture might not have lexical equivalents in the community of a target language. Words related to cloths, food, religious or traditional habits characteristic of a particular culture might not be understandable for the readers of the translated text. The problem is not only finding an appropriate equivalent of a term used in the source language when translating it into the target language, but also knowing how to interpret the implicit idea or concept, the term has in the source language.

Thus, it can be argued that a particular language incapable of depicting the facts and concepts of the given reality, using its vocabulary and structures, can prove to be incapable of interpreting the implicit ideas. That might have been true in case translation had been transcoding⁶. While translating texts it is not the case. The principle of the theory of translation is that a translator should be aware of and have a good knowledge of the “culture” of the people speaking the source language. A bilingual translator represents two cultures, meaning that he/she has a very good knowledge and understanding of the two cultures involved. He/she is able to perceive and understand the reality described in the texts written in two different languages, using his/her own linguistic knowledge and his/her knowledge of objective reality. He/she has the ability to perceive, describe and make others understand a reality not familiar to them. If human had not had an ability to perceive unknown to him/her reality, we would have been deprived of the possibility to acquire broader knowledge which goes beyond the boundaries of acquiring the knowledge of a language and of a meaning.

Any reader can understand foreign literary works, which highlights the universality of a human being. When a literary work describes some habits or traditions, only a few readers can be expected to have the appropriate knowledge to understand the facts related to a foreign culture when the facts are interpreted word-to-word. Finding solutions to the problem related to providing the readers with a minimal but sufficient additional knowledge of the foreign culture, enabling them to gain access to understanding a “foreign” reality, lies with the translator. There is no universal solution to the problem of translating a cultural phenomenon from a source language into a target language. In this case, the relevant solution can be found depending on the function of the excerpt to be translated [...] (Lederer, 2006, p.177-179).

In conclusion, the structure of the general characteristics of the Family Law terminology depends on the internal factors of the system, which define both general and specific characteristics of Family Law terminology, on the one hand, and the dynamics of the interaction between these characteristics, which is due to the influence of the extra-linguistic factors, associated with one another through peculiarities of the development of the socio-cultural environment of family institution and family relations in all three countries, on the other hand. While studying the Family Law terminology of the three languages, socio-cultural context for the development of legal relations plays a special role in the research of the Family Law terminology, from the intercultural perspective. Functional analysis in Family Law terminology of all three countries revealed the existence of nominative, definitional, significative and gnoseological functions of legal terms. While describing peculiarities of the legal terminologies of the three countries, we identified major patterns of the formation of terms; such as: explicit derivation and implicit derivation, abbreviations, word families, word groups.

Research in the paradigmatic relationship in legal terminology of all three languages enables us to conclude that synonymy, antonymy and polysemy are the phenomena characteristic of Family Laws of all three languages. There are loan terms in the Georgian language. It should be noted that most of the terms in all three languages - about 90% of the terms – are of native origin, and only 10% of the terms are derived from Latin terms, though virtually all of these Latin terms have equivalents in these languages. In the structure of paradigmatic relationship, synonymy can be described either based on the degree of synonymy, i.e. absolute and partial synonyms, or based on the functional characteristics, i.e. ideographic and stylistic synonyms.

Identifying linguistic principles of legal texts, while considering the dynamics of social changes in the legal language, the findings of the studies in the cultural-historical perspectives of the development of the legal language and of comparative analysis of the legal texts, allows to identify and describe linguistic facts characteristic of Family Laws of all three countries, which demonstrate links between the linguistic and socio-cultural aspects in the course of studying legal terminology.

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⁶ Transcoding means substituting words and phrases of the source language by corresponding expressions of the target language.

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The Effectiveness of Using L1 in Second Language Classrooms: A Controversial Issue

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Abstract—This paper aims to uncover the hidden debate about the efficacy and inefficacy of using mother tongue in second language classroom. Teaching English as a second language is not an easy task to be undertaken. There are many approaches that postulate the optimal strategy for better teaching. As such, numerous researchers in the fields of language teaching and learning hold a belief that the use of L1 in L2 classrooms helps to facilitate learning. However, a significant number of researchers contend that the use of L1 in L2 classroom hinders learning and deprives learners from the exposure to the second language. As such, this paper tries to shed light on both views and to give evidence that using L1 in L2 classroom has a negative impact on L2 learners.

Index Terms—mother tongue, second language, language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning English is considered essential by many people, and more particularly by those who want to find better jobs or get a good education. For this reason, many countries all over the world have embraced the English language to be the source of their education as well as the language of the curricula. More importantly, the concept of Anglicisation has dominated education and caused many people to stop using their mother tongue in favour of English, more specifically, in classroom instruction for the purpose of immersion. As such, it is found that in many countries the medium language for teaching subjects such as chemistry, physics, mathematics and others is English. It is essential to discriminate here between teaching other subjects using English as medium and teaching English as a second or a foreign language, which is the core of this paper to investigate (Ferreira, 2011). The view of using English to teach in classrooms is still a hotly debated issue amongst linguists and researchers. This is due to the other belief that the use of the mother tongue is a helpful and useful facilitator for second language learning, English in particular. Furthermore, through observation and by comparing learners in Saudi Arabia who have been exposed to L1 (Arabic) while learning L2 (English) and those who have been exposed to L2 only, it can clearly be seen that the latter group of learners always outdo the former in all skills. Also, it has been found according to Al-Nofaie (2010) that most learners of English in Saudi Arabia were inclined to be taught in the target language (L2) so that they get the feel of and actually practise using the language. In addition, these Saudi learners pointed that the use of Arabic in their classroom should be decreased. This assumption is still not satisfying to be presented to investigate an issue in which the debate is not clearly decisive and the argument about involving L1 or not in L2 classroom is as the tide of ocean. For example, Atkinson (1987) claimed that the mother tongue is considered advantageous for a great number of learners all over the world because it is strongly tied up with learners' preferred strategies of learning. On the other hand, a significant number of linguists (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Levine, 2003; Nation, 2003; Scott & de la Fuente, 2008; Littlewood & Yu, 2009) believe that using the mother tongue in the classroom might hinder second language learning and for this reason it is essential to immerse learners in the second language only.

However, in his inspiring hypothesis of 'comprehensible input', Krashen (1981) argued that the second language should be taught and learned through second language only and the mother tongue should not play a role in this situation. As such, the aim of this paper is to critically shed light on the views of both groups and to find a common ground which might minimise the gap between them and provide evidence upon which a conclusion can be drawn. In other words, this paper will attempt to find an influential answer to the following question: should learners of English as a second or foreign language be exposed to English only or to English and their mother tongue simultaneously?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This part of the paper aims to shed light on the theoretical as well as the empirical studies of those who believe that the L1 is beneficial in teaching the L2 and studies which propose a negative view of the L1 as a hindrance in the teaching of L2. Cook (2001) is considered to be one of the researchers who supported the use of L1 in the L2 classroom. He stated that the L1 equips learners with the language competence they need when the translation method is used. He also argued that even though many teachers work hard to keep their students separated from their mother tongue, students still have a mental link between the two languages. Based on the same logical idea, a new trend of teaching

developed called the Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis (Cummins, 2007; Butzkamm & Caldwell, 2009). This hypothesis suggests that use of the mother tongue by teachers in the classroom is beneficial because, according to this hypothesis, transfer is not always a negative aspect and languages are linguistically interdependent except for a few elements which cannot cause any hindrance in language learning (Jessner & Cenoz, 2000; Bouvy, 2000; Herdina & Jessner, 2002). Furthermore, the mother tongue motivates learners of a second language to be active learners and it saves their time and at the same time shapes their conceptualisation of learning (Ellis, 2008; Turnbull, 2002). This view was confirmed by Cook (2002) who claimed that 'given the appropriate environment, two languages are as normal as two lungs' (p. 23).

Such an assumption is widely accepted by those who still support the use of Grammar Translation Method (GTM) in their second or foreign language teaching classrooms. Furthermore, Eldridge (1996) confirmed that it has not been proved empirically that restricting the use of the mother tongue in the classroom will improve learners' efficiency; for this reason it is considered old-fashioned to not include the mother tongue in classroom instruction (Atkinson, 1987). As a final remark, from a theoretical point of view, the use of the mother tongue in classrooms should not be restricted, and it should be used according to the needs of learners as well as the classroom situation (Atkinson, 1993; Weschler, 1997; Nation, 2003; Norman, 2008).

The use of L1 in the L2 classroom has also been the main focus of a significant number of recent empirical studies (Schweers, 1999; Tang, 2002; Bouangeune, 2009; Kavaliauskiene, 2009; Kovacic & Kirinic 2011; Mahmoudi & Amirhiz, 2011; Carson & Kashihara, 2012; Timor, 2012; Mohebbi & Alavi, 2014) which have shown that using the mother tongue is considered to be a good tool for teaching English. However, other studies have looked at L1 as an obstacle when learning L2 so it should not be used in the classroom. Turnbull (2001), for instance, responded to Cook's view and stated that the use of the mother tongue by the teacher is not beneficial to L2 learners. This was also the view of McDonald (1993) when he argued that the classroom is the only suitable context where learners can be exposed to the L2 and if teachers use the L1, learners will have no opportunity to experience real use of the L2. This is also premised on the assumption that learners of the L2 will be disinclined to practise the L2 in a classroom where teachers are inclined to use the L1 (Ellis, 2008).

In addition, Krashen's 1981 comprehensible input hypothesis is considered to be an influential concept. This hypothesis proposes that the L2 should be taught through the L2 only and any underestimation of this will negatively affect the L2 learners' progress. To illustrate, teaching of L2 should be conducted in L2 not only to explain the rules of the language, but even for the communication between a teacher and his/her students. Aligned with Krashen's view, Swain (1985) proposed the comprehensible output hypothesis which suggests that learners of L2 need more activation of their language in the classroom rather than receiving instruction and rules and, as such, the L2 can help in this activation. This suggests that the L2 should be used extensively in classrooms in order to help learners to have full exposure to the L2 in various contexts (Littlewood & Yu, 2011). Other studies have also shown that it is essential to immerse learners in the L2 rather than using their mother tongue. This can be seen in various recent papers and reviews by (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002; Levine, 2003; Nation, 2003; Scott & de la Fuente, 2008; Littlewood & Yu, 2009) in which the researchers argue that learners of a second language should have exposure to the L2 to obtain the most benefit.

III. DISCUSSION

Scrutinising previous studies shows that the challenging point upon which researchers have based their arguments is whether use of the L1 facilitates or hinders the learning of a second language. This controversy is often discussed and will remain an issue since each group of researchers has evidently provided empirical data to support the view they believe in. In regard to the advocates of using the mother tongue as a facilitator in the L2 classroom, they have developed this view as a result of dissatisfaction with the direct method and in favour of the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) which emerged in the late nineteenth century (Brown, 2000). The purpose of using GTM was to utilize translation as a technique for teaching and this saves teachers as well as learners' time trying to find the meaning of certain problem words in any context and any language that learners exposed to (Esmail, 2015). In this regard, the course of using L1 in class has returned to be influential to be implemented while teaching English as a second language. To support their view they have proposed many reasons that the L1 should be used in the L2 classroom. Culture and identity, for instance, have been taken into account as Schweers (1999) pointed out in the study he conducted on Spanish native speakers who were learning English as a foreign language. Based on the classrooms recording and the questionnaire, he discovered that students found it easier to cope with the L2 teacher if he/she can speak their mother tongue because this indicates how such a teacher appreciates the students' mother tongue. This claim was also found in Nation's (2003) who believed that the mother tongue of students should be respected by their teacher and should never be underestimated in any situation.

Another reason proposed by L1 advocates is that the use of the mother tongue is helpful to eliminate students' anxiety in L2 classrooms. According to Brown (2000), it is known that adult learners are more rigid in learning than children and they are more inclined to be cautious when learning. As such, the use of L1 is essential to minimise language learning anxiety in classrooms (Meyer, 2008). Moreover, Nation (2003) explains that using L2 only in the classroom can be an obstacle which might make learners feel hesitant to use the L2, especially if they are not well equipped with it. This also was discovered by Nunan (1999) who explained that when teachers in China forced their

students to not use their L1 in order to practise the L2, this unfortunately did not help them to either speak their mother tongue or the second language in the classroom.

The final justification, which is considered to be the motivation behind using L1, is that using translation saves time. This is supported by many researchers who suggest that instead of wasting time defining and elaborating on the meaning of certain words to help learners, L1 translation is considered the best alternative (Atkinson, 1987; Brown, 2000; Tudor, 1987; Cook, 2001; Tang). Furthermore, translation is looked at as skills that learners should learn. Ross (2000), notes that translation is now considered to be a key skill in its own right that should be included with the other four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. Thus, it should be implemented in classrooms as a tool for comprehension as well as communication. Such a claim was also made by Mahmoud (2006) who stated that using translation in classrooms assists L2 learning and motivates autonomous learning.

As a final remark on these suggestions, the proponents of L1 usage in classrooms have many other reasons which stress the importance of using L1. However, most of these studies as well as claims cannot be overgeneralized to other contexts where the purpose of learning as well as the context is of learning are different. Teaching English to international students in Australia, America or Britain, for instance, requires multilingual teachers in order to use the L1 of each student who comes from Chinese, Spanish, Arabic, Malaysian, Indonesian, Japanese backgrounds to clarify certain element of the language. This is not impossible, but it is an arduous to be attainable and at the same time will waste time other than to save time.

By contrast, the above-mentioned justifications for the use of L1 in classrooms can be refuted from various perspectives to show that the best way to teach any language is through its components. This rejection rests on the belief of proponents of the direct method who argue that learners should learn the L2 in a similar way to the way they learnt their mother language (Yu, 2000). To illustrate, learners must be exposed to the L2 not only to teach language skills but to be involved in language communication in order to comment, to enquire, to ask and to clarify. As such, the monolingual approach was noted to be the base from which other concepts and beliefs stem (Howatt, 1984).

In line with this, Sharma (2006) argued that the use of L2 only in classrooms stems from the rationale that this exposure assists learners to rapidly learn the language and helps them integrate it in various activities. Under this rationale the learning of the second language is not only to pass certain exam, conversely, the aim is to learn a language for better understanding of other cultures, to live in another country or for instrumental purposes. These purposes indeed necessitate the need to expose these learners into L2 excessively. Arguably, the purpose of learning, the context and the type of learners can influence what method to be appropriate for teaching. In fact, this is true in learning English as a second language and it becomes an essential factor when English is taught as a foreign language, such as in Saudi Arabia to which country the researcher belongs. From my experience as a language lecturer there, using L2 in the classroom is considered more beneficial and helpful for learners to progress in the learning of English. It is essential because the language of the society there is Arabic and the only chance for English learners to practise and to be exposed to the language is in the classroom; thus if the instructor is inclined to use L1, learners will be deprived of the chance of real learning of English especially for those who learn a language as life skill. This observation is supported by Turnbull (2001) who argued that when teachers of L2 depend on L1 as a tool for learning, their learners will have no benefit and this can be seen when such teachers are the only channel of knowledge for these learners. Similarly, Wong (2010) pointed out that learners of English in Hong Kong were observed to prefer English only in the classroom which in turn positively influenced their acquisition of English. In support of this view, Kharma and Hajjaj (1989) conducted an early empirical study using the methods of observation and questionnaire on Arab learners and found that L1 should be avoided when teaching L2 because the goal of teaching L2 is to make learners acquire L2-competence; thus the use of L1 will hinder any progress in achieving this goal. This claim, to some extent, can be true, but if these learners' purpose of learning is to pass the course only, then L1 one is essential to facilitate learning not to hinder it.

Indeed, Cook (2001), who is considered to be amongst the pioneering proponents of L1, once pointed that the use of L1 might posit, in some circumstances, an obstacle to L2 learners' exposure. In this regard, it was noted that those teachers who tended to use L1 (Arabic) in their classrooms neglected teaching the language and tended to teach about the language. This means that instead of involving their learners in classroom activities they became language-centered teachers because they wasted learners' time teaching about English rather than encouraging the learners' to use the language in various activities. Additionally, it can be pointed here that some teachers tend to use L1 excessively in L2 classrooms in order to conceal their weakness and poor proficiency in L2; however, this needs to be proven empirically in further studies to become a tangible argument.

In addition to what has been mentioned above, the advocates of using L2 only in classrooms have postulated more than one reason to reject the use of L1 in classrooms. One of these is that when teachers tend to use the mother tongue as a tool to simplify L2 input, this will tend to become a habit that cannot be changed and this habit will increase to cover most L2 input. This assumption is revealed in the study of Voicu (2012) who claimed that the inclination to use L1 might encourage teachers as well as learners to form a habit for resolving any difficulty. This is also explained by MacDonald (1993) that there is no need for teachers to turn to L1 in order to alleviate difficulty for learners because this can hinder learners' L2 progression.

The foregoing discussion implies that many studies suggest that using L2 (the target language) in classrooms aids the progress and achievement of learners (Turnbull & Arnett, 2002). This indicates that using L2 only is essential to push

learners toward the second language environment as well as culture rather than confining them within the mother tongue.

IV. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Throughout this paper the researcher's aim has been to uncover and investigate the debate about whether a second language should be taught using the mother tongue or without it. A significant number of studies have been presented to trace the history of this debate and examine the evidence used to support both views. Although many studies have shown that using L1 in classrooms is considered a good method to pave the way for learners to acquire a second language, this paper has mentioned many studies which claim that the best way to teach English is through English only and that the mother tongue should be avoided for better results. It can be clearly seen that this will remain a vexed debate amongst linguists, educators and researchers since opinions on this issue waver from one aspect to another and from one educational community to another. This also depends on various factors such as the context of learning, the type of learners, teachers' L2 proficiency, students' purposes of learning the second language and the regulations which are postulated by governments toward teaching foreign languages in general. Thus, it should be taken into account that supporting one view does not mean full rejection of the other since knowledge is believed to be relative.

However, as a point of view which is based on the evaluation of each polar in regard of either using L1 in classroom or not, it can be argued that exposing learners to L2 only is the appropriate teaching method for most of learners and in many contexts. Regardless of learners' purposes to learn English to pass certain level or to have it as a life skill and regardless of the context of learning and teaching, the exposure to L2 only in classroom makes learning profitable, enjoyable and good experience for learners to express their thought in new language.

As a final remark, future researchers should conduct new studies using a longitudinal method and it must be conducted in various contexts in order to compare and contrast their results for better understanding of the new attitudes toward the use of L1 and L2 in classrooms. These attitudes must be obtained from students, teachers, curriculum designers, decision makers and the parents of learners.

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Discrimination between Chinese Localizers *Fujin* and *Pangbian*

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Abstract—This paper discriminates between the tricky Chinese localizers in TCSOL *fujin* (附近) (nearby) and *pangbian* (旁边) (beside; by). Through a comparative analysis, three rules for the choice of them are identified: Use *fujin* rather than *pangbian* when barrier exists, use *fujin* to express spatial relationship and *pangbian* for horizontal relationship, and use both with quantity phrases yet only *fujin* with indefinite quantity phrases. The research is hoped to facilitate the two localizers' acquisition and contribute to the existing inadequate literature in the study of such Chinese localizers.

Index Terms—*Fujin*, *pangbian*, Chinese locative words, Chinese localizers, TCSOL

I. INTRODUCTION

The discrimination of the Chinese locative pair of *fujin* (附近) (nearby) and *pangbian* (旁边) (beside; by) is a tricky point in Teaching Chinese to Students of Other Languages (TCSOL), difficult to explain on the part of the teachers and hard to understand to the students as to the subtle differences between them. Researches on differentiating and analysing the pair are rarely found in China, only two papers being closely related (Wang, 2005; Li, 2012). None is found abroad. Many reference books like *Modern Chinese Eight Hundred Words* (Enlarged Revision) (1999) (*Eight Hundred Words* hereafter) with Shuxiang Lv (1904-1998) as editor-in-chief do not touch the comparison. However, in the TCSOL practices, both locative words are listed in the Glossary for Grade One in the *Teaching Syllabus for College Chinese Majors of Other Languages* (2002) (《高等学校外国留学生汉语言专业教学大纲》) published by Beijing Language and Culture University Press and require the students to master. The Syllabus is still authoritative in China's TCSOL. Considering the high frequency of their appearance and the annoying confusion caused by the two localizers, this paper tries to discriminate between them with a view to facilitating their acquisition and contributing to the existing inadequate literature in the research of such Chinese localizers.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definitions of *Fujin* and *Pangbian*

Only *fu* (附) and *pang* (旁) are listed in *An Unabridged Comprehensive Dictionary* (2009) (《辞海》). The fourth definition for *fu* is “靠近” (close to; near) (p.652), while the first definition for *pang* is “边; 侧” (side; by the side of) (p.1708). In *The Contemporary Chinese Dictionary* (Chinese-English Edition) (2002) (《现代汉语词典》(汉英双语)) (*Chinese Dictionary* hereafter), *fujin* is defined as 1. 靠近某地的(nearby; adjacent; neighbouring); 2. 附近的地方(close by; in the vicinity of) (p.608). *Pangbian* means “左右两边; 靠近的地方(beside; by)” (p.1446). In *Eight Hundred Words*, *pangbian* and *pang* mean the same, “近侧; 附近”(close by; in the vicinity) [My translation], while there is no entry for *fujin* (Lv, 1999, p.424).

It can be seen from the *Chinese Dictionary* and the *Eight Hundred Words* that *fujin* and *pangbian* are very hard to discriminate in meaning. What is more, the latter uses *fujin* to explain *pangbian*, resulting in the misunderstanding that the two locative words are the same.

However, “nearby” in *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary* (6th ed) (2004) (*Oxford Dictionary* hereafter) is defined as *adj.* [usually before noun] near in position; not far away (附近的; 邻近的); *adv.* a short distance from sb/sth; not far away (在附近; 不远) (p.1153). “Beside” is defined as *prep.* next to or at the side of sb/sth (在旁边 (或附近)) (p.143). Difference does exist between the two words, with “beside” stressing “the side of”.

The Chinese localizer “旁边”(pangbian) in itself is a compound spatial word, with “旁”(pang) and “边”(bian). The meaning of bian can help differentiate *fujin* and *pangbian*. When bian is combined with pang in its sixth definition into the compound word *pangbian*, it is defined in the *Chinese Dictionary* as “靠近物体的地方” (place next to a person or thing) and the compound, as “side” (2002, p.112). As to “side”, *Oxford Dictionary* lists 15 general meanings or contexts (GM for short hereafter), among which six considered relevant are given below in Table I.

TABLE I.
SIX CONSIDERED RELEVANT GENERAL MEANINGS OF “SIDE” IN *OXFORD DICTIONARY*

GM No.	GM shortcut	Mng No.	English meaning	Chinese meaning
1	LEFT/RIGHT (左; 右)	1	[C, usually sing.] either of the two halves of a surface, an object or an area that is divided by an imaginary central line	(由想像的中线分出的) 一边, 一侧
		2	[C, usually sing.] a position or an area to the left or right of sth	(事物左方或右方的) 一旁, 一边, 一侧
2	NOT TOP OR BOTTOM (侧面)	3	[C] one of the flat surfaces of sth that is not the top or bottom, front or back	侧面
		4	[C] the upright or sloping surface around sth, but not the top or bottom of it	侧面, 斜面 (某物四周的垂直面或斜面)
3	EDGE (边缘)	5	[C] a part or an area of sth near the edge and away from the middle	边缘; 边
4	OF BODY (身体)	6	[C, usually sing.] either the right or left part of a person's body, from the ARMPIT (= where the arm joins the body) to the hip	侧面; 肋
5	NEAR TO SB/STH (某人/某物的近旁)	7	[sing.] a place or position very near to sb/sth	近旁; 旁边; 身边
8	MATHEMATICS (数学)	10	[C] any of the flat surfaces of a solid object	(立体的) 面
		11	[C] any of the lines that form a flat shape such as a square or triangle	边

(2004, p. 1622)

B. Studies on Locative Words in Modern Chinese

Ningsheng Liu, from Department of Linguistics, University of Colorado, studies how Chinese expresses spatial relationships of objects. He explains how to discriminate between goal objects and reference objects with the help of a series of features accompanying them. As to the acceptability of some sentences and the unacceptability of others, he thinks that it mainly attributes to the Chinese language habits. In speech, people are not inclined to put a nominal component with features of being minor, moving, temporary, simple, unknown, etc. in the place of a sentence for location. He also presents the influences of speech categorization on the acceptability of a sentence. He uses the graphic function of speech for the selection of locative words. Liu referred to *fujin* and *pangbian* in the fourth part of his paper, “Features of Frame of Reference and the Chinese Locative Word System” and puts both words under Class One of the four groups of Basic Chinese Locative Words, which expresses the relative position of objects, laying special emphasis on the description of distance. Liu thinks that “甲在乙附近” (A is near B) and “乙在甲附近” (B is near A) are the same in meaning and the distance between them is not long, that is, proximal. “甲在乙旁边” (A is beside B) just indicates that A is not far from B but they are of horizontal level (Liu, 1994).

Jingmin Fang (1954-2004), a professor from Faculty of Humanities, Matsuyama University, Matsuyama, Ehime Prefecture, Japan, a Director of the Chinese Association of Japan and an editor of *Contemporary Research in Modern Chinese* (《现代中国语研究》), in his paper “Basic Strategies in the Cognitive Process of Chinese Spatial Location Reference” referred to the five structural elements of the location reference he proposed as early as in 1993 and 1997—localizer, narrator, point of view, direction reference point and position reference point. He expounds how to choose the observing point, how to choose horizontal locative words, how to decide on the direction reference point and how to select position reference point (Fang, 1999a). However, he did not mention *fujin* and *pangbian*.

In another paper of the same year, “The Cognitive Structure of Chinese Spatial Location Reference”, Professor Fang exemplifies the five structural elements of the location reference. He explains location reference as a cognitive structure and proposes its structural elements and types. He thinks that the locative words in modern Chinese can be divided into five groups according to the nature of the direction they designate. Of which Group E represents general direction, including *pang* (旁), *jian* (间) (between; among; within a definite time or space), *zhong* (中) (centre; middle), *pangbian*, *fujin*, *zhouwei* (周围) (around), *zhongjian* (中间) (between; among). Professor Fang thinks that *fujin* and *pangbian* represent human recognition of the relative distance between objects, yet he makes no comparative analysis of the two words (Fang, 1999b).

Fang Wang, from Faculty of Arts of Zhengzhou University, Zhengzhou, Henan province, examines *fujin*, *pangbian*, *liangpang* (两旁) (on both sides), *zuoyou* (左右) (on the left and right) and *zhouwei* as short-distance locative words with a view to presenting the cognitive semantical meaning of the five localizers. She agreed with Professor Fang (1999b) in that *fujin* may be in any direction, in the front, in the rear, on the left, or on the right. She adds that *fujin* suggests short range between an object and the reference point, and its semantic features are not ORIENTATION ([-定向]) and POSITION ([+位置]) and SHORT RANGE ([+近距]). *Fujin* and *pangbian* are grouped into one-way short-range locative words, which suggest that an object is at a certain direction position of a reference point. Ms Wang approaches the two localizers from the cognitive perspective in the second part of her paper. She thinks *fujin* and *pangbian* have obvious differences in terms of position reference as follows:

1. The sight lines between the object and the viewer are not the same in distance, which is in agreement with Fang's viewpoint in 1999a. *Fujin* is chosen with a longer sight line and *pangbian* with a shorter one. In some contexts, both can be used. However, in language sense they still have subtle difference in the length of sight line. In general, *pangbian* suggests a relatively shorter distance than *fujin*.

2. *Fujin* can only be used for off-domain reference (域外参照), while *pangbian* can be used for both off-domain and in-domain reference (域内参照). For example, we can say “马路旁边停着几辆小车。(A few cars are parked by the road.)”, while “马路附近停着几辆小车。” is not acceptable.

(Wang, 2005)

Sha Li (2012), a master student from College of Literature, Hebei University, Baoding, Hebei province, discriminates *pangbian*, *fujin* and *zhouwei* in terms of their semantic meanings and usages with the help of 《新法编排汉语词典》 (A New Chinese Dictionary) (compiled by Qizhi Wan et al 万启智等编 published by Xinhua Publishing House in 1985) and Shuxiang Lv's *Eight Hundred Words* (1980). Her conclusion is that the three localizers are the same in suggesting “being not far from the reference point”, and they are different in whether the reference point is clearly indicated and how far away the object is from the reference point and in what direction. This paper is limited to Miss Li's discussion of the first two localizers. As to whether the reference point is clearly indicated, she thinks the two words are similar in that the reference point can be clearly indicated and it is also true the other way round, that is, the reference point is not clearly indicated. As to the distance from the reference point and the direction the object is in, Miss Li thinks that *pangbian* is the nearest and *fujin* is nearer. However, there is no strict rule to discriminate them and in many cases both can be chosen, which is the same as Fang Wang's first difference. Miss Li proposes that only *fujin* can be used with quantity phrases for distance. In terms of range and direction, Miss Li thinks that *pangbian* implies the left or the right side of the object, and has a direction. On the contrary, *fujin* suggests a certain distance away, on a whole piece of successive ground with indistinct direction.

From all the literature discussed above, it is still not easy to clearly distinguish between the two localizers *fujin* and *pangbian*.

III. DISCRIMINATION BETWEEN FUJIN AND PANGBIAN

Judged by Professor Fang's cognitive structure statement of the Chinese spatial location reference in 1999a&b, *fujin* and *pangbian* are localizers since they both have the five structural elements of location reference, belonging to Group E which indicates general direction (1999b), in which there is no need to consider the direction reference point. As for the element narrator, the selection of the two localizers are not affected whether in case of the first person's point of view (自观), the narrator, that is, the third person's point of view (旁观) or the viewpoint of another person other than the person concerned or the narrator in a narrative (他观). As a result, the viewpoint of either the narrator or the person concerned or the another person does not need to be considered. According to Professor Fang, the location reference point is not indispensable. Nevertheless, I think the point, or rather the point at which the reference object exists, is of great importance to the discrimination between *fujin* and *pangbian*.

I think that *fujin* and *pangbian* can be discriminated from the following three aspects.

Use *fujin* rather than *pangbian* when barrier exists

Apart from the distance difference between the reference object and the object itself, whether there exists any barrier in between should be considered.



Figure 1. The effect of difference in sight line distance and barrier existence on the choice of *fujin* and *pangbian*.

In Figure 1, judged by Fang's judging criterion (1999a) that *fujin* is used when the sight line is farther, while *pangbian*, when the sight line is nearer, C and D are near A (C和D都在A的附近) and B is next to A (B在A的旁边). To A, C is nearer than D in sight line. However, it cannot be said that C is next to A because of the existence of B. In this case, I think it is better to divide the compound *pangbian* into *pang* and *bian*. Only when an object is on the side of the reference object and there is no barrier is in between can *pangbian* be used.

Use *fujin* for spatial relationship while *pangbian* for horizontal relationship

In 1994 Ningsheng Liu proposed that “甲在乙旁边 (A is near B)” suggests that A is only a short distance away from B and they are of horizontal relationship. TCSOL teachers for beginners just go as far when explaining the two localizers. However at this point, the students cannot choose the right localizer when doing blank-filling exercises with *fujin* and *pangbian*. They usually have no problems with *pangbian*. Nevertheless, they will be confused sometimes with such sentences:

1. 从北极上空附近看地球呈逆时针，从南极上空看呈顺时针。

(Seen from above the North Pole, the Earth turns anticlockwise; on the contrary, when seen from above the South Pole, it turns clockwise.)

2. 救援队在沉船海域附近展开搜救。

(The rescue team is searching and rescuing over the area where the ship was sunk.)

It is obvious that in such cases distance relationship does not work. There is no fixed collocation ready for memorization. I think we can discriminate them spatially and horizontally. In general, *pangbian* suggests that the object concerned is at any point of the radius of the circle with “O” as the centre around the reference object, which can be any point, a, b or c as shown in Figure 2. Nevertheless, *fujin* is any point on the circle, c or d when defined horizontally. But to be more exact, *fujin* should be any point over the sphere or the spherical surface, that is to say, thinking as with solid geometry in a space when defining *fujin*. In this way, why not *pangbian* but *fujin* is used after 上空 (the sky) is clear. As for the second example, since the rescue team is searching under the sea as well as on the sea, *fujin* rather than *pangbian* should be used to convey the spatial concept, including on the sea and below the sea as well.

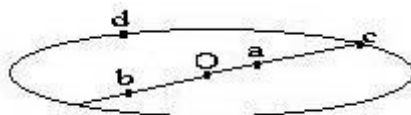


Figure 2. The sketch map of spatial *fujin* and horizontal *pangbian*.

If the object concerned is outside the domain of the reference object and belongs to a different position domain, the reference object can be seen as a point, and *fujin* and *pangbian* can be chosen using the above approach. However, in practice, the reference object is sometimes rather large. When the object is in the domain of the reference object, limited by the distance of the sight line, only *pangbian* is used. This is in accordance with Ms Wang's conclusion that *fujin* can only be used for off-domain reference while *pangbian* can be used for both off-domain and in-domain (Wang, 2005).

Use both with quantity phrases yet only *fujin* with indefinite quantity phrases

Sha Li finds that *fujin* can be used with definite quantity phrases for distance while *pangbian* cannot go with definite quantity phrases for distance. However, I think both localizers can be used with quantity phrases as in the following examples.

1. 山东淄博一化工厂发生爆炸 附近两公里内有震感

(A chemical plant exploded in Shandong, Zibo and the tremors were felt within two kilometres from the epicentre.)

(People's Network (人民网), <http://www.people.com.cn/>, 22:09, 22 Aug 2015)

2. 工棚燃起熊熊大火 旁边 50 米就是加油站

(The builder's sheds burst into flames, and 50 meters away was a gas station.)

(*Yangtse Evening Post* (《扬子晚报》), <http://www.yangtse.com/>, 15 Aug 2016)

Those who pay close attention to financial and economic news can often see such sentences as “大盘在 2600 点附近震荡。(Market shocks in the vicinity of 2600 points.)” or “价格在 2 万元附近波动。(The price fluctuates around 20 thousand yuan.)”. In such cases, *fujin*, used after quantity phrases, suggests “around” (上下、左右). *Pangbian* has no such meaning.

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The Chinese localizers *fujin* and *pangbian* are known as an unavoidable tough confusing locative pair in TCSOL. However, the study of them still has much room. Based on the studies of Jingmin Fang, Ningsheng Liu, Fang Wang and Sha Li, and through differentiating, this paper proposes three rules for the choice of the two localizers in practice: 1. Use *fujin* when barrier exists; 2. Use *fujin* for spatial relationship and *pangbian* for horizontal relationship; and 3. Use both with quantity phrases yet only *fujin* with indefinite quantity phrases.

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Explicit ESL/EFL Reading-writing Connection: An Issue to Explore in ESL/EFL Settings

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Abstract—This paper tries to explore the explicit relationship between reading and writing from ESL/EFL perspectives. The reading-writing connection has long been established in language literacy. Yet, this paper specifically focuses on the usefulness and effectiveness as well as the need for the explicit connection between the two language skills in ESL/EFL settings. It compares between Arabic rhetoric and English rhetoric as two opposite language systems. This paper tries to relate some issues in natural settings in Saudi Arabia in relation to the status of reading and writing in real classrooms and writing teachers' strategies. Finally, the paper explores the composition teachers' role and knowledge in making this explicit connection significant to ESL learners of writing. This paper cites some examples that the author experienced in reading and writing courses when he was an EFL student enrolled in English department.

Index Terms—reading, writing connection, explicit connection, meaning connection, instructional connection, Arabic and English rhetoric, writing motivation, writing teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing constitutes what many people report as the most frustrating skill in language. Unlike speaking, writing doesn't come naturally to human beings (Dobrovolsky, O'Grady). Omaggio (2001) states that writing in a second language is not just a matter of transferring new codes into the second language. Rather it involves mastering several skills. This is based on the assumption that, contrary to the oral language skills, academic language skills should receive teaching and training (Coady, 1993). This shows that writing requires special learning efforts. Additionally, Kroll (2001) says that teaching academic writing for even native speakers of English sounds challenging. However, Silva refers to research studies showing that L2 writers face different kinds of difficulties that have to be acknowledged and emphasized (cited in Kroll, 2001). One important factor that may help ESL/EFL students approach the complex task of writing is to constantly and appropriately use different strategies for writing. Reading for writing represents one of these strategies that learners should use when writing compositions or essays. Reading and writing were never completely removed from English as a Second Language (ESL) curricula. However, during the early 1980s there was a shift toward oral/aural instructional goals and practices. That shift was motivated by learners' need to communicate in the target language (Rabideau, 1993). This paper examines the close relationships between reading and writing and how reading can enhance second language writing. In several cases throughout this paper, I try to relate some issues to my experience as I was an EFL student taking reading and writing courses.

II. THEORIES

Integrating reading with writing is based on the assumption that language is viewed as a whole constituent. The Whole Language Approach argues that writing and reading should be taught together because learning becomes easier. Rigg claims that "if language is not kept whole, it is not language anymore" (as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Although Whole language is a theory for young children, it has been extended to the field of ESL. According to the Whole Language approach, reading and writing complement each other. In other words, language modalities should be taught simultaneously (Ramirez, 1995). This means that students treat language as one continuum. Therefore, they are predisposed to apply what they read to what they write and vice versa. Different research studies show that those who read more, write better.

Composition courses based on the connection between reading and writing were first developed for native English writers. There are numerous textbooks which prepare native English-speaking students to write compositions after they read articles on the same topics. The number of ESL (English as a Second Language) composition textbooks of this nature is comparatively small (Shih, 1986, pp. 635-36). Recently, however, the "reading/writing connection" has also become a buzz phrase in ESL composition pedagogy.

Like Communicative Language Learning, Whole Language focuses on real activities that relate to the students' lives and needs (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Accordingly, learners can use authentic texts in order to develop writing for personal and social purposes. Freeman and Freeman (1989) argue that whole language approach functions on the principle that when learners see a purpose for their activities, learning takes place. Edelsky (1986) calls the product of this kind of writing "authentic writing."

III. THE RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN READING AND WRITING

Reading and writing relate to each other in a number of ways. Although reading mostly involves an intake process of ideas and writing involves the output process, these two language areas have some related connections in classrooms that teachers should be aware of in order to develop more effective instructions. Flahive and Bailey (1993) believe that reading and writing share some common processes that are generally directed toward the creation of meaning. The next section will cover three areas of reading/writing connection: meaning connection, language connection, and instructional connection.

Areas of Reading-Writing Connection

1- Meaning Connection

Meaning, or content, is so essential to reading and writing. Usually writers make meaning by word selection. Readers, similarly, construct meaning by use of knowledge about the language and its words (Savage, 1998). Additionally, writers focus on the main idea of the text, known as the topic sentence. In other words, they place their topic sentence which carries the core meaning of a particular passages or text then provide some supporting ideas for this topic sentence. Actually, this technique is explicitly demonstrated in text books where readers look for the main idea of the text to grasp the meaning and then read for further development of the main sentence.

Teachers' and students' awareness of this connection helps them develop more effective use of the two language skills in a way that they can enhance their writing ability. Also it is crucial to attract the students' attention to this relationship when reading and writing. This relationship is so obvious, yet neglected in classrooms. When I was in my undergraduate study, although English was my major, I had never received this kind of relationship in the classroom because this concept does not exist at all. In a four-year college, I had never been exposed to examine the useful connection between reading and writing although the two language skills were taught but they were entirely separated and taught by two teachers.

Hittleman (1988, p. 28) identifies that thinking processes in reading and writing that create the meaning are closely connected. He further states that "the act of composing text allows students to learn how text work. They learn how to organize information purposes for communicating, and how to address their writing to a particular audience." The focus on the process of reading and writing has been identified crucial to mean connection because. Rubin and Hansen (1984) identify three areas of knowledge that help communicate meaning in both reading and writing (as cited in Savage, 1998).

1. Information knowledge, including topic knowledge and grammatical background that both readers and writers construct (Rubin and Hansen, 1984)

2. Structural knowledge, including the organizational structure or patterns that writers use when writing and reader recognize when reading. Using the appropriate structures helps convey the meaning of a particular text. Similarly readers employ their knowledge of the structural organization to arrive at the intended meaning. This is important for ESL/EFL teachers and students in which they apply this concept in their writing and reading classrooms. This also effectively raises the students' awareness about this relationship. This issue is so essential to ESL students and more essentially to EFL students who really need to observe this kind of relationship in a concrete way.

3. Transactional knowledge, which implies that writing is used as a means of communication between writers and readers. This concept is indeed beneficial to writing students. If truly appreciated, students are likely to care about the meaning when writing. I believe that this is the role of the teachers who should develop this sense of relationship between reading and writing.

2- Language Connection

In addition to the meaning connection, reading and writing are connected through language understanding. Language connection here is referred to language comprehension. As students read and write, they develop competencies about reading and writing and after all their language development become obvious. Kelly (1990) argues that students who read and write about what they read understand better (as cited in Savage 1998).

Writing requires students to attend to specific use of vocabulary. This is a major concern in second language writing. Specific use of vocabulary implies that students understand how to use the language items. In other words, the more students vary their use of vocabulary, the more language competent they are. Similarly, introducing students to different patterns of sentences in reading is likely to increase their level of understanding the language and eventually will influence their writing complexity. What is important here is the teachers' role in creating this relationship by drawing the students' attention to systematic continuum of reading and writing.

3- Instructional Connection

This connection serves for better implementation of the idea of bringing reading and writing together into classrooms. Savage (1998) believes that teaching one skill necessary involves teaching the other. Shanahan (1988) proposes seven instructional principles between reading and writing. Among these seven principles, five principles are related to ESL writing students:

1. Reading and writing need to be taught.
2. The relationships between reading and writing should continuously be emphasized in classrooms.
3. Reading-writing connection should be made explicit.
4. Content and process relationships should be emphasized. Students need to know that meaning is clear and how they make it so.

5. Reading and writing should be taught in a meaningful context.

Although these principles seem to be obvious, none of them was implemented in the four-year college that I attended for my undergraduate study. The focus on reading was primarily on vocabulary building. The process of instructional reading was totally ignored. Writing was not better. I finished all of the four years without knowing anything about the “writing process.” I believe that Shanahan’s instructional principles should be taken as a model for language teaching, especially for designing integrated courses of reading and writing.

IV. FIRST LANGUAGE VS SECOND LANGUAGE SCHEMATA IN WRITING

ESL learners who come from different background may form different images for some concepts that exist in both languages. Marriage, for example, might be viewed differently by people who come from different backgrounds. Arab students might write about marriage from only one point of view, “arranged marriage.” However, this concept may imply “love marriage” which does not exist in the Arab culture. This means that ESL writers should develop specific schema of any topic when they write about it in the target language.

Schema theory is defined as the previously acquired background knowledge structures. Omaggio (2001) states that schema theory basically implies that any given text does not convey any meaning by itself; rather the readers or listeners form the meaning according to how they view the text in terms of their previous background knowledge. This means that previous knowledge will likely influence readers and they process language comprehension.

Thus when ESL/EFL students write about any topic, their ideas, organizations, and structures are likely to follow their first language style. Therefore, reading in SL helps students develop better structural, or organizational schemata that conform to the target language. Reading has an effective role on forming or changing students’ first schemata. McNeil states that text information can affect students to change their schemata (as cited in Noyce & Christie, 1998). For example, if Arabic speakers of English are asked to write about a script of “eating out in American restaurants”, they might not be able to accurately describe American restaurants because, for instance, most American restaurants or hotels have large lobbies which is completely not the case in Saudi Arabia where most restaurants have cozy lounge areas. Yet, having the students read about the target language scripts is predisposed to alter their images and ,hence, start to approach different schemata.

The idea of integrating reading and writing is not new. Krashen (1984) believes that sustained reading results in writing competence. In other words, he argues that reading provides input for writing. Yet, this paper tries to focus mainly on assigning different reading texts to ESL/EFL students as a preparation for writing compositions or essays. This paper comes as a reaction to my experience when I was an undergraduate student in my country where reading and writing were, and unfortunately still, taught as a two-separate field. I very well remembered that the students feel nervous when our professor assigned us to write compositions because students did not know what to write and how they should start writing. Later on, I took a private course about writing and found out different techniques that prompted my writing ability. One of these important techniques was reading for the purpose of writing compositions. This strategy empowered my writing in different ways that clearly relate to the two theories mentioned above, whole language approach and schema theory.

Reading for writing provides models for ESL/EFL students to use for writing. A model is a sample of writing that is used for pedagogical purposes. These models allow low proficient students to increase their critical thinking about the topic they are going to write about. The use of models in ESL/EFL is justified by the formal schemata of most forms of academic and technical writing in English. Formal schema, often known as textual schema, refers to the organizational forms and rhetorical structures of written texts. Reid (1989) believes that ESL students should approach the cultural constraints of the U. S. academic writing assignments.

V. ARABIC RHETORIC VERSUS ENGLISH RHETORIC

The structure of compositions in English differs completely from that in Arabic, for example. In English, composition style follows a consistent structure. An essay has three main parts: an introductory paragraph, a body paragraph (usually two or more paragraphs), and a conclusion. It is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss each part in details. Yet, according to Oshima and Hogue (1991), getting started or writing an introductory paragraph, for instance, is the most difficult part. They pointed out that the introductory paragraph has to have a thesis statement that controls the whole essay and which sometimes is violated by writers. They additionally state that the introduction has four functions:

- It introduces the topic of the essay.
- It gives a general background of the topic
- It often indicates the overall “plan” of the essay.
- It should arouse the reader’s interest of the topic. (p. 101)

ESL students should be provided with reading texts that enable them to develop the sense of formal writing schemata because according to the contrastive rhetoric, different languages imply different rhetorical patterns and different structural organization of the text (Grabe & Kaplan, 1989). Arabic learners of English are supposed to encounter an

explicit difference between their language and English because the two languages indicate clear rhetorical contrasts. Reid (1989) states this rhetorical difference:

.....Arabic is a traditional poetic language that the skill of writing is considered extremely difficult, a skill that only the gifted possess, and that the presentation of written material in Arabic relies on philosophical(abstract) statements-the audience "reads between the lines," drawing conclusion and extending the information. However, U.S. academic prose requires containing a single main idea supported by facts, examples, or description. U.S. students learn to prove it or cut it!" (p.223)

Similarly, Kamel (1989) mentions that the Arabic language differs from English in that Arab writers usually start with a long introduction without stating any statement of thesis. This actually contradicts the writing convention in English which is stated above. Grabe and Kaplan (1989) show that ESL learners can simply approach these differences by reading.

Although I studied English at the college level in Saudi Arabia, my writing ability did not improve as much as it would mirror the intensive courses that I took in language skills in, general, and in writing, in particular. When I finished my undergraduate school, I applied to take the TOEFL. I got satisfactory scores in the all the test sections except in the writing section. Consequently, I took a special writing course and soon realized that I did not follow academic writing. I discovered that I violated many writing rules and organizations. Although I took several writing courses in my undergraduate study, I wouldn't succeed to present an academic piece of writing in the TOEFL Test. Later I realized that previously read text before writing would help to visualize and embody ideas and knowledge into the writing task.

VI. WHAT DOES READING PROVIDE FOR WRITING?

1- Organization

Even within the language itself, writers follow different styles according to the genres of the topic. For example, writing a story differs from writing a problem-solving task. Similarly, the style of writing a comparison between two objects, or between two concepts is expected to be different from writing a technical topic. Noyce and Christie (1998) claim that reading is likely to attract learners' attention to different models of types and styles of writing. They also say that research shows that students' writing competence relate to the types of texts they read.

However, there is an important issue that should be taken into account when using models of writing. Watson (1982) believes that models are useful, yet misleading. He suggests that students are encouraged to treat a model as resource of information and organization, not as an ideal one. This is very important because a writing model is used to facilitate writing as the students explore some models of reading. However, Raimes (1983) provides a good solution to this problem. She states that the problems associated with the use of models may be avoided if the model is viewed not so much as a straitjacket but as a resource for possible ways of organizing information. She further says that "the model becomes not what he should do but only an example of what he could do" (P.127).

Also, reading specifically for writing a composition provides learners with content schema (background knowledge) about the topic they write about. This knowledge is essential for writers because according to Noyce and Christie (1998), "without schema, writers would have nothing to write about" (p.8). It is assumed that good writers follow some writing techniques, or processes that help them activate their prior schemata about the topic of their writing. Yet, ESL/EFL writers are completely different because their prior knowledge most probably relates to their first culture which may contradict with the target culture. Thus reading for writing may enable ESL/EFL writers to compose in terms of the target language point of view. If the reading correlates with their prior schema, it will confirm their prior schema and thus leads to a well-communicative topic. On the other hand, if the reading selection does not conform to the prior knowledge of the writers, this would probably lead the writer to reconsider his/her content and eventually result in building an appropriate schema that correlates with the language used.

2- Content

ESL/EFL learners of writing are recommended to read as much as it may provide them with the necessary information needed to write their essays. Reading in this stage functions as a stimulus for writing. It is crucially important for ESL/EFL writers to enrich their knowledge through reading about their assigned topic. This knowledge is likely to promote the growth of writing. Shih (1986) discusses five approaches of instructing students in content-based writing. One of which, as he called, is "content-based academic writing courses", in which students would read some passages that relate to the topics of their writing assignments. The role of the readings aims to build appropriate schemata and provide students with new information for their writings.

ESL/EFL students come to the classroom with different backgrounds. Students have their own perspectives about the world. Indeed, even students coming from a particular ethnic group might have different perspectives about different values. This cultural variation insists on having students refer to text before they just start writing. Reading in this context helps the students reform their perspective toward the target language. Reading can do this. Reid (1990) believes that good readers are those who selects, read, and respond to texts. Nystrand (1990) argues more that writer's perspectives of the issue might change as they read and search for more information.

Like brainstorming, recollecting, planning, which are some techniques of writing process, reading also can be used as a prewriting process to generate ideas for writing (Noyce and Christie,1998). Similarly, Zamel (1987) emphasizes that

reading represents one strategy of generating ideas in a process approach to writing. Thus, reading in this stage functions as source of information that helps the writers to compose well-contended composition. Moreover, reading about the topic may enrich the writers with some more updated information that they may not have it in their prior knowledge. This is why reading is such a powerful prewriting strategy" (Elder, 1990). Furthermore, this process is predisposed to help the writers understand their topic more and thus help them critically process their writing because reading in this stage will trigger learners' attention to more valuable and recent issues.

3- Vocabulary

Another aspect about reading for writing relates to the vocabulary use that reading provides for ESL/EFL writers. Reading is one of the best strategies for learning vocabulary simply because words are presented in context. This strategy represents a major element for ESL/EFL students who mostly learn vocabulary in isolation. Al-Hazmi (2000) made a research study on Saudi learners and found out that most of the participants suffer a great loss of vocabulary due to learning vocabulary in meaningless situations. Many research studies show that absolute memorization of vocabulary is not always an effective strategy particularly in isolation. According to Robins (1993) words never exist by themselves. Rivers (1968) demonstrated the ineffectiveness of learning vocabulary in isolation. Similarly, Nation (1990) tells us that repetition of words is not helpful for retrieval of these words. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) emphasize that one can memorize vocabulary, but this knowledge cannot be brought into play in real situations or writing.

Having stated the ineffective role of learning vocabulary in isolation, it is now so evident that reading supplies learners with contextualized words which helps them use these words appropriately in writing. This is crucially important for ESL/EFL learners. From my experience as a student and a writing teacher for EFL students, I notice that most of my students do not use specific words in their writings. They just use some general words, which in most cases do not convey the exact meaning. Also, due to the lack of vocabulary bank, they always repeat themselves when they write compositions even if they write different topics. Finally, they most often talk around their ideas and try to explain it because they do not have the precise words that help them express their thoughts directly.

Comparably, when vocabulary items are used as a reaction for writing, it is more likely that they will stay longer than when they are just orally practiced. I once was given an assignment to write about *Lipton*. Since I did not have enough background about this topic, I looked for some articles that may expand my knowledge about it. I came across the word *brew*. I found it interesting and meaningful to use it in my composition. Although, I did not experience this word before and have not used after, I still remember this word in terms of spelling, meaning, and use simply because I processed this word and eventually decoded it into my long-term memory.

Thus, according to cognitive approach, when learners prepare themselves to write through reading, they will be able to turn vocabulary from short-term memory to long-term memory. This happens because they read, encounter words in context, examine these words they want to use, and use them in their writing. Thus they continuously process these words and turn them from declarative knowledge into proceduralized one, which is an essential element for words to be fully understood. If vocabulary items are not appropriately perceived, they may not be appropriately used. employ his or her declarative knowledge of vocabulary appropriately in real situations. Robinson (1993) states that in declarative knowledge, words have particular meanings, and the procedures that learners use decide this declarative knowledge.

4- Motivation

One more point that reading adds to ESL/EFL writers relates to motivation. Noyce and Christie (1998) point out that reading of literature can function as a source of motivation for writing. They also state that reading encourages students to write in several ways. When writers become aware of the topic and expand their schema about it, they are likely to be interested and thus will devote much time for writing. This is very important for ESL/EFL students because writing represents one of the major problems that needs special attention so that learners can get motivated. Zamel (1992) argues that reading should precede writing in a way that provides a system to internalize and act as a stimulus for writing because it provides a subject matter to write about. This is significant change to ESL/EFL students who might find it so hard to choose their area of focus for their compositions.

Staley (1997) strongly argues that reading motivate ESL learners of writing to have passion when engage in writing. He reiterates that although ESL students present fairly enough quantity of writing and grammatically correct pieces of writing, they seem to be missing the important connection between their reading and their role in the world around them. He incorporates "read aloud" strategy where students would listen to the teacher reading a short passage about a particular topic. The writing topic that Staley asked his students to write about was a letter to the president of France regarding their feeling about nuclear testing. Staley posits that the some students were not motivated to write about this letter because it did not seem important to them. However, he brought of a children's book and read aloud a story about Hiroshima bombing in 1945. After attentive listening to the story, the teacher gave them a work sheet where they answered some question related about the topic. Later, he asked them to write the letter to the president about the misfortunes of atomic bombs. Staley pointed out that all the students got motivated to write the letters because according to Staley the students could make a connection between nuclear testing and their own lives. He also suggested that they could form their own opinions about the topic. Therefore, they can easily transfer these feelings into thoughts on papers.

Furthermore, students may develop their independence toward writing after they are exposed to different styles through reading. In other words, within time, as learners read for different organization, sentence types, and stylistic patterns, they are likely to transfer these features to their writing unconsciously. In fact, Johnson (1991) found that while writing, the students make use of the reading passages by extracting the concepts presented, following similar patterns of organization, and developing awareness of writer/reader relationship." This is true because learners follow the same way language is presented to them.

VII. ESL/EFL READING-WRITING TEACHERS

The scope of this paper is limited but its nature and purpose extends out to teachers of ESL/EFL writing. Throughout the whole paper, I was trying to approach the effective side of integrating reading into writing in classrooms. Although the connection between the two skills is not new, especially to L1 students, the case is completely different with L2 students. L2 students' exposure to language, particularly to reading, is not the same as L1 students. Therefore, the reading-writing connection with L1 is hard to be exactly applicable to L2 without specific modifications that meet ESL/EFL natural settings. Students need continuous and intensive reading so that they can bring the reading styles into their writings. However, ESL/EFL student's readings are limited to the least minimum time and chances that enables them practice reading. This inadequate chance doesn't allow them to realize and acquire different stylistic patterns. EFL college students in Saudi Arabia, for instance, beside their English courses, systemically study different courses introduced to them in a totally different language, e.g., Arabic. This, consequently minimizes their exposure to reading English texts. Therefore, the emphasis on explicit reading for writing, or the direct connection between the two skills should be given more attention. What has been mentioned so far in the previous sections relates closely to the importance and merits of this connection based on its advantages and the nature of English rhetoric versus Arabic rhetoric. Additionally, the nature of EFL students interplays in this context. The question, then, becomes how this explicit connection can be presented in composition or writing classrooms. In other words, what do ESL/EFL teachers of writing need in order to bring reading and writing together in classrooms.

Teachers' knowledge of classroom composition:

This section will explore ESL composition knowledge and experience in teaching second language composition with connection to reading and how they can bring together reading and writing to the classrooms. Freeman (1990) believes that the classroom constructions that teachers choose evolve from their individual teaching experiences and beliefs. Freeman (1990), furthermore, argues that teachers structure their classrooms the same way they were taught. More specifically, According to Corbett (1990), a number of college composition teachers who lack professional graduate training are likely to recreate the same models of some teachers who taught them. Therefore, Robinson (1991) blames a group of recently hired teachers staffing composition classroom for not only being untrained in composition but who "never exhibit the slightest knowledge of the books or articles that are shaping our field nor the slightest embarrassment about their ignorance." (as cited in Kroll, 1993)

Kroll (1993) gave an example of a teacher construction of reading-writing classroom. In that context, the teacher gave the students a text of 1,000 words and asked them to read it for the next class. When they met for next class, he asked the students several questions regarding text comprehension. Then, he selected some apparently new vocabulary items and asked the students to guess meaning from context. If the text is full of transitions, citations from sources, or any other features such as exemplary topic sentence, he will call their attention to these basic rhetorical properties of the assigned text. Having discussed the reading tasks, he asks the student to write a first draft in which they give their own opinion about the subject matter or compare the ideas presented in the text with other ideas presented in previous texts.

According to Kroll, this class includes three main instantiations: reading and writing as springboard of a topic to write about; (2) reading to provide background information; and (3) reading to serve as a model for particular stylistic patterns. To my surprise, although these three ways are included in this class, Kroll criticize that none of these ways sufficiently deal with the rhetorical activities. My surprise premises from the fact that none of these three instantiations are used in my college where I took several composition courses and never been exposed to these instantiations. Needless to say that rhetorical activities were never illustrated or highlighted at my undergraduate classes. This situation dictates a necessity that ESL/EFL composition teachers should receive structural composition classroom training. I believe that EFL composition teachers and students, at least to my experience, did not consider rhetorical aspects in their writing classrooms.

Actually, teaching students to write better with the use of reading requires that teacher improve their knowledge of writing and writing teachings. One important aspect that writing teachers should do in order to develop their student's writing is to teach them how to view their own writing as external readers. This issue is so essential to writers and needs special attention and teachers' training. This is very important for three reasons:

- How do students distance themselves from their own writing?
- How do students bring their knowledge to their texts and improve them for subsequent drafts (Kroll, 1993)?
- How do teachers help students treat their own writings as audience?

ESL composition teachers can not provide theoretical and practical answers to these questions unless they receive professional training on writing classroom constructions because according to Raimes (1985), less proficient writers in L1 and L2 experience difficult in imagining themselves as public readers. Skilled writers, on the other hand,

consciously involve themselves in the audience position. To help students understand this issue, writing teachers need to understand what readers need as they read which requires that teachers incorporate the audience's needs into the students' writing for effective connection of reading and writing. The questions remain what types of strategies that writing teachers should employ to bring reading and writing in better relationships. This question needs more research and examination.

VIII. CONCLUSION

This paper serves as a foundation for more studies and empirical research on reading for writing compositions for ESL/EFL students. It is evident that this paper is mainly theoretical because using explicit ESL reading as a part of writing process is still in its infancy. Yet, it calls teachers and students to apply this concept in ESL/EFL writing activities. The main point of this research is to call the attention of L2 students and teachers to the explicit reading and writing relationship and how this relationship may develop ESL writing competence.

While doing this paper, different considerable issues emerged that need further research so that explicit ESL/EFL reading for writing can be more explored. Some of these issues include the role of teachers and students in the classrooms, the amount of reading, the level of reading, the types of reading texts: authentic or pedagogical, and the types of activities of reading for writing. These issues and others must not be overestimated because they represent the practical aspects of this paper which are crucially important for successful implementation of ESL explicit reading to writing connection.

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The Modality System and the Emotional Appeals: An Interpersonal Interpretation of Roosevelt's Speeches

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Abstract—This article takes Franklin D. Roosevelt's four inaugural speeches as objects of study, and mainly uses the modality system in Halliday's systemic functional grammar as theoretical framework. This paper, from a functional-stylistic perspective, tries to investigate the close relationship between the modality system and the interpersonal function, i.e. its emotional appeals to the audience, underlying those typical linguistic markers, hence to uncover Roosevelt's unmatched linguistic competence and speaking techniques. Our study shows that Roosevelt prefers modalization to modulation. As for modulation, obligation covers 18.70% signaling the speaker's degree of pressure on the audience to take positive action, and inclination appears frequently, covering 13.01%, and is mainly realized by finite modal operators or adjectives, showing Roosevelt's willingness to do something for his country and people. Through these sparkling speeches, his wisdom and intelligence, capability and responsibility, prestige and power are fully demonstrated.

Index Terms—Roosevelt's four inaugural speeches, modality system, stylistic effects, emotional appeals

I. INTRODUCTION

Franklin D. Roosevelt was one of the three greatest presidents in American history, who held the presidential post for four terms. His political achievements won his high supporting rate throughout the United States. Particularly, Roosevelt's eloquence receives great reputation all over the world. The countless brilliant speeches in his life helped him climb up the ladder of success. Roosevelt's four online inaugural speeches stand out from his speeches, including his 1933 inaugural address in Great Depression, 1937 inaugural address just after Great Depression, 1941 inaugural address calling for domestic safety and 1945 inaugural address for peace. Through these sparkling speeches, his wisdom and intelligence, capability and responsibility, prestige and power are fully demonstrated. Such Scholars as Campbell and Jamieson (1990), Lemke (1992), Hoyer (1997), and others, have shown an enduring interest in exploring public speech texts and have made some fruitful results. This paper, from a functional-stylistic perspective, tries to investigate the close relationship between the modality system and the interpersonal function, i.e. its emotional appeals to the audience, underlying those typical linguistic markers, hence to uncover Roosevelt's unmatched linguistic competence and speaking techniques.

II. THE MODALITY SYSTEM

Modality is considered as a chief exponent of Interpersonal Function and widely studied. According to Lyons, It was first recognized in traditional modal logic propositions as the notion of necessity and possibility. So, modality in logic is based on the concepts of necessity and possibility and this is typical view of modality that linguists from generally accept.

According to Halliday, modality system is one main way to realize the Interpersonal Function. It is a form of participation of the speaker in the speech event. Halliday defined modality as the intermediate degree between the positive and the negative poles, such as 'sometimes' or 'maybe'. (Halliday, 2000, p. 88) He defines that the first is called modalization, whereas the second is referred as modulation.

A. Modalization

There are two types of modalization: 1) degrees of probability and 2) degrees of usuality. Probability, which means how likely it is to be true, is equivalent to either "yes" or "no", with different degrees of likelihood attached. Some of the basic words to show probability scale are: possible/ probable/ certain. Usuality, which means how frequency it is true, is equivalent to both "yes" and "no", with different degrees of oftenness attached, and some typical words: sometimes/ often/ always.

B. Modulation

There are two kinds of intermediate possibility. So there are two types of modulation. They are degrees of obligation and degrees of inclination, depending on the speech function, whether command or offer. Modulation expresses the speaker's obligation or inclination to exchange goods or services by offering or requiring the listener to offer, or advising both sides to do something. It is the speaker's judgment of the desirability of the proposal.

According to Halliday, it is possible to establish three basic values of modality: high, median and low. (Halliday, 1994, p. 358) Besides, Thompson talks about modality as involving degrees and scales (2000: 59). The speaker may, for example, signal a higher or lower degree of certainty about the validity of a proposition ('it will / may rain'); or a higher or lower degree of pressure on the other person to carry out a command ('you must / should leave'). Values of modality can be arranged in a gradable way from low to high, which can manifest the intensity of the language user's engagement in the negotiation.

Orientation is the basic distinction that determines how modalization and modulation will be realized. It is the subjective and objective or explicit and implicit variables of modality. Probability, usuality, obligation and inclination can all be expressed by the metaphor with the combination of the four orientations. Here are four examples.

- | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------|
| (1) I want her to know it. | Subjective/explicit |
| (2) She should know it. | Subjective/implicit |
| (3) It is likely that he knows it. | Objective/ explicit |
| (4) He probably knows it. | Objective/ implicit |

Both types of modulation can be expressed in two ways. i) by a finite modal operator, e.g. you should do that, I will buy the bag; ii) by an expansion of the predicator such as a passive verb or an adjective, e.g. you are supposed to do it, I am anxious to buy the bag. In a word, modality refers to a speaker's opinion about or attitude towards, the truth of a proposition or desirability of the proposal expressed by a sentence. It extends to their attitude towards the situation or event depicted by a sentence, too.

III. THE MODALITY SYSTEM IN ROOSEVELT'S SPEECHES

A. Modality

Modality, as an independent part of interpersonal function, refers to the speaker's judgments, attitudes or intentions towards a linguistic event. Orientation and value are two variables of modality. Especially values of modality are rated conveniently into three scales: high, median and low. This following section will study them in detail to find different interpersonal meanings.

At first, in order to obtain a comprehensive understanding of modality choices in these addresses, this section makes a quantitative analysis of the modal expressions in the sample addresses. The modal expressions in the four sample addresses are exhibited in the following Table 4.

TABLE 4:
A STATISTICAL TABLE OF ROOSEVELT'S 4 SPEECHES

Modality Type Sample No.	Modalization		Modulation	
	Probability	Usuality	Obligation	Inclination
1	35	1	11	11
2	19	2	5	2
3	8	1	5	0
4	15	3	2	3
Total times	77	7	23	16
Percentage	62.60%	5.69%	18.70%	13.01%

From the statistics, we can see that the respective percentages of probability, usuality, obligation and inclination are 62.60%, 5.69%, 18.70% and 13.01%. Table 4 indicates that the frequency of modalization is 68.29%, more frequently than modulation which only takes up 31.71% of the total. It means that Roosevelt gives more propositions than proposals in these addresses. Thus, it can be concluded that in the four inaugural addresses, what Roosevelt conveys to the hearers more is information, while request and command is relatively less. The layout corresponds with every theme and every historical background of the inaugural addresses. At the time of the first inaugural address (Sample 1), Roosevelt assumed the Presidency during the Great Depression and Roosevelt called on his people to be loyal to his country. He brought hope to Americans and asserted exciting words, "the only thing we have to fear is fear itself." It comes to the second inaugural address (Sample 2) when the United States gets through the Great Depression. Roosevelt calls for Americans to adhere to democracy and inspire good-will in view of moral decadency. As a civilized country, the United States should make every American citizen the subject of his country's interest and concern. Taking the oath of office as President of the United States for the third time (Sample 3), Roosevelt claims that 'in this day the task of the people is to save that Nation and its institutions from disruption from without'. He affirms domestic safety maintained by wealth and clearly warns interruption from abroad. In the face of great perils, he appeals to Americans to perpetuate the integrity of democracy and resort to foreign policy. When making his fourth inaugural address (Sample 4), Roosevelt put great emphasis on peace. He announces that we Americans, together with our allies, shall work and fight for a durable and honorable peace. And he believes that Americans will achieve such a peace because of essential democracy.

In every inaugural address, Roosevelt is mainly concerned with propositions which conveys information about American situation of the day and makes government fundamental policy at different time known to the public. As the highest executive of the country, he hopes to persuade the public to accept and support his policy in a desirable relationship with the audience. Thus, Roosevelt applies fewer proposals, which is the common technique of political speeches serves the multiple purposes of general inaugural addresses.

1. Probability

Expression of probability appears most frequently taking up 62.60% of all the modality in the samples. Probability is mainly realized by finite modal verb operators in our samples. Through the careful study, we find that *will*, *can*, *may* are the most frequent modals in expressing probability. *Will*, *can*, *may* appear 25 times, 28 times and 10 times respectively and their corresponding percentage are 22.32%, 25% and 8.93%.

Let us see some examples:

(1) *This great Nation will endure as it has endured, will revive and will prosper. (Sample 1)*

(2) *In this process evil things formerly accepted will not be so easily condoned. Hard-headedness will not so easily excuse hardheartedness. We are moving toward an era of good feeling. But we realize that there can be no era of good feeling save among men of good will. (Sample 2)*

(3) *The preservation of the spirit and faith of the Nation does, and will furnish the highest justification for every sacrifice that we may make in the cause of national defense. (Sample 3)*

(4) *We can and we will achieve such a peace. (Sample 4)*

All the above four examples are modalized by “will” and they express extents of probability. In (1) Roosevelt gave his audience the encouraging information about what the U.S.A. will be in the future according to his firm confidence or intention on the basis of American history. In his opinion, the great nation America could succeed in getting through hardships in the past. Then, it is the same with America this time. He used the modal operator *will*, a median value probability to modalize this clause. This clause is the implicit subjective. It is equivalent to *Great America is probable to hold the line as it has done, probable to return to normal and to thrive*. In the opening of inaugural address, Roosevelt applied the sentence modalized by three *will* to express his optimism about American future just like every president of the U.S.A. held, which encouraged the audience in the Great Depression and made them regain confidence. The tactic use of three *will* can help the speaker Roosevelt attract the audience from the beginning and make the audience feel more comfortably to accept and support his opinion that based on the most powerful country and the finest democracy style, Americans can conquer the depressing situation at last.

In (2) after Roosevelt’s new policy, the U.S.A. walked out of Great Depression and returned to prosper as Roosevelt expected in 1933. But in the second inaugural addresses in 1937, Roosevelt pointed out that despite economic recovery, a serious moral problem arose day by day. Old individualism still permeated in the current complex civilization. Duller conscience, irresponsibility, and ruthless self-interest already reappear. Roosevelt called on Americans to cling to the spirit of the nation—democracy to change the moral climate of America. Americans should help each other to reach common prosperity. Example (2) is also modalized by *will*, a median value probability, which is equivalent to probably. The clause is equivalent to *In this process evil things formerly accepted is probably hard to be forgiven. Hard-headedness is probably hard to excuse hardheartedness*. Roosevelt created an implicit subjective clause with the use of two *will* to express his judgment about the existence of bad morals. He was warning the hearers that the bad morals were not easily be abandoned. Such symptoms of prosperity may become portents of disaster. We Americans should be on the alert and cultivate good-will to solve the problem. The two *will*, median degree of certainty, leave a room for the audience to disagree his statement. By mitigating his statement, the modalized *will* can help Roosevelt intrude his attitude in a more acceptable manner.

In 1941, Roosevelt focused on military buildup. Faced with the frequent wars, he appealed the whole nation to unite together to defend the great country. Every sacrifice is to protect and to consolidate the integrity of democracy. Example (3) has the orientation of subjectivity and implicitness. In this critical period, Roosevelt used a median modalized expression to build an desirable relationship with the audience so as to mobilize the people. At last, he conveyed his policy successfully.

Example (4) has the orientation of subjective and explicit. The median value probability “*will*” modalizes this clause as *We can and we probably achieve such a peace*. Lyons agrees that *will* can be employed in sentences with an obvious modal use of the “promissive”, in which the speaker puts himself forward as the guarantor, as it were, of the truth or the occurrence of the event he refers to. (Lyons, 1977) That is to say, *will* has the use of showing force of will. In (4) it is obvious to show Roosevelt’s strong feeling. He promised to the audience that Americans had the ability to achieve peace under the leadership of his and his administration.

2. Usuality

Usuality means that how frequently the proposition is true. They include *always/ sometimes/ often/ never/ ever/ seldom/ rarely*. In general, the expression of usuality occurs infrequently in addresses. In our samples, there are few modal adjuncts of modality appearing. The expression of usuality has portion of 5.69% and is realized only by modal adjunct *always* and *sometimes*, which appear three times and three times respectively. Though its infrequency, the expression of usuality can help to reveal the speakers’ judgment and attitude on the linguistic event to some extent. Let’s see the examples:

(5) *In that purpose we have been helped by achievements of mind and spirit. Old truths have been relearned; untruths have been unlearned. We have always known that heedless self-interest was bad morals; we know now that it is bad economics. (Sample 2)*

(6) *Today we reconsecrate our country to long-cherished ideals in a suddenly changed civilization. In every land there are always at work forces that drive men apart and forces that draw men together. (Sample 2)*

(7) *I remember that my old schoolmaster, Dr. Peabody, said, in days that seemed to us then to be secure and untroubled." Things in life will not always run smoothly. Sometimes we will be rising toward the heights---then all will seem to reverse itself and start downward. The great fact to remember is that the trend of civilization itself is forever upward; that a line drawn through the middle of the peaks and the valleys of the centuries always has an upward trend." (Sample 4)*

The above three examples are the few ones containing adjuncts of usuality which function as modality in Roosevelt's inaugural addresses. In Sample 2, Roosevelt claimed that the four-year efforts made the exercise of all power more democratic. The old order of things had been changed. The achievement of mind and spirit of American democracy had built a more enduring structure for the better use of future generations on the old foundations. Only pursuit of personal interest did not do any good to the development of economy and country. America should get a clear understanding of the fact forever. Here, in example (5), *always* means all through past until now. The union of *always* and the present perfect shows that Americans recognize the truth from the past to now that mere self-interest is bad morals. Even in the future, America should comply with the truth. *Always*, a high value adjunct, reflects the high frequency that the proposition is true and contributes to emphasize the force of his statement. At the same time, the modal adjunct *always* makes Roosevelt's attitude very clear that America won't be manipulated by bad economics.

Similarly, in example (6), the use of *always* affirms the high frequency of the proposition that in any nation, there exist such forces alienating people or uniting people. Based on the objective statement, Roosevelt brought up his expectation that in their seeking for economic and political progress as a nation, they should go up together, or else, they all go down, as one people. He employed the high value adjunct to stress his objectivity of his statement so as to make the audience easier to accept his analysis. With the objective fact, Roosevelt called on the whole nation to bind together. So the use of *always* helps to underline the enforcement of his expectation.

In the fourth inaugural address, Roosevelt aimed at expressing his own viewpoint by quoting his old schoolmaster's remarks skillfully. He believed that life was impossible to go successfully all the time. It was very likely that we came across failure just after we gained success. However, the trend of civilization was upward forever. In example (7), the first *always* is united with "not". The negative meaning of a high value adjunct decreases the frequency that things in life will run smoothly. This collocation reflects the rationality of the statement. *Sometimes* means now and then or on some occasions. It is a low value adjunct. The use of *sometimes* does not deny the probability of success but advance blandly the possibility of failure. The speaker expressed his evaluation at the time of speaking so that he would not hurt the audience's feelings in order that the audience was more prone to accept this fact. The second *always* highlights the proposition that the trend of civilization itself is forever upward. It is helpful to lay stress on the force of the speaker's belief. The alternate collocation of high value adjunct *always* and low value adjunct *sometimes* reveals the speaker's judgment and attitude on the linguistic level. Roosevelt selected these remarks in his inaugural address not only to speak up his great belief in American essential democracy but also to attract audience's attention, inspire audience to run after democracy and peace and push the address to a new high.

B. Modulation

1. Obligation

From the statistics above, it can be seen that the expression of obligation covers 18.70% of the total. The application of such expressions signals the speaker's degree of pressure on the audience to take positive action. In the four samples, they are mainly expressed by finite modal operators *must*, *should* and *have to*. *Must*, *need*, *should* and *have to* appear 8 times, once, once and once respectively and their corresponding percentage are 14.29%, 0.89%, 0.89% and 0.89%. For examples:

(8) *Finally, in our progress toward a resumption of work we require two safeguards against a return of the evils of the old order; there must be a strict supervision of all banking and credits and investments; there must be an end to speculation with other people's money, and there must be provision for an adequate but sound currency. (Sample 1)*

(9) *To do this we knew that we must find practical controls over blind economic forces and blindly selfish men. (Sample 2)*

(10) *We know that we still have far to go; that we must more greatly build the security and the opportunity and the knowledge of every citizen, in the measure justified by the resources and the capacity of the land. (Sample 3)*

(11) *We may make mistakes--- but they must never be mistakes which result from faintness of heart or abandonment of moral principle. (Sample 4)*

All the above 4 examples are modulated, and they express degrees of obligation. They are modulated by *must*, a high value modal, meaning required to. During the Great Depression, Roosevelt encouraged the whole nation with his toughness and optimism that the bleak situation was temporary and several measures could help America recover. But there were some indispensable conditions. He employed three *must* in example (8) to give these suggestion. Example (8) is equivalent to *There are required to be a strict supervision ...there are required to be an end to speculation ...there are*

required to be offer for ... Three *must* show high desirability of the proposals. In the modulated process, Roosevelt's attitude is enforced on the audience in an objective and implicit way, which influence the audience's opinion and action. By giving an irresistible suggestion with high value modal *must*, he was trying to convince the people that only when American politics are requested to make necessary changes at once, America were able to recover from depression.

In the second inaugural address, Roosevelt gave credit for American exciting recovery from Great Depression and spoke high of him, his party and the entire nation. Nevertheless, he observed some worrying social issue that conflict exists between the individual and the ever-rising problems of a complex civilization. So in the opening of the inaugural address, he raised an irresistible command that to do this we knew that we were required to find practical controls over blind economic forces and blindly selfish men. Roosevelt used one *must* to attach weight to the conflict and urge the audience to take positive action to solve the issue. This command in example (9) was the request to his administration as well as the hope to all the Americans. The high value obligation lays a tone of great urgency for the following address.

As for example (10), by using high value modal *must*, Roosevelt commanded subjectively and explicitly his administration to take efficient and quick measures to improve people's living standard and environment. The modulated clause reflects Roosevelt's determination and obligation and presidential power absolutely.

In Sample 4, Roosevelt pronounced that America should achieve an honorable and durable peace. He admitted objectively that in the process, making mistakes was understandable and ordinary. But these mistakes were restricted to be the result of faintness of heart or abandonment of moral principle. Here, he united the high value obligation *must* with never to play a strongly emphatic role in example (10). While reminding the audience of this point, Roosevelt succeeded deepening the force of his judgment to the audience objectively and implicitly.

When analyzing *must*, we need to take "should, have to, need" into consideration. *Should*, *have to* and *need* all only appear once but have degrees of obligation, which expresses various interpersonal functions and strong emotional appeals.

2. Inclination

Inclination means in what degree the speaker is willing to offer. In our samples, expression of inclination appears frequently, covering 13.01%. Roosevelt aims to emphasize his willingness to do something for his country and people. Generally, they are mainly realized by finite modal operators or adjectives. In the samples, they are mostly realized by modal operator *shall* appearing twenty times and only three passive verbs or adjectives are used.

(12) *There are the lines of attack. I shall presently urge upon a new Congress in special session detailed measures for their fulfillment, and I shall seek the immediate assistance of the several States. (Sample 1)*

(13) *While this duty rests upon me I shall do my utmost to speak their purpose and to do their will. (Sample 2)*

(14) *We shall strive for perfection. We shall not achieve it immediately--- but we still shall strive. (Sample 4)*

Examples (12) and (13) are modulated and express degrees of inclination. In Sample 1, Roosevelt thought that in the resumption of work, there were possible to be various blocks. Example (12) uses two *shall* to express median inclination of such a determination that he was sure to fulfill the presidential duty to impel Congress to take positive action and ask States to offer help in an explicit and subjective way. The modulated clause is equivalent to *I am determined to urge on a new Congress at once ... and I am determined to seek ...* Similarly, example (13) has the orientation of explicit and subjective and it is modulated by *shall*, a median value inclination. It is equivalent to *I am determined to do my utmost to speak their purpose ...* At the end of inaugural address, like other presidents, Roosevelt put great emphasis on his strong willingness to do everything for his country and people. In the two examples, *shall* reflects Roosevelt's heavy sense of responsibility for America and Americans. The use of modal *shall* also strengthens the support and confidence from the audience and the whole national people.

In addition, according to Sample (4), we know Roosevelt claimed that the purpose of war was to achieve perfect peace at home and abroad. He had great confidence in Americans' capability of gaining peace. With careful study, example (14) might be special sentences, for there are three *shall* and all *shall* do not express inclination. The first and third *shall* are modulation and the second *shall* is modalization. The sentences means *We have determined to strive for perfection. We are probable not to achieve it at once --- but we are determined to strive.* Obviously, The first and third *shall* show the unshakable determination of his, his party and contemporary Americans to fight for peace. Although the road was uneven, Americans still stuck to it. Here, modal operator *shall* is a median value inclination. And the second *shall* is a median value probability, which is equal to be probable. It reflects the objectivity that there exist difficulties during obtaining peace. This kind of alternate application helps tactfully Roosevelt to convey his willingness on validation basis in order to encourage and inspire the whole nation to strive for peace and stand for his policy.

Interpersonal Metaphor does good to improve dynamically the emotional interaction between the speaker and the audience.

IV. CONCLUSION

Franklin D. Roosevelt was one of the three greatest presidents in American history, who held the presidential post for four terms. His political achievements won his high supporting rate throughout the United States. This article takes Franklin D. Roosevelt's four inaugural speeches as objects of study, and mainly uses the modality system in Halliday's systemic functional grammar as theoretical framework. Our study shows that Roosevelt prefers modalization to

modulation, which takes up 68.29% and 31.71% respectively. It shows that Roosevelt gives more propositions than proposals in these addresses, and what Roosevelt conveys to the hearers more is information, while request and command is relatively less. In terms of usuality, there are few modal adjuncts of modality taking up only 5.69% and is realized only by modal adjunct *always* and *sometimes*. As for modulation, obligation covers 18.70% signaling the speaker's degree of pressure on the audience to take positive action, and inclination appears frequently, covering 13.01%, and is mainly realized by finite modal operators or adjectives, showing Roosevelt's willingness to do something for his country and people. Through these sparkling speeches, his wisdom and intelligence, capability and responsibility, prestige and power are fully demonstrated.

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Critical Discourse Analysis of News Discourse

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Abstract—News discourse is one of main analysis subjects of critical discourse analysis. People can know the opinions implied by the author and grasp the real situation of the events described in the discourse by critical discourse analysis. Furthermore, it is beneficial for the audience to establish the critical awareness of News discourse and enhance the ability to critically analyze news discourse. Based on the discussion of the concept of news discourse and critical discourse analysis, the theoretical foundations and steps of critical discourse analysis, the paper illustrates the method of the critical analysis of news discourse. The author also puts forward issues that needed to pay attention to in order to improve the ability of news discourse analysis.

Index Terms—news discourse, critical discourse analysis, method, emphases

Critical discourse analysis can provide some guidance for the analysis of news discourse. Knowing the theoretical basis and analytical method of critical discourse analysis is beneficial to understand the actual situation of the events described in the news discourse and the implicit ideological content in news discourse. The paper explores the elements and the steps of the critical discourse analysis of news discourse.

I. THE CONCEPT OF NEWS DISCOURSE AND CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

A. *The Concept of News Discourse*

News discourse, a vital field of linguistic research, is always seen as an objective and formal linguistic form of discourse. However, the definition of news is rather elusive. Linguistic scholars and journalists have given different versions to define it, but no one has been generally accepted in the world up to now.

News must be something extraordinary and particular enough to attract the public's attention, just as the classic comment, "When a dog bites a man, which is not news, because it happens so often. But if a man bites a dog, it's news." (Rule and Anderson, 2003)

According to Ekstrom (2002), news is "reliable, neutral and current factual information that is important and valuable for citizens in democracy" (p.259). Fowler (1991) holds that "News is not a natural phenomenon emerging straight from 'reality', but a product. It is produced by an industry, shaped by the relations between the media and other industries, by the bureaucratic and economic structure of that industry, and most importantly by relations with government and with other political organizations." (p.223)

Even if there is no a common accepted definition of news, all the above-mentioned versions are mutually complementary. In order to facilitate the study of the paper, the author borrows from various versions of news. News is the information that is published in newspaper, broadcasted on radio, played on television, and reported on the Internet about the current events taking place in a particular area or in the country or in the world. It plays an important role in modern society and becomes a window that people acquire knowledge about the world by virtue of its advantages such as timeliness and objectivity, etc. Information provided by the news reports has the function of leading the public. In the official news reports, due to the influence of factors such as value orientation, there is the ideological content hidden in discourse, which usually tends to be misunderstood by the audience.

B. *The Concept of Critical Discourse Analysis*

Critical discourse analysis is a field that is concerned with studying and analyzing written and spoken texts to reveal the discursive sources of power, dominance, inequality and bias. It examines how these discursive sources are maintained and reproduced within specific social, political and historical contexts (Van Dijk, 1998). In a similar vein, Fairclough (1995) defines critical discourse analysis as:

Discourse analysis which aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power; and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society is itself a factor securing power and hegemony (p.135).

Ruth Wodak (2000) defines it as "an interdisciplinary approach to language study with a critical point of view" for the purpose of studying "language behavior in natural speech situations of social relevance." (p.264)

In short, critical discourse analysis aims at making transparent the connections between discourse practices, social practices, and social structures, connections that might be opaque to the layperson. Linguists advocate that the use of stylistic analysis techniques traditionally employed in the literary discourse for the analysis of the non-literary discourse. Therefore, critical linguistics put their stress on the interactions that exist in the discourse and the social structure. Wu

Hongyan (2008) said: "The abilities to appreciate and criticize the language use can be improved by means of the critical analysis of the public discourse. So that they can better deal with the increasing involvement of language in social life nowadays." said Wu Hongyan. (p.332)

II. THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

A. *The Linguistic Foundations of Critical Discourse Analysis*

The linguistic bases of critical discourse analysis include the discourse analysis theory of the Foucault School and British-American School. Critical discourse analysis firstly obtains relevant theoretical basis from Critical Linguistics. Besides, it draws on Halliday's analytic method, which includes systemic-functional linguistics and the content of regarding language regarded as social semiotics.

With the development of critical linguistics, critical discourse analysis gains new understanding from the post-structuralism linguistics, that is, language and discourse are not neutral or overt means. Both of them are not only closed related to knowledge and the social relationships, but also play important roles in constructing and embodying human beings' social behaviors and identities. Post-structuralism linguists claim that knowledge people all have is from the discourse. In other words, history and culture often is the collection of the discourse. Meanwhile, it studies the dialectical relationships between discourse and power, that is, the discourse can embody power. Conversely, power is realized by the discourse, and it controls and influences the discourse. Therefore, the discourse or the text is closely related to power. Post-structuralist discourse theory has important implication for critical discourse analysis, that is, discourse is historical and specific, and its underlying meaning changes with conditions such as time, circumstance, etc. Critical discourse analysis refers to Foucault's social opinions about the discourse, and develops the viewpoints on one-way construction, including the discourse not only can reflect the social reality, but also influence the construction of the reality. So it is believed that discourse analysis not only can reveal the social reality accurately, but also is helpful to construct the social reality.

In addition, systemic-functional grammar has an impact on critical discourse analysis. Halliday (2001) suggests that social culture's aspects constitute the building of the social realistic meaning from the perspectives of sociology and anthropology. Moreover, he (1994) believes that language has three functions, including the ideational function, the textual function and the interpersonal function. Besides, both of the discourse genre and the language choice are closely related to the register of language use, and the structure, field, tenor, and mode of the discourse subscribe to its social purposes. (Halliday, 2001) In the framework of the systemic-functional grammar, language is closely related to the social structure and the social cultural background, etc. The reason why Language form is mainly determined by its social functions should be revealed from the perspective of the discourse's social communicative function. Remarkably, Post-critical discourse analysis theory suggests that language is a kind of the social practice to some extent, and the discourse is not only regarded as the form of language, but also crystallized as the social practice. In essence, critical discourse analysis studies the society from the linguistic level, and it connects the language analysis with the society analysis.

Obviously, the language views of critical discourse analysis do not conflict with the language view of systemic-functional linguistics in the matter of language having the social functions. There are two keys to both of them. Firstly, the functional linguists affirm that language has the social functions. Moreover, the language analysis not only can reveal accurately what the features of language are, but also uncover the process of people choose language according to their needs. In conclusion, Critical discourse analysis majorly emphasizes the discourse's social functions aspect. "Because the discourse and the society are interstructive, the aims of the language analysis are to reveal the interstructive relationships, the underlying power relationships and unequal relationships in the discourse." (Wei Xinxin, 2010, p.164)

B. *The Literary Criticism Foundations of Critical Discourse Analysis*

Critical linguists draw on the method of regarding literary discourse as the research subject. In the filed of western stylistic research, stylists pay attention to study the specific process of the discourse generation and the relationship between the discourse and the social and historical context of the discourse. Therefore, the basic task of literary criticism is to exam the operation process of language in the social and historical context.

Critical discourse analysis borrows from M Bakhtin's (1963) research method that he puts his stress on analyzing the dialogicality of the dis course. In other words, he emphasizes the intertextuality analysis. It refers to the different relationships such as synergies and constraints generated from different discourse in the process of the small discourse forming the large discourse. These relationships have various effects on other discourse. Naturally, discourse is influenced by a variety of genre that already existed. The author of the discourse usually creates new idea by reconstructing the different form of genre, which affects the social and cultural structures and promote the change of society effectively. Critical discourse analysis borrows from the above concept, and further puts forward the important forms of the discourse power struggle: intertextuality and dialogicality. Different texts are interwoven into the text through discourse, the meaning of the text is completed by the negotiation of the multiple coexistence discourse in the text. Therefore, the aims of uncovering the implicit power relationships and unequal relationships in the discourse can be achieved by analyzing the dialogicality and intertextuality of the discourse.

III. THE STEPS OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF NEWS DISCOURSE

It is believed that we should pay attention to the practicality when we analyze the news discourse by critical discourse analysis. Because critical discourse analysis is limited by the world views and thoughts and feelings, etc. So it is difficult to analyze the specific discourse. Meanwhile, critical discourse analysis usually causes different levels of ideology analysis when we analyze the news discourse by it. In the framework of critical discourse analysis, it highlights its practicality when we analyze the news discourse. So we should do several things to help the audience to analyze the news discourse. For example, we need to seek or design some objective and practical analysis methods. Besides, we should list some relevant structures and combinations that may contain or be used to express meanings. Meanwhile, critical discourse analysis of news discourse is supported by the critical linguistics, including systemic-functional linguistics and transformation-generative grammar, etc. From the above, we suggest that we should start the critical discourse analysis of news discourse by means of the following steps.

Firstly, we should analyze structure features of the news discourse. Meanwhile, we need pay attention to connect the techniques or processes that occur in the discourse generation. For example, we analyze the news discourse that employs lots of passive structures and gerunds. It is reasonable for us to regard them as passivization or nominalization, because the generative process of the two kinds of discourse is fully reflected in the news discourse. Secondly, we need to demonstrate these basic techniques or processes are relevant to the meaning of ideology in the process of generation or understanding of the news discourse that we analyze. For example, the specific process has the functions of the social and the historical phenomenon in the news context. Lastly, we should pay attention to demonstrate the social functions of ideology hidden behind the language structure and processes, which can intervene in a social process such as maintaining a kind of power relationship, etc.

IV. THE EXAMPLE OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF NEWS DISCOURSE

With the development of the study of the critical discourse analysis, the news discourse has received more and more attentions as an important area of critical discourse analysis. Nowadays, the English news discourse influences the public opinion in the world every day, because the English mass media is increasingly penetrating into all aspects of the international community. News is not absolutely objective and fair, a lot of news discourse appears to be objective and fair, but they contain ideological content, which have a subtle effect on the audience.

After the bullet train crash occurred on July 23, 2011 in Wenzhou, there were various reports on the railway traffic accident both at home and abroad. The American mainstream media always claims that its news is objective and fair, but that is not the case. The paper takes a report on the railway traffic accident of the New York Times as an example to conduct the critical discourse analysis of news discourse.

A. *The Lexical Choice of News Discourse*

The reporter establishes the social relationships between people in news discourse by lexical choice. That is, lexical choice is significant for news discourse analysis. For example, Nominalization refers to the addresser expresses his or her meaning by employing the noun or noun phrase instead of the verb structure or sentences. It can create a impersonal effect by deleting the modal part, blurring the concept of time, and dissimulating the participants of the process or the causality, etc. Besides, passivization has functions of covering cause-effect relation and providing the convenience to the actor. In the following, we will study the lexical choice by analyzing the nominalization and passivization of news discourse in the following.

(1) The government's only explanation for Saturday's accident has been that a lightning strike disabled equipment.

(2) Immediately after the accident the government dismissed three more railway officials without explanation, and announced a thorough investigation into its cause.

In example (1) and (2), we can see that "explanation" is the noun form of "explain", the reporter blurs the subject, time and degree of "explain" by employing "explanation". The information conveyed for the audience is not comprehensive. Therefore, It is likely that they understand China government's explanation for the accident unilaterally.

(3) A railway communications officer, identified only as Mr. Liu, told the BeiJing Times that after the accident, he was sent to check the communications system of the first train.

(4) In China, a torrent of public criticism continued Tuesday, with bloggers and citizens asking why the government was not more forth coming about the cause of the crash, why parts of the wreckage were buried at the site and why a toddler was found alive in the wreck even after railway authorities had sad there were no further signs of life.

In example (3), action of "send" originally can be expressed in the active form. However, the reporter uses the passive form, which conceals the action and the executor of "send". So the reporter omits the main information to convey the message that there was someone to investigate the accident, which affects the objectivity of the fact. Therefore, we can see that the western media influences the public in a subtle way. From example (4), the use of the passive voice "buried" obscures the time and the indicator of the action, which leads to the audiences to assume that the burial was directed by the Chinese government. Besides, the subject of the passive voice "was found" is "toddler" that is highlighted as the subject, which expresses the cruelty of the accident indirectly. Meanwhile, it also implies the wrong information that the Chinese government does not value human rights. This also is the distortion of the image of China.

B. *The Practice Level of News Discourse*

News discourse can fully reflect reality and its objectivity by employing the reported speech. It includes direct speech and indirect speech. Direct speech refers to the information that derives from the party, the insider and the authority. It has the function of enhancing the authority of news discourse. However, indirect speech is paraphrased by the quoter. Due to the reporters' different attitudes and understanding of the original work, they express their different positions and views in the process of paraphrase. We analyze the news discourse by studying its reported speech in the following.

(5) "There appear to have been some irregularities in the high-speed rail program," said Richard DiaBona, a transportation specialist at LLA Consultancy in Hongkong. "Maybe this was corruption or substandard work, or perhaps things were put into place too fast"

(6) "This is extremely rare," said Vukan R. Vuchic, a rail expert at the University of Pennsylvania. "I have never heard of lightning doing that, but if it did, everything else would stop too. And the signal system should keep trains at a safe distance.

In example (5), we can know that the reporter wants to indicate his attitude toward the accident indirectly by quoting an authoritative expert's utterance directly. Naturally, he is able to achieve his aim of controlling reader's mind. Meanwhile, in example (6), the reporter quotes the discourse of a railway expert at Pennsylvania University, which reveals contempt for China. The reported speech has a preconceived effect on the audience. This is the manifestation of the western mainstream media's ideological pervasion of the public.

(7) Six minutes after her train left the station, she said, it slowly came to a stop on the tracks and paused five or six minutes. It had just started moving again when the other train plowed into it.

(8) A railway communications officer, identified only as Mr Liu, told the Beijing Times that after the accident, he was sent to check the communications system of the first train, which was working, he said, raising the question of where the communication breakdown occurred.

From example (7), we can see that it is an indirect speech. The reporter paraphrases a passenger's description about the accident. Using indirect speech not only can enhance the persuasiveness of the news discourse, but also leave room for imagination. Meanwhile, in example (8), the reporter expresses his doubt about the location of the communication system breakdown by quoting the discourse of a railway official who is not willing to reveal his name indirectly.

C. *The Social Functions of News Discourse*

There is the dialectical relationship between news discourse and the social structure. Discourse is composed of the social structure and subject to the social class and the social structure. Meanwhile, it has corresponding social functions, because discourse has an effect on the social structure. Therefore, the critical linguists suggest that language use is an important form of the social practice. What they advocate is to connect the social analysis with the linguistic analysis.

From the above-mentioned analysis of the American media about the rear-end collision in Wen Zhou. We can know that the American media emphasizes the negative images of China. Essentially, the phenomenon is caused by the conflicts between China and the United States for a long time. Yuan Jiuxia (2009) said: "The American media has always wanted to derogate the image of China. Therefore, its media is bound to do everything possible to create China's negative images". (p.124)

V. THE IMPORTANT PARTS OF NEWS DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

We should pay attention to the following aspects when analyzing news discourse by critical discourse analysis.

A. *The Issue of Exploring "Why" in Language Expression*

There is the positivist tendency in the former English linguistics, which focuses on the true and objective language description, values the content of language ("what"), and neglects the reasons of using language ("why"). The critical analysis of English news discourse happens to solve the important question of "why" of language expression. At present, the dominant view of critical linguistics is that the differences in the structures of language forms are determined by its basic functions, which not only can reflect the ideology accurately, but also reinforce the differences. However, all of these can be explained from the perspectives of the social structures and power relationships.

B. *The Accuracy of News Discourse*

The western government and media always preach to the world their peculiar idea that people can enjoy the so-called freedom of speech and press fully in western society, and their news reports are objective and fair. After analyzing the news reports carefully, we can find that the western media do not report objectively, but choose the subject and content according to its needs. It is necessary to talk about the greatest power of media is that it can express the voice of the specific group by employing the responding events at the appropriate time. The content involved in the news discourse seems to reflect people's thoughts and feelings and ideology. Therefore, critical discourse analysis puts its emphasis on analyzing the ideology tendency of new discourse, and studying the relationship between the source of news discourse and the reporter's position as well as viewpoints.

C. *The Emphases of News Discourse*

We should keep our eyes on two things when analyzing the important parts of news discourse by critical discourse analysis. Firstly, we need to analyze its semantic category and rhetoric devices. Secondly, we also need to study the interest of the social class that presented by the discourse and the implicit ideology of the group and institution in the news discourse. The ideology is not totally expressed by the reporter, but reflected through his or her cultural background, educational status and occupation, etc. Fan Lidong (2009) said: "Knowing this, we can see how state power and media rights influence the ordinary audience through the news discourse" (p.10)

D. *The Intertextuality of News Discourse*

Intertextuality is a prominent feature of news discourse. Almost all the news discourse contains reported speech. There are a variety of forms of direct and indirect speech as well as other persons' discourse without explanations. Generally, they have different themes or stylistic features, which represent the interests and ideology of the rightsholders. We can find the implicit ideology and power relationships in news discourse if analyzing its intertextuality deeply. However, the boundaries of intertextuality are not very clear. It is difficult to make clear analysis of the discourse. Therefore, we should lay stress on studying the pragmatic functions of intertextuality in the news discourse. Generally speaking, the reporter reconstructs intertextuality material according to logical relationships and semantic structure inside the news discourse. Xin Bin suggests (2000) that the key of analyzing intertextuality is to exam its semantic and pragmatic functions by studying the harmonious degree and concrete way of combining of the intertextuality material in News discourse.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

From the above-mentioned, we should pay attention to the basic knowledge of the discourse analysis. It is necessary to master the basic theory of critical discourse analysis such as systemic-functional grammar. Besides, we need to know the steps of critical discourse analysis of news discourse. Lastly, it is important to lay stress on other aspects such as the accuracy, emphases and intertextuality of news discourse. Only in this way can we further improve the ability of news discourse analysis and understand its deep meaning as accurately as possible.

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Writing Anxiety and the Use of Subordinate Clauses in the Written Compositions of Jordanian EFL Undergraduate Students

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Abstract—The present study aimed to explore the correlation between writing anxiety and the an aspect of the grammatical complexity of Jordanian EFL students' written compositions, i.e. the use of subordinate clauses. Eighty seven students, who were purposefully chosen from among the freshmen and senior students at Al-Balqa Applied University participated in the study. Writing Anxiety Inventory (WAI) was used in order to collect the data during the first semester of the academic year 2017/ 2018. The findings of the study showed statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the freshmen and senior students in both the levels of writing anxiety and the number of subordinate clauses used in written compositions, in favor of the group of senior students. In addition, a significant correlation was found between the level of writing anxiety and the grammatical complexity of the written compositions of the participants of the study, as reflected in their use of subordinate clauses. Pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research are presented.

Index Terms—writing anxiety, subordinate clauses, written compositions, undergraduate students

I. INTRODUCTION

During their years of study at the university, EFL students are frequently asked to demonstrate their knowledge through writing. Yet, a large number of students have difficulty composing text at a level required by the curriculum.

Daly and Miller introduced the concept of writing anxiety, also called writing apprehension in 1975. The term “writing apprehension” describes a writing-specific anxiety, which can be defined as a situation and subject specific individual difference that is associated with the tendencies of an individual to approach or avoid the situation which entails writing accompanied with a degree of perceived evaluation (Daly & Miller, 1975, 242-249).

Recent studies revealed significant negative correlations between ESL writing anxiety and writing performance. For instance, students with low levels of anxiety do not only write better quality compositions, but also write more than their counterparts with higher levels of anxiety. Writing under time constraints was also found to be a detrimental effect of writing anxiety (Al-Shimi, 2017). Cheng (2004) found a significant negative correlation between anxiety and performance of EFL students in writing tasks. The impacts of writing anxiety on the writing processes and behaviors of EFL students consist of cognitive interference in writing process, feelings of nervousness or tension, and avoidance of writing (Cheng, 2004).

Syntactic (i.e., grammatical) complexity, is a concept which is considered as an essential construct of language proficiency, which has been explored extensively in the field of second language (L2) writing, delineates the level of sophistication of the forms that appear in language production. Syntactic complexity is a multidimensional concept, and is measured and evaluated through a variety of methods that explore the different dimensions of the construct. The number of clauses per written text, is one of the widely used measures of complexity, such capture a relative degree of sophistication (Park, 2017).

Subordination is an essential component in making sentences in any language, and it refers to a way of combining clauses so as to make one part of it more important than the other(s). from the perspective of Linguistics, subordination is defined as a complex syntactic construction in which one or more clauses are dependent on the main clause (Adjei & Williams, 2014).

Subordinate clause ratios have been used as a measure of linguistic complexity, and they appeared among the most valid indicators of proficiency among L2 learners because they are considered as consistently linear and influenced by program or school level (Baten & Håkansson, 2015).

Generalizations concerning the constructs of fluency, accuracy and complexity, which were derived from research on the development of writing skill in L2, include the following: 1) learners yield more lengthy and complicated texts within a certain time frame as they become more proficient in writing in L2, 2) fewer mistakes appear in their texts, and 3) the sentences they produce in their L2 written texts become more complex, both grammatically and lexically. Complexity in writing is divided into grammatical and lexical complexity. Grammatical complexity in its turn can be divided into grammatical variation and sophistication. Several quantifiable measures that assess the proficiency level among L2 students have been employed in research, such as the number and types of subordinate clauses which appear

in written compositions, and the amount of complex noun phrases. Thus, various studies have examined grammatical complexity in written text production (Larsen, 2016).

Zhang (2011) found that EFL students, especially those who employ productive skills such as speaking and writing, frequently feel anxious in the learning process (Zhang, 2011).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Saeedi and Farnia (2017) examined the association between English as a foreign language (EFL) learners' ratings of their writing anxiety and the quality of their task-based written production in terms of complexity, accuracy, and fluency. To this aim, 45 Iranian high-intermediate EFL learners were asked to complete the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) (Cheng, 2004) in order to rate their perceived level of anxiety while writing in English. In addition, to elicit samples of their written production, they were required to perform the narrative task of writing down a story based on a sequenced set of picture prompts. Having collected the data, Pearson correlation coefficient was run to establish the statistical significance of the correlations among the variables. The results displayed that participants' perceived level of second language (L2) writing anxiety is negatively associated with the complexity, accuracy, and fluency of their task-based written output.

Sadiq (2017) explored the level of foreign language anxiety among Arab English language learners. The quantitative research design was used through a survey methodology in order to collect data about the participants' language anxiety. The sample of the study consisted of 100 university students, who were randomly selected, from the college of Education at Princess Nora University in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) was used to collect the research data. Results revealed that EFL students experience moderate level of anxiety. Results indicate the presence of a meaningful difference in the level of language anxiety among the participants of the study in terms of age variable.

Asif (2017) explored the factors that trigger language anxiety among Saudi learners in English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms and the strategies that can be designed and used to cope with language anxiety successfully. The sample of the study consisted of 115 teachers of English at various colleges and universities in Saudi Arabia, who were randomly selected. Results revealed that the main factors which cause anxiety are mainly psycholinguistic and are related to foreign language learning processes, and other factors are socio-cultural and related to Saudi culture and society. Additionally, anxiety was manifested in many different ways among Saudi EFL learners, which include the poor performance in English language learning, making frequent mistakes, and nervousness on the part of the learners during class presentations.

Wahyuni & Umam (2017) explored the writing anxiety among EFL students at an Islamic State College in Indonesia. The study examined the levels, dominant type, and main factors of writing anxiety among EFL students. The sample of the study consisted of (50) EFL students at the college. Two closed-ended scales were used to collect the data. Results revealed that 54% of the students showed a high level of writing anxiety, 44% showed a moderate level, and 2% showed a low level of writing anxiety. The dominant type of writing anxiety among EFL students was cognitive writing anxiety, which is based on the highest mean among two other types of writing anxiety. Thus, results revealed four main factors related to writing anxiety: linguistic difficulties, fear of teachers' negative comments, insufficient writing practice, and time pressure.

El-Shimi (2017) sought to find out the causes and most common types of second-language writing anxiety among students taking an intensive English course in the English Language Institute (ELI) at the American University in Cairo (AUC). Both quantitative and qualitative research methods were used in this exploratory study. A convenience sample of 51 Egyptian ESL learners enrolled in the Intensive English Program (IEP) in the ELI was chosen to participate in the study. The researcher gave them a questionnaire adapted from the Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) developed by Zhang (2011) in order to identify the causes and most common types of writing anxiety among them. To investigate the teachers' perspectives of L2 writing anxiety, interviews with six teachers in the IEP with varying years of teaching experience were conducted. The results of the quantitative data, using descriptive statistics, showed that the most common types of L2 writing anxiety among the students were Somatic Anxiety (SA) and Cognitive Anxiety (CA). On the other hand, a very small percentage of the students suffered from Avoidance Anxiety (AA). The reason why their level of SA and CA were higher is ascribed to the fact that most of their causes of L2 writing anxiety were associated more with physiological and psychological effects resulting from their anxiety experience. The teachers' answers to the interview questions corresponded with the students' responses to the questionnaire items. They reported that they notice and observe symptoms related to L2 writing anxiety very similar to those indicated by the students.

Jebreil and his colleagues (2015) examined the level of writing anxiety of the Iranian EFL students with different proficiency levels. The sample of the study consisted of 45 students (elementary, intermediate, and advanced learners) who were selected randomly from among the students at Azad University in Iran. Second, Language Writing Anxiety Inventory was used to collect data. Results of the study showed that Iranian EFL students had a high level of anxiety. Additionally, students with elementary level had higher level of English writing anxiety in comparison with the students of intermediate and advanced levels. Results revealed also that cognitive anxiety was the most common type of anxiety among the participants, followed by somatic anxiety, and avoidance behavior. The results showed that foreign and

second language teachers ought to be cautious of the dangers of anxiety and seek to establish a stress-free class in order to improve students' performance.

Rahim and Hayas (2014) also conducted a study on L2 writing anxiety but from a slightly different angle. They aimed to find out how L2 learners' writing anxiety affects their choice of doing the writing task. The results of the questionnaire they used showed that out of the three types of anxiety (Cognitive Anxiety (CA), Somatic Anxiety (SA), and Avoidance Anxiety (AA), a high percentage of the learners had CA (87 percent), which confirms the results of the study that Shang (2013) conducted. All three types of anxiety, however, did have an impact on learners' choice to do the writing task, as 50 percent of the learners also suffered from a high level of SA and nearly 43 percent of the learners had a high level of AA. Those who suffered from CA and SA chose not to do the writing task itself mainly due to similar reasons like the ones mentioned in other studies such as other people's (teachers and peers) perceptions of their writing. On the other hand, those who suffer from all three types of anxiety to a minimal extent only think of more practices in writing as a way to help them improve their English language writing skill. The quantitative (multiple choice questions on questionnaire) and qualitative (open ended questions) methods used in this study made its results somehow more reliable than other studies.

Choi (2013) investigated the relationship between foreign language anxiety and second language writing anxiety among second language (L2) English learners in Korea and the influence of English writing anxiety on second language writing performance. Data were collected through two survey instruments, which were administered to the participants of the study (26 junior high school EFL students), where the teacher had implemented an innovative writing portfolio assignment. Results showed a significant positive correlation between the FLCAS and the EWAS. No significant correlation was found between EWAS and writing performance as observed in the student portfolios, but students with high EWAS scores did tend to show poor performance on the writing portfolio.

Negari and Rezaabadi (2012) explored the relationship between the students' Writing anxiety and their writing performance in EFL context. The sample of the study consisted of 27 Iranian EFL students, majoring in English translation and English literature, who participated in TOFEL proficiency test. Results suggested that the students experienced less nervousness in writing when the teacher assured them that their papers will not be scored in contrast to the time when their papers were to be scored by the teacher. Results revealed a statistically significant high correlation between final writing test and anxiety. The participants' responses to the open-ended questionnaire revealed that during their first stage of writing experience (when the teacher assured them that their papers will not be scored), the students had less physiological and psychological changes than their final test.

Zhang (2011) examined the predominant type of anxiety among two groups of Chinese learners (49 freshmen and 47 sophomores) majoring in English and different strategies in which they can cope with them. Results revealed a number of causes of ESL writing anxiety among both groups, but the most common ones were linguistic difficulties, insufficient writing practice, fear of tests, and lack of topical knowledge.

In conclusion, most of the studies that focused on L2 writing anxiety sought to identify the causes and the most common types of L2 writing anxiety, but almost none of them explored the correlation between L2 writing anxiety and the grammatical complexity of the written compositions of EFL students in the Jordanian or the Arab context. Consequently, the purpose of this research is to examine the correlation between L2 writing anxiety and the grammatical complexity of the written compositions of EFL students in the Jordanian context.

III. PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

L2 learners very often consider writing in a language they are not yet familiar with a very difficult skill. Writing is considered both a cognitive and an emotional activity, where learners reflect and feel while they are writing, and this is why they very often find it difficult. Another possible reason could be the fact that writing requires them to be able to express themselves, maintain a flow of ideas, develop their confidence, and enjoy writing using their L2 (Al-Shimi, 2017). All EFL undergraduate students must be able to know how to write, as nowadays writing is considered a requirement in almost any academic pursuit and is very often related to the extent to which they can succeed in different academic subjects. Most research on FL anxiety has focused mainly on the oral aspects (speaking and listening) of language use. In the last few decades, however, a number of studies have been done on L2 writing anxiety and its effect on L2 acquisition and achievement.

IV. QUESTIONS OF THE STUDY

1. Do Jordanian ESL undergraduate students suffer from L2 writing anxiety?
2. Is there a significant correlation between writing anxiety and the use of subordinate clauses in the written compositions of Jordanian EFL students?

V. STUDY METHOD

A. *Sample of the Study*

Population of the current study consists of BA students of English literature at Al-Balqa Applied University. The sample of the study consisted of 87 B.A students of English literature at Al-Balqa Applied University. Of which 45 students were freshmen and 42 were seniors in the academic year 2017/ 2018.

B. Instrument of the Study

The Writing Anxiety Inventory (Kassem, 2017) was used in the current study to measure the level of writing anxiety among the Jordanian EFL students at Al-Balqa University during the process of writing compositions in an EFL context. The inventory included (12) items which are answered on a five-point Likert Scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). Students with a score of 75% and higher are assumed to have from a high level of writing anxiety, while the students whose score range from 50% to 74% are assumed to experience a moderate level of writing anxiety. Students with score of less than 30% were assumed to be learners with an acceptable level of writing anxiety. In the first semester of the academic year 2017/2018, the instrument of the study (WAI) was completed by the participants of the sample of the study. Grammatical complexity levels were measured by counting the number of subordinate clauses and finding the average number of subordinate clauses per text for each group.

VI. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

In order to answer the first question of the study, means and standard deviations of writing anxiety levels among participants were calculated, and table (1) shows the results.

TABLE (1):
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF WRITING ANXIETY LEVELS AMONG THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE SAMPLE OF THE STUDY:

Group	N	Mean	SD
Freshmen Students	45	46.41	6.32
Senior Students	42	27.32	4.12

Table (1) shows a higher level of writing anxiety among the participants of the group of freshmen, in comparison with the group of senior students, which agrees with the results of several studies conducted in Arab context of Arab EFL learning, and (Al-Shimi, 2017; Asif, 2017). Zhang (2011) suggested that EFL students, especially those who employ productive skills such as speaking and writing, frequently feel anxious in the learning process. The results of the current study confirm and agree with the results of Zhang despite the differences between the contexts of the two studies.

Concerning the grammatical complexity of the written compositions of the participants of the study sample, the means of the numbers of Subordinate clauses in the texts written by the students were calculated, as well as the maximum and minimum number of subordinate clauses in these texts, and table (2) shows the results.

TABLE (2):
MEANS, MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM NUMBER OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES OF THE NUMBERS OF SUBORDINATE CLAUSES IN THE TEXTS WRITTEN BY THE STUDENTS

Measure	Freshmen Students	Senior Students
Sub. clauses per text	3.7	5.6
Minimum	0	0
Maximum	8	11

On the whole, the freshmen group of EFL students at Al-Balqa University in the sample of the present study yielded a lower level of grammatical complexity in their written texts in English, in comparison to the senior group of EFL students, whose participants had higher scores in the level of grammatical complexity which appeared in their written compositions, i.e. subordination and noun phrase modification. With regard to the average number of subordinate clauses per text, the freshmen group produced less ($m=3.7$) subordinate clauses compared to the group of senior undergraduate students ($m=5.6$). these results agrees with the results of previous studies, which showed the tendency of increased subordination as students progress in their study of ESL is confirmed by several studies (Larsen, 2016). Studies (Hunt, 1965; cited in Larsen, 2016) suggest that the ratio of subordinate clauses per T-unit gradually increase as students become older. As the writers became older, they also produced more subordinate clauses. Thus, it is not surprising that Jordanian EFL students increase their use of subordinate clauses as they progress in their study at the university.

Hussein & Muhammad (2011) indicate that EFL students experience several language proficiency problems while writing in English, which are ascribed to differences between Arabic and English and as a result, students tend to employ various compensatory strategies to solve this problem in that they try to write words and sentences in L1 first and consequently translate them into L2 thus making negative transfer.

In order to examine the significance of the differences between the results of the group of freshman B.A students of English Literature, and the group of senior BA students, ANOVA test was applied, and table (3) shows the results.

TABLE (3):
ONE-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE (ANOVA) OF BETWEEN GROUP AND WITHIN GROUP MEANS

	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	19.267	1	19.267	3.986	.051
Within Groups	280.333	58	4.833		
Total	299.600	59			

Table (3) shows that the difference between the freshman B.A students of English Literature, and their counterparts, the senior B.A students Literature at Al-Balqa university explains about 3.986% of the variation in the scores of the students, so, the relationship between the variable of writing anxiety and the students' use of subordinate clauses is weak but statistically significant.

Table (3) revealed an F value of 3.986, which with 1 and 58 degrees of freedom is statistically significant at the .000 level ($P < 0.05$). These figures indicate that the difference across the independent variable category (Freshmen Vs. senior undergraduate students) is significant.

VII. CONCLUSION

Results of the current study revealed a significant correlation between the level of writing anxiety and the grammatical complexity of the Jordanian university students' written texts. Thus, an inverse proportion exists between writing anxiety and the use of subordination among EFL undergraduate students. Therefore, in order to enhance the grammatical complexity of the EFL students' written texts, writing anxiety ought to be alleviated, which is a difficult task to be undertaken by educators.

The following recommendations for additional future research are offered:

- Replicating the study with a larger number of students, either at a higher education institution in Jordan or any other similar institution in the Arab region.
- Replicating the study with EFL learners whose L1 is a language other than Arabic, and comparing the results with the findings of the current study.

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Discursive Construction of the Translator: An Example of the English Version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*

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Abstract—Based on the translation of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*, *The Principle of Objective*, and drawing on Michel Foucault's work, this article attempts to explore how various discursive strategies were employed by Jiang Yonglin to foster the realization of his objective and further examine that the translator, more often than not, influenced by such by social ideology, knowledge structure and what he intends to attain, does play a dual role in translating *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*. Accordingly, Jiang Yonglin's version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)* was well embraced by the target readers. This paper seems to make theoretically contributions to the analysis of the translation of legal classics and further verifies the interrelationship between power, ideology and discourse.

Index Terms—legal classics, *The Great Ming Code*, power, ideology

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese classics play an important role in the promotion of Chinese culture and enhancement of cultural soft power. It has been well acknowledged that English translation of Chinese classics, especially legal classics, has not been growing into a mature discipline with scientific system. Therefore, it is urgent for scholars to re-examine the English translation of Chinese legal classics so as to help project Chinese culture upon the world.

The literature on the English version of Chinese classics is imposing both at home and abroad, which is characterized by persistent pursuit of translation comparison among different versions. Translators take different perspectives in carrying out researches on English Translation of Chinese legal Classics. Wallace (1995) discusses the philosophy behind status and liability for punishment and those factors determine such liability: social and political statuses. It is found that women enjoy a reduced liability in imperial China. Janet (1996) reviews the contributions of Professor William Jones to Chinese legal researches. He indicates that Professor William Jones's version of *the Great Qing Code* embodies the unique social characteristics of Manchu China, which in turn, confirms the significance of the law code as one of the fundamental sources in understanding imperial China's legal culture.

Marme (2012) explains that the English version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)* offers a starting point for scholars who are interested in Chinese legal system and culture in the late imperial period. Weiting Guo (2015) makes a critical analysis of Jiang Yonglin's thought that Chinese law is not oppressive embodied in the translation text.

However, up to now, apart from the afore-mentioned researches, such literature on the translation of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)* remain, generally speaking, in its infancy, let alone based on *The Principle of the Objective* and power discourse.

Translation is a communicative process which takes place within a social context. Accordingly, the translator, the occupier of a social role, inevitably mediate between producers and receivers of texts and has the advantage of power inherent in all positions, wherein the translator is faced with what amounts to a conflict of interests and resolve the tensions according to his own understanding of their own position and role in their culture (Lefevere 1992). As Jun Lü and Xiang-qun Hou (2001) illustrate that translation, more or less, is concerned with transition of thought from one culture to another culture, thus fostering the interactive relationship between translation, power and ideology. Consciously or not, translators invariably confirm to certain norms and far from are neutral but rather do play a dual role in the translation process because of the function of ideology and power. On the one hand, the translator's power stands for the source culture and thus translators adhere to the norms of the source culture, allowing for the entrance of foreign culture to the target culture; on the other hand, the power are reflected in target language and affects readers' reception. Likewise, through detailed analysis of the English version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*, we can get to know how the translator dose display his discursive construction and get familiar with another culture, society or ideology.

This essay begins with an introduction to the relevant research and *The Principle of Objective*, followed by a detailed analysis of power discourse and Jiang Yonglin's objective. In the following section the present research study probes

into the fact how the translator, influenced by social ideology, knowledge structure and what he intends to attain, does play a dual role in translating *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*.

II. METHODOLOGY

The current study is an example-based and theory-driven qualitative analysis. The author first analyzes the examples and finds the linguistic differences between the Chinese and English version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*.

This paper applies inductive, documental, comparison and critical discourse analysis methods to the analysis of translation strategies and translation goals, and the interactions between these two in Jiang Yonglin's version of *the Great Ming Code* from the perspective of The Principle of the Objective. Documental method is applied in collecting researches on the The Principle of the Objective. At the same time, comparison method and critical discourse analysis are used in comparing and analyzing the certain different strategies of used by Jiang Yonglin and William C. Jones, so as to confirm that influenced by such discourse as personal ideology and knowledge structure, translator would take advantage of his position to adopt different translation strategies, which in turn promote the reader's active response.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Jiang Yonglin's version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)* is the only existent copy worthy to be deliberately analyzed, wherein The Principle of the Objective is employed to explore aspects related to the translation. Existing researches demonstrate that there is little literature about the English version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*. Thus, the study intends to address relevant questions about it:

1. What kinds of discursive or translation strategies should be adopted to achieve Jiang Yonglin's goals?
2. How does Jiang Yonglin play a dual role in translating *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*?
3. Whether Jiang Yonglin's version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)* is well embraced by the target readers?

IV. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO THE PRINCIPLE OF THE OBJECTIVE

The Principle of the Objective, to a certain degree, resembles *Teleology* (a philosophical concept, referring to the fact that a thing has a purpose or is acting for the sake of a purpose.) However, it is, undoubtedly, that *The Principle of the Objective* dates back to the works of **Sun Tzu**, which demands that a person knows what he intends to achieve, or rather, his goal or objective. *The Principle of the Objective and its relevant issues* have been approached from different angles and on different levels over the centuries.

Yue-guo Gu (1996) analyzes Chinese doctor-patient interaction based on the "goal analysis" principle, i.e. doctor-patient interaction is viewed as a purposeful "social process" aimed at a common goal. Thus, different from the traditional view of the interaction between doctor and patient, tripartite approach (i.e. purpose, discourse and interpersonal relationship) to discourse analysis is employed to study the discourse along three lines. Mishler (1984) proposed the mainstream and non-mainstream research in view of the doctor-patient discourse analysis, which represents a process of communication and diagnosis through discourse. However, Gu's research aims to combine the strengths of these two streams and it reveals the Chinese cultural context constructs the other goals besides the common goal.

Guan-lian Qian (1997) proposes Goal-intention Principle and further states that in order to render the communicative success, speakers will, more often than not, have to bear the intentions of goal in mind throughout the translation process. Otherwise, the communication can even never proceed, let alone come to be a successful one. Therefore, Goal-intention Principle must be regarded as a vital parameter in social communications.

Fan-zhu Hu (2009) elaborates that every speech act is with its intention and with speakers' efforts to realize it, whereby speech act theory is applied in legal language study. Intentionalization is the basic feature of Speech Act, represented by the basic principle of intentionalism in language use.

Mei-zhen Liao (2005 a) puts that there is such a principle as goal governing social communications and further employs "The Principle of Goal" to research into the legal discourse. He believes that Before there is a communicative activity, for example, there has to be a need for it, i.e. it is goal or objective that drives people to interact with each other. He goes so far as to propose that it is only through goal-analysis that one can illustrate courtroom interactions and cooperation (Liao, 2004; 2005c).

Allen (1983) and Jacobs (2002) remark that objectives occupy a vital role in promoting communicative skills and can, more or less, guide our discursive construction; as a result, the Principle of Goal can not only be involved in province of philosophy but also is also accessible to discourse analysis.

V. POWER DISCOURSE AND THE OBJECTIVE OF TRANSLATOR

As is illustrated, objective occupies a central in conversational activities. Meanwhile, it is well believed that any activity of a rational person is goal-directed. Before there is translation, for example, there has to be a need for translation. Then what is Jiang Yonglin's goal while he translated *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*? And to what extent his goal is affected by such factor as ideology?

Before there is a translation, there has to be a need for translation. The need for Jiang Yonglin's translation may be the translator's pursuit of something new, the status of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)* as a social product and the social and cultural circumstances. Jiang Yonglin is an Associate Professor of University of Minnesota, whose research focuses on legal culture in imperial China. A large number of scholars, at different stages, shared their expertise on Chinese legal and social history and offered constructive feedback on the translation of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*, which prepares him for the translating activity. Knowledge does not necessarily precede the translation activity, and that the act of translation is itself much involved in the creation of knowledge. Translators, as much as creative writers and politicians, participate in the powerful acts that create knowledge and shape culture. (Tymoczko & Gentzler 2007). Thus, knowledge structure of the translator must be taken into consideration while evaluating the translation objective of the English version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*. It is well acknowledged that the translation of *The Tang Code* and *Ta Tsing Leu Lee* have been accessible to target readers for a long period of time because of translators' joint efforts, while *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*, serving as a connecting link between the preceding and the following, has not gained wide attention in the western world. Jiang Yonglin, the former president of the Society for Ming Studies, is very proficient in the legal system of the Ming dynasty and aims to fill in the vacancy in this field of study, which renders the literature on Tang, Ming, Qing law become accessible to western scholars on Chinese classics. As Jiang Yonglin has put in the preface of the English version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*, he is aimed at providing a paramount source for discerning not only Chinese legal culture but also promoting Eastern and Western cultural communications (Jiang, 2005).

The translator's objectives are inextricably bound up with the socio-cultural context in which the act of translating takes place (Hatim & Mason 1990). Consequently, it is of importance to examine the translation only within the social and cultural context. The English version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)* came to its final form in 2005, during which period of time diplomatic ties were re-established and relationships began to normalize between China and the United States. With the normalization of Sino-American relations, cultural interaction came to be a vital aspect of the sound development between America and China. Jiang Yonglin's translation seems to be out of his own intention, however, it isn't simply as it appears to be. With the rising status of China in the world, translators ought to provide literature accessible to target readers interested in Chinese legal classics so as to popularize Chinese culture and promote cultural exchange.

It seems that the reason why Jiang Yonglin translates *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)* is that the translator is driven to present a correction to the conventional views that Chinese law is an instrument of state control because of his position as the former president of the Society for Ming Studies, i.e., his knowledge structure. Nothing could be further from the truth. Quite apart from such a reason, there is a real sense in which it is the trend of cultural interaction behind the personal knowledge structure that truly promotes the completion of the English version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*, which, without doubt, accelerates the pace of study of Chinese classics and uncovers the sacred veil of classical legal culture.

VI. TRANSLATOR'S ROLE AND ITS DISCURSIVE DISPLAY

Translators can manipulate readers to achieve desired effects, i.e., the purposes and impacts that diverse translations strategies would achieve. To do so, however, the source text itself is manipulated to create a desired representation. It is well acknowledged that churches would commission Bible translations, governments would support translations of national epics, schools would teach translations of great books, kings would be patrons for translations about heroic conquests, and socialist regimes would underwrite translations of social realism, all for their purposes pertaining to ideology and cultural power. Regardless of the degree to which legal translators are involved in the communication process, it is essential that they do not act in isolation (Wilss, 1977). Translations are inevitably partial; meaning in a text is always over-determined, and the information in a source text is therefore always more extensive than a translation can convey. Conversely, the receptor language and culture entail obligatory features that shape the possible interpretations of the translation, as well as extending the meanings of the translation in directions other than those inherent in the source text. As such, translators will, to certain degree, construct the discourse as a double agent, which is obvious while analyzing the translation. On the one hand, the translator would be faithful to the source text and produce fluent text. On the other hand, the translator will cater for the target readers and import new terms to the recipient culture. Undoubtedly, every translation deconstructs and decanonizes an earlier creation, stealing or appropriating that creation in a kind of power struggle with the object the translation intends to represent.

The translator, as both receiver and producer of the text, play the double role in perceiving the particular choices in the source text and relaying to the target readers by suitable linguistic means. Translators will, to a certain degree, construct the discourse as a double agent while translating. Objective plays a significant role in conversational activities. Then, what is the goal of Jiang Yonglin? And to what extent the goal is influenced by ideology or knowledge structure? How does the translator's role function as a mediator between cultures? Consciously or unconsciously, the translator brings his assumptions and world-view to the translation process at all levels. Lexical choices, cohesive relations and text structure, more often than not, are involved. The preoccupation in what follows will with Jiang Yonglin's double discursive construction in while translating *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*.

(1) At Lexical Level

Legal vocabulary, in a sense, embodies the distinctive legal culture of a particular legal system, therefore, it is necessary to probe into the translation of legal vocabularies before going further.

Titles and headings

Once readers get to read Jiang's version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*, they will, voluntarily or involuntarily, find that such titles and headings as “斷罪以新頒律”, “功臣應禁親人入視”, and “對制上書詐以不實” are translated respectively into “Deciding Penalties in According With the Newly Promulgated Code” [Duanzui budang]”, “When Meritorious Officials Are imprisoned, Their Relatives May Visit Them [Gongchen yingjin qinren rushi]” and “Replying to or Memorializing the Emperor Untruthfully [Duizhi shangshu zha bu yishi]”, the combination of free translation and transliteration.

《大明律》(*The Great Ming Code*) consists of such chapters as 名律、吏律、戶律、禮律、兵律、刑律、工律, which are translated respectively into “laws on punishments and general principle (Minglü)”, “laws on personnel (Lilü)”, “laws on revenue (Hulü)”, “laws on rituals (Lilü)”, “laws on military affairs (Binglü)”, “laws on penal affairs (Xinglü)” and “laws on public works (Gonglü)”, where Jiang Yonglin adopts such pattern as “laws on...”, an adherence to the reading habits of Americans. Meanwhile, transliteration of the pinyin system¹ of Romanization of Chinese terms, i.e. “Lilü”, “Hulü”, “Lilü” etc. is employed throughout the translation so that the the flavor of Chinese culture can be maintained in a sense. Undoubtedly, the rendering of the titles and headings by means of transliteration and free translation is a optimal choice as it can ensure the popularity of the English version all over the world.

Legal terms

Just as Deborah Cao (2008) has summarized, legal terms, to a considerable extent, embody the legal culture of that country.

Original version:

(1)五刑

答刑五

一十贖銅錢六伯文

二十贖銅錢一貫二伯文

三十贖銅錢一貫八伯文

四十贖銅錢二貫四伯文

五十贖銅錢三貫

.....

死刑二

絞斬贖銅錢四十二貫

William C. Jones's version:

The Five Punishments

1. *The punishment of beating with the light bamboo has five degrees. Chi [the Chinese word] means beating. It also makes one feel ashamed. It is the beating with the light bamboo. The degrees are:*

10 [strokes] (reduce to four strokes)

20 [strokes] (reducing digits, reduce to five strokes)

30 [strokes] (excluding digits, reduce to 10 strokes)

40 [strokes] (excluding digits, reduce to 15 strokes)

50 [strokes] (reduce to 20 strokes)

...

5. *The penalty of death has two [degrees]: (In all cases where the law does not indicate in so many words whether there is to be execution after the final review of capital cases jian bou, or immediate Execution, then in all cases there will be immediate execution. In all cases where the sub-stance li does not indicate in so many words whether there is to be execution after the final review of capital cases, or immediate execution, then in all cases the decision will be delayed until after the final review of capital cases).*

The degrees are:

Strangulation;

Beheading

(In all cases of offenses subject to the death penalty, inside or outside the capital, apart from those [offenses] which require execution without delay, the accused must be imprisoned to await the Autumn Assizes or the Court Assizes. The cases are to be distinguished according to whether [the case is one in which the] circumstances of the offence require the infliction [of capital punishment], [one in which] execution [should take place but may] be delayed, or one which [the circumstances give rise to] compassion, or where there are doubts. Memorialize, requesting a decision.)

Jiang Yonglin's version:

The Five Punishment [Wuxing]

¹ The pinyin system is the formal romanization system for Standard Chinese in mainland China. It usually is in the form of Chinese characters. See <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pinyin>, viewed on February 10, 2017.

[1] The punishment of beating with the light stick chi, five degrees:

- 10 strokes (redemption by copper currency of 600 wen)
- 20 strokes (redemption by copper currency of 1 guan 200 wen)
- 30 strokes (redemption by copper currency of 1 guan 200 wen)
- 40 strokes (redemption by copper currency of 2 guan 400 wen)
- 50 strokes (redemption by copper currency of 3 guan)

...

[5] The death penalty [si], two degrees:

Strangulation [jiao] and decapitation [zhan] (redemption by copper currency of 42 guan). (William C. Jones, 1994)

It is well acknowledged that The Five Punishment [Wuxing] has a far-reaching impact in ancient Chinese system, which is the combination of Confucianism and feudalism. As is shown above, William C. Jones attempts to render the full contents and forms of the source text, thus illustrating such information as *Chi [the Chinese word] means beating* and *It also makes one feel ashamed* and *In all cases of offenses subject to the death penalty, inside or outside the capital, apart from those [offenses] which require execution without delay, the accused must be imprisoned to await the Autumn Assizes or the Court Assizes*. Undoubtedly, it will be easier for readers to read and understand the letters of the law for the cohesive sentences and background information, however, on the other hand, the target language seems to be tedious and redundant and lost the plain and serious feature of legal language. Whereas, Jiang Yonglin resorts to phrases, not only elegant in form but also profound in content. Admittedly, in order to achieve a balance between linguistic purity and legal equivalence, Jiang Yonglin takes account of legal criteria when making linguistic decisions, enabling the target readers to hold interest for the legal text without halting half way. The choices made by Jiang Yonglin is extremely motivated. In line with the most appropriate practice of the context, Jiang Yonglin keeps the target readers in mind and has a clear sense of language accessible to the readers. As is evidenced, the target-reader-oriented principle, or domestication, is employed to preserve the function of the source language. It is aimed to render the translation more scientific and clinical through systematic lexical selection in the spirit of target language.

Cultural-specific conceptions

As Rosenne (1987) warned, terminological incongruity presents the greatest threat to the uniform interpretation and application of parallel legal texts, because there are no two countries using the exactly same legal words to express the same meanings (Steiner, 1998). Due to the fact that some legal systems contain a number of terms with no comparable counterparts in other legal systems (Sarcevic 1997), therefore, Jiang Yonglin borrowed or created new terms to the target language. For example, there are no such conceptions as “yamen” and “guanfang seals or yinji seals” in the western world, as such, Jiang Yonglin directly borrowed these cultural conceptions or terms into the English version of The Great Ming Code. Besides, there are some conceptions in the foreign legal system that has the implies the same in Chinese culture such as “布衣”, “卜课” and “秀才”. These conceptions were rendered into “common people (buyi)”, “making divination (buke)” and “cultivated talents (xiuca)” by Jiang Yonglin based on his understanding of Chinese culture. At the same time, In ancient China, there were such talents graduating from certain provinces and cities and they were called “舉人” and “進士” in Chinese. After probing into ancient Chinese culture, Jiang Yonglin went so far as to translate them into “provincial graduates (juren)” and “metropolitan graduates, presented scholars (jinshi)”, wherein free translation and transliteration are employed at the same time so as to foster readers’ reception and retain Chinese culture. Admittedly, it is wise of Jiang Yonglin to translate as such, avoiding prospect ambiguity and vagueness.

(2) At Syntactical Level

With regard to the style of original sentence, the target-reader-oriented and source-reader-oriented principles and other relevant strategies were used in combination with each other to facilitate the translator’s cultural purpose or goal.

Excerpt 1

Original version: 凡立嫡子違法者杖八十其嫡妻年五十以上無子者得立庶長子不立長者亦同

若養同宗之人為子所養父母無子而捨去者杖一百發付所養父母收管若有親生子及本生父無子欲還者聽

Jiang’s version: In all cases of illegally designating wives’ sons [as heirs], the offenders shall be punished by 80 strokes of beating with the heavy stick. If wives are over 50 years of age and have no sons, the eldest son of a concubine may be designated. If the eldest son is not designated, the punishment shall be the same.

If persons of the same lineage are not adopted as sons, and [the adopted sons] forsake [the adoptive parents] while he adoptive parents have no sons, they shall be punished by 100 strokes of beating with the heavy stick, and they shall be returned to the control of the adoptive parents. If [the adoptive parents] have their natural sons and [the adopted sons’] natural parents have no other son, [the adopted sons] may return [to their natural parents] if they wish to do so.

Every text, more often than not, is specially designed for its target readers and thus embodies its value by its readers. That is to say receivers should be taken into account while translators conduct translation activities. As is shown above, additional information such as the adverbial “as heirs”, the subject “the adopted sons”, the object “the adoptive parents” and the attribute “the adopted sons” have been provided so as to produce a text capable of functioning optically in the target culture (Vermeer, 1998:50). The basic transformations are permitted to respect the rules of grammar in the target language, thus increasing comprehensibility while following the source text as closely as possible.

Excerpt 3**Original version:** 擅食田園瓜果

凡於他人田園擅食瓜果之類坐贓論棄毀者罪亦如之其擅將去及食係官田園瓜果若官造酒食者加二等主守之人給與及知而不舉者與同罪若主守私自將去者並以監守自盜論

Jiang's version: Eating Melons or Fruits of Gardens or Orchards without Authorization [Shanshi tianyuan guaguo]

In all cases of eating things such as melons or fruits in others' gardens or orchards without authorization, the offenders shall be punished for illicit goods obtained through malfeasance. If they discard or destroy them, the penalty shall be the same. If they take them away without authorization or eat melons or fruits of government gardens or orchards or government-made liquor or foods, the penalty shall be increased two degrees. If the custodians give these things or know the circumstances but do not report, they shall be punished the same. If custodians take these things away without authorization, they shall be punished on the basis of supervisors or custodians themselves stealing.

Legal texts are formulated in special language generally known as the language of the law. (Mellinkoff 1963) It is well acknowledged that the goal of legal translation is to transfer the meaning or message of the source text accurately as possible (Fluck 1985). *The Great Ming Code*, the typical type of legal text, aims to regulate citizens' behavior and make them behave well in that dynasty. For the sake of preserving the letter of law, Jiang Yonglin adhered to the principle of fidelity to the source text. Any attempt to transferring the abundant information of the source text must have the source language in mind without impairing the flavor of the SL. Therefore, much importance has been attached to maintaining the form and substance of "Eating Melons or Fruits of Gardens or Orchards without Authorization [Shanshitianyuan guaguo]" without the change of sentence order, i.e., the words order of the source text are translated into the target language and the grammatical forms and word order of the source text are retained, which perhaps will puzzle the target readers and is not consistent with the sentence pattern of the target language, but it is, to a considerable extent, faithful to the source language so that the nature and exactness of another language can be preserved. Furthermore, such an act of faithful to the source language will foster the target readers to get a glimpse of the punishments on "Eating Melons or Fruits of Gardens or Orchards without Authorization" and may stimulate their desire to know more about Chinese culture or this mysterious country, which, on the other hand, promotes the harmonious relations between China and Western countries.

At Textual Level

Translating is historically, socially and culturally determined. It is, in most cases, initiated by the target culture to cause changes in and cater to the needs of the target culture. In one sense, translations are facts of the target culture.

Excerpt 1**Original version:** 貢舉非其人

凡貢舉非其人及才堪時用應貢舉而不貢舉者一人杖八十每二人加一等罪杖一百所舉之人知情與同罪不知者不坐

若主司考試藝業技能而不以實者減二等

失者各減三等

條例

一應試舉監生儒及官吏人等但有懷挾文字銀兩并越舍與人換寫文字者俱遵照世宗皇帝聖旨拏送法司問罪仍枷號一箇月滿日發民其旗軍夫匠人等受財代替夾帶傳遞及縱容不舉捉拏者旗軍調邊衛食糧差操夫匠發口為民官縱容者罰俸一年受財以枉法論若冒頂正軍入看守屬軍衛者發邊衛屬有司者發附近俱充軍其武場有犯懷挾等弊俱照此例擬斷一監生員撒潑嗜酒挾制師長不守監規學規者問發充吏挾妓賭博出入官府起滅詞訟事過錢包攬物料等項者問發為民

Jiang's version: Recommending Inappropriate Persons [Gongju fei qiren]

[1] In all cases of where inappropriate persons are recommended [for civil service degrees or government officers], or talented persons who can benefit the times and who shall be recommended are not recommended, for one such person, [the responsible persons] shall be punished by 80 strokes of beating with the heavy stick. For each additional two persons, the penalty shall be increased one degree. The punishment shall be limited to 100 strokes of beating with the heavy stick. If the persons recommended know the circumstances, they shall be punished the same. If they do not know, they shall not be punished.

[2] If examiners, in testing skills and abilities, do not make their judgments in accordance with the facts [bu yishi], the penalty shall be reduced two degrees.

[3] In case of negligence, the penalty in each case shall be reduced three degrees.

As is shown above, the detailed regulations about *Recommending Inappropriate Persons* [Gongju fei qiren] are left out, which is far from a coincidence. On the contrary, it is not hard to observe that the 382 regulations (*li*) that were attached to the *Code* during the Wanli Reign² are not translated or omitted in the English version of *The Great Ming Code*. Various aspects of the relevant crimes were regulated and illustrated through the 382 regulations (*li*), nevertheless, it will be, undoubtedly, tedious and burdensome for target readers not familiar with the legal system of Ming dynasty to

² Wanli Reign is the reign name (*nianhao*) of the emperor of China from 1572 to 1620, during the latter portion of the Ming dynasty (1368–1644). See <https://global.britannica.com/topic/nianhao>. Viewed on February 10, 2017.

read and figure out these odd regulations. By selecting to delete the all-round 382 regulations which may set target readers back, the naturalness and fluency of the language will be maintained at the same time. It shows that Jiang Yonglin simply serves as a third party and only the translator can resolve the problem, that he is not deliberately be unfaithful to the original text but to foster the naturalness and readability of the target language and that his translation can not but deter to the prevailing discourse of that system in catering for the needs of the system recipient. As such, translator's neutrality is maintained and displayed.

Excerpt 2

Original version: 監守自盜倉庫錢糧

凡監臨主守自盜倉庫錢糧等物不分首從併贓論罪併贓謂

.....

上不過肘下不過腕餘條准此

一貫之上至二貫五百文杖九十

五貫杖一百

.....

二十五貫杖一百流三千里

四十貫斬

Jiang's version: Article 287 Supervisors or Custodians Themselves Stealing Money or Grain from Granaries or Treasures [Jianshou zidao cangku qianliang]

In all cases where supervisors or custodians themselves steal things such as money or grain from treasuries or granaries, they shall, without distinguishing between principals and accessories, be punished on the basis of all illicit goods taken together... On the top the tattoo shall not pass the joint of the elbow, and at the bottom, it shall not go below the wrist. Other articles shall comply with this provision.

[The punishment shall be inflicted in accordance with the amount of goods stolen as follows:]

1 guan to 2 guan 500 wen: 90 strokes of beating with the heavy stick.

1-10guan: 30 strokes of beating with the light stick.

5 guan: 100 strokes of beating with the heavy stick.

...

25 guan 500 wen: 100 strokes of beating with the heavy stick and life exile to 1000 li.

40 guan: decapitation.

As is evidenced from above, the translator has considerable discretion as to whether to add such sentence as *The punishment shall be inflicted in accordance with the amount of goods stolen as follows*. To ensure the realization of the translation accessible to target readers, those information of chapter, section, and article numbers, i.e. "Chapter 1", "Section 1" and "Article 287" and such cohesive sentences as "The punishment shall be inflicted in accordance with the amount of goods stolen as follows", and "The punishment shall be inflicted in accordance with the amount of goods received as follows" have been supplemented by Jiang Yonglin as the explanatory material so as to remove the frustration caused by the non-coherent and tremendous text and foster target readers to know more about the *Supervisors or Custodians Themselves Stealing Money or Grain from Granaries or Treasures [Jianshou zidao cangku qianliang]*. Apart from the above information, the comprehensive introduction to the making of *The Great Ming Code*, Ming Units of Measure and Money and a set of glossary, which are not the original part of *The Great Ming Code*, are also provided and illustrated in detail, whereby target readers will have a better understanding of the *The Great Ming Code* and further promote cultural communications between China and the Western world. It is obvious that domestication is adopted to ensure the acceptability of the translation considerably.

VII. INTERACTION BETWEEN POWER DISCOURSE AND TRANSLATION STRATEGIES

The present study will examine to what extent the translation strategies and goals are influenced by social or personal ideology and knowledge. Through this process some of the discursive forces that have influenced Jiang Yonglin and help shape the translation process will be revealed, illustrating Andre Lefevere's contention that "Translators function in a given culture at a given time. The way they understand their culture and themselves may influence the way they translate" (Lefevere 1992).

An individual's knowledge structure and objective will inextricably shape his discursive construction. As illustrated above, the very reason why Jiang Yonglin took the initiative to translate *The Great Ming Code* is that he is the former president of the Society for Ming Studies, teaches lectures on Ming culture and history and offers assistance to William Jones to translate *The Great Qing Code*, all of which prove Jiang Yonglin's talent in Ming culture and history and further qualify and prepare him for a better translation activity.

As with other issues, the translator is faced with what amounts to a conflict of interests. The source text may be so much at variance with TL norms that the translation would inevitably be concerned with ideology. Despite its multiplicity, generally speaking, ideologies refer to ideas, values, conceptions, and assumptions whether cultural or political are related to power and authority of persons or institutions in a specific society (Abdulla 1991). Translation is

the communicative process which takes place in social context, i.e. the translator's objective is inextricably bound up with the social context. Meanwhile, to study translations in isolation from factors influencing the production may be consequently miss out an important dimension. As such, it is, undoubtedly, necessary to show how ideology impinges on the translation process in subtle ways.

Having a good knowledge of Chinese culture and influenced by his the socio-ideology, Jiang Yonglin endeavors to reserve the plain and serious style of the source language in such a proper way as a whole set of pinyin system of Romanization of Chinese terms and the strict observance to the original language structure and pattern. The most remarkable examples are embodied in the translation of Chinese cultural conceptions such aswhich are translated into "extracting vitality by dismembering living persons" (Caisheng zhege ren). It is the combination of Jiang Yonglin's own understanding of the letter of law and the source language and the preference for target readers. At lexical level, supplying additional information in the form of subject, pre-attribute and objects such as "the adopted sons", "the adoptive parents", "as heirs"; at textual level, rich background information in the form of introduction, diagrams and glossary are provided, in which way thick translation is employed to remove the potential vagueness and make it possible for target readers to appreciate the comprehensive and exotic Chinese legal culture. As such, strategies of domestication and foreignization are combined in subtle ways so as to foster the realization of translation goals. Seemingly, it is Jiang Yonglin's own personal preference and options that drive his to initiate the translation, however, but behind all these lies the ideological manipulation of the western world: promoting the legal and cultural interaction between the eastern and western world.

A combination of the ideology and knowledge of the translator certainly has direct influences on how translation is processed. This research reveals that the translation of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)* is surely for a long time, and in some cases remains, deeply implicated in Chinese and western interactional norms, ideology and knowledge of the translator. The translator's ideology and knowledge structure, sometimes expressed subconsciously, in turn, may be detected through an examination of specific lexical, syntactical and textual choices.

VIII. CONCLUSION

Jiang Yonglin's English version of *The Great Ming Code (Da Ming Lü)*, one of the most outstanding books on ancient Chinese legal system, intends to not only provide a perspective on Chinese legal culture but also promote Eastern and Western cultural communications. Therefore, it is not hard to observe such logical components of subjects, objects and pre-attributes, etc. and sentences serving as connecting links between the preceding and the following are supplemented by Jiang Yonglin, whereby Jiang Yonglin inclined to produce clinical translation for the target readers.

On the other hand, acting in favor of both parties, pinyin system of Romanization of Chinese terms are employed as a supplementary device of free translation, for instance, 布衣, "卜课" and "秀才" are rendered into "common people (buyi)", "making divination (buke)" and "cultivated talents (xiuca)" whereby much importance is attached to neutrality of translation, satisfying the need of target readers without losing the flavor of Chinese legal culture. Meanwhile, Jiang Yonglin seems to "biased" for source language by maintaining such original sentence structure as "*In all cases of eating things such as melons or fruits in others' gardens or orchards without authorization, the offenders shall be punished for illicit goods obtained through malfeasance. If they discard or destroy them, the penalty shall be the same. If they take them away without authorization or eat melons or fruits of government gardens or orchards or government-made liquor or foods, the penalty shall be increased two degrees. If the custodians give these things or know the circumstances but do not report, they shall be punished the same. If custodians take these things away without authorization, they shall be punished on the basis of supervisors or custodians themselves stealing.*" As such, The translation does not exist in a vacuum; rather, it operates against a background of different cultural conflicts and institutional rules and regulations.

Therefore, Jiang Yonglin's translation of *The Great Ming Code* is greatly welcomed and enjoys huge reputation in the western world, which can be verified by Professor James Feinerman's comment that William C. Jones's English version of *Ta Tsing Leu Lee*, Wallace Johnson's English version of *The Tang Code* and Jiang Yonglin's English version of *The Great Ming Code* as three basic materials for studying Chinese legal culture³.

Based on the Principle of the Objective and resorting to power discourse, the current research shows that:

1) As is evidenced by the English version of *The Great Ming Code*, Jiang's Yonglin plays a dual role in translating *The Great Ming Code*. On the one hand, Jiang Yonglin inclines to maintain the nature and flavor of Chinese culture by employing pinyin system. On the other hand, the social norms and ideology in the target system govern the presuppositions of the translator and thus influence ensuing translation process. It further reveals translation strategies adopted will, to a considerable extent, embody the translator's goals.

2) The effectiveness of the translation strategies adopted is evidenced by the popularity of its version in the receiving culture, that is, the social context. It is also proven that strategies by a translator adopted and the textual-linguistic make-up and translation are said to exert influences on the position of the end product in the recipient system. In the meantime, translation strategies, in turn, inevitably facilitates the realization of translation objectives.

³ The specific information about the status of these Codes are available on <http://www.iolaw.org.cn/showarticle.asp?id=2197>. Viewed on February 10, 2017.

The present study demonstrates the translator, influenced by both ideology and objectives, acts as a double agent while translating the text, which verifies the close interaction between ideology, discourse and power (Van Dijk 2006). Ideology and objectives function together as the guideline of translation and further helps to explain why the translator plays a dual role in translation process, which will surely help understand how the translation operates and provide a brand new approach to translation criticism of Chinese legal classics.

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Translation of Classics by JX Native Literati of Song Dynasty under Foregrounding Theory*

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Abstract—As a symbolic feature of the language forms of literature, foregrounding is closely connected with the theme and aesthetic value of literary works. Through an analysis of some classics by Jiangxi native literati in Song Dynasty, the thesis focuses on the significance of foregrounding theory to literary translation or even to general translation. With a case study of the classics from four aspects of foregrounding theory, namely, phonological deviation, lexical deviation, semantic deviation and graphological deviation, the research would illustrate foregrounding language in literature and its applicability to classics translation in detail.

Index Terms—foregrounding theory, classics translation, JX native literati

I. INTRODUCTION

Since its advent, the foregrounding theory has undergone a long period of development. In Chinese history, Jiangxi has been a home of literati and produced a great number of literary works that are still being appreciated and treasured today. As most of the classics in Song Dynasty are *shi* and *ci*, the thesis would focus on making analysis of them. It intends to discuss the significance of foregrounding theory to literary translation or even general translation from 4 aspects of foregrounding phenomena by studying some classics of Jiangxi native literati in Song Dynasty. On this foundation, the essay first introduces the definition of foregrounding by scholars at home and abroad, then analyzes the function of foregrounding language and the relationship between foregrounding language and texts by concrete cases. In the end, it draws a conclusion on translation strategies of the foregrounding language in classics translation.

II. FOREGROUNDING THEORY AND CLASSICS TRANSLATION

A. *Foregrounding Theory*

Foregrounding is an important concept of literary language applied to define stylistic process, which is also referred to as stylistic variation or prominence. Foregrounding is not merely a term in literary stylistics, and it also has a presence in pragmatics and discourse analysis. Foregrounding language is often deviated from linguistic norms and prominent language features. It can be traced back to the Czech theorist Jan Mukarovsky who believed that it was related to automatization, that is, the deautomatization of some communicative behavior. Automatization makes communicative activity regular, while foregrounding means violating this rule (Mukarovsky, 1964). Together with other linguists of the Prague school such as Jakobson, he developed the concept of language foregrounding and prominence. Jakobson also put forward the concept of literariness that refers to the abnormal use of language (deviation). The information needed to understand new ones for hearers is background information, and the more important fresh information is called foregrounded information. Foregrounding is a type of intentional deviation from arts and it can be divided into quantitative foregrounding and qualitative foregrounding. Based on the two categories, Leech (2001) divided qualitative foregrounding into eight branches including lexical deviation, phonological deviation, grammatical deviation, graphological deviation, semantic deviation, dialectal deviation, deviation of register and deviation of historical period. Halliday believed that foregrounding was a kind of “motivated prominence”. And Levin classified deviation into quantitative deviation and qualitative deviation, which was consistent with Leech and Short’s classification.

B. *Foregrounding Theory and Classics Translation in Song Dynasty*

The research on foregrounding is mainly within one language both at home and abroad. Most of scholars place their focus on how to apply foregrounding theory to literary criticism and stylistic analysis, and few have put it into translation practice. Ye Zinan (2000) believes that foregrounding is supposed to be employed in translation, which offers guidance to translation activities and benefits translation criticism. For classics translation, foregrounding theory

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is also of great applicability. In general, although the *shi* of Song Dynasty could not contend with those of Tang Dynasty in terms of quality, it had its own features represented by some famous poets. In the history of literature, Song Dynasty is the golden era of *ci*. *Ci* firstly emerged in Tang Dynasty and prevailed in Song Dynasty. *The Complete Ci-Poetry of the Song Dynasty* included more than 20,000 *ci*-poems, among which the famous authors are up to 1430 people (Wang, 2009). This is not only because of the special historical background in Song Dynasty, but also the result of the requirements of literature itself for proper methods to spread these classics abroad and stimulate the communication between diverse cultures. Under the foregrounding theory, the case study aims to discuss foregrounding language in *shi* and *ci* as well as its significance to translation practice.

III. CASE ANALYSIS UNDER FOREGROUNDING THEORY

A. Classics by Jiangxi Native Literati in Song Dynasty

Song Dynasty was the flourishing period of Jiangxi culture, of which the booming of literature was a prominent symbol. The splendid scenery of Jiangxi literature in Song Dynasty constituted a magnificent landscape of the literary circle in this phase. JX native literati have achieved fruitful outcomes in literary creation and made outstanding contributions in Song Dynasty. But the current study on translation of these excellent classics has been paid less attention. As an important part of literary translation, the translation of *shi* and *ci* by literati of JX origin in Song Dynasty is still in the state of wasteland or half-wasteland and thus remains an area of significant research value.

B. Case Analysis under Foregrounding Theory

According to the classification of foregrounding by Leech, the essay would discuss the translation of some classics by Jiangxi native literati of Song Dynasty from the following four aspects. Meanwhile, the analysis would take background information and cultural factors into full consideration so as to conduct a more comprehensive and reasonable case study.

1. Phonological Deviation

Phonological deviation means the specialization of pronunciation, involving stress, rhythm and intonation. Both in Chinese and English, phonology is an indispensable element for literary language, especially the poetic language. In poetry, phonological deviations that occur frequently include alliteration, end rhymes, assonance, consonance etc.

Example 1:

The original:

文天祥·《过零丁洋》(Wang, 1995, p.120)

辛苦遭逢起一经，干戈寥落四周星。

山河破碎风飘絮，身世浮沉雨打萍。

惶恐滩头说惶恐，零丁洋里叹零丁。

人生自古谁无死？留取丹心照汗青。

The translation:

Crossing the Lonely Ocean (Wang, 1995, p.120)

Through painstaking mastery

Of the classics, I have risen high;

But four years of raging war have well-nigh

Brought all-round destitution and ruin

My shattered country does remind

Me of willow-catkins swept by wind;

My life's vicissitudes attain

The aspect of duck-weeds beaten by rain.

At th'Frightful Shallows we fought our way.

They'd tell the frightful battle never won,

And on the Lonely Ocean I could but sigh

For being captured, and all alone.

Down through the ages, whoever that lived

Has not in death ended his life?

I wish to leave but a loyal heart

Shining red in History's archive.

Analysis: Wen Tianxiang is a national hero and writer in the late Southern Song Dynasty. As a celebrated Jiangxi native poet, Wen's story of fighting against the alien invasion having been told by the Chinese people over the past hundreds of years, with his loyalty and passionate patriotism inspired countless people to safeguard the interests of Chinese nation. Chiang Kai-shek once remarked that the loyalty and great personality of Wen was not only the glory of Jiangxi, but the eternal pride of the whole nation (Cai, 2015). Affected by itinerant poets, Wen's poetic style was relatively mediocre in his early life, which became very impressive for its high spirit of patriotism later. Although Wen's poems are not large in number, most of them are brimming with awe-aspiring power and embody the heroic spirits of

the poet.

This poem is composed by Wen after being captured so as to reflect his ambition and patriotic sentiments. The first line “辛苦遭逢起一经，干戈寥落四周星。” is a brief review of his life, and the two in the middle describe a country destined to collapse in a precarious situation. In this case, he does not get worried about his own fate, but expresses a deep sense of sadness and self-denunciation for the sufferings his country went through. The last sentence is a highlight of the poem, which conveys Wen’s love and sacrifice for his country. It is an intensive manifestation of Chinese traditional virtues. In the original poem, the foregrounding language is featured as phonological and rhythmic. “干戈”, “寥落”, “身世”, “滩头” are alliterative words, and “零丁”&“惶恐” are assonance words occurred twice. The combination of these words exactly reflects the vicissitudes Wen has suffered from and the fluctuation of his mind. Confronted with alien invasion, the poet set about to be an official and then participated in the war to resist the intrusion. Unfortunately, he failed in the war and his country was broken. The consecutive occurrence of “干戈” and “寥落” is a portrayal of Wen’s sorrowful and gloomy mood. After being captured, Wen felt extremely guilty and lonely, and “零丁”&“惶恐” multiplied such feelings to a new stage. Finally, the poet’s thought was turned into the sublime in the line “人生自古谁无死？留取丹心照汗青”, pushing the poem to the climax. While in the translation, the alliterative words and assonance words are retained to the utmost. For example, the “four”&“war” and “Me”&“willow-catkins”&“wind”. Although they are not fully equivalent to the original one, the meaning and emotions are basically expressed. “The **four** years of **war**” emphasizes that it is a long-term war with cruelty, and the “**Me** of **willow-catkins** swept by **wind**” implies Wen’s desperate fate, both of them are intensive embodiment of sadness and tragedy. Besides, there are additional end rhymes in the translation. Both the “remind”&“wind” and “attain”&“rain” enhance the metre and tone of the poem, which is also a creation and artifice for the target text. As for the assonance words “零丁”&“惶恐”, the repetition in alternatives “frightful Shallows”&“frightful battle” and “Lonely Ocean”&“alone” also focus on the poet’s fear and loneliness in this situation. From the perspective of phonological deviation in foregrounding, the target poem has represented the feature as much as possible, which in return interprets the deep emotions in the heart of the poet.

2. Semantic Deviation

Semantic deviation refers to the abnormal, absurd or ambiguous meaning of a sentence or component. Semantic deviation can sometimes deepen the connotation of texts and create more complex emotions, of which the following example is a manifestation.

Example 2:

The original:

晏殊·《浣溪沙》(Xu, 2007, p.305)

一曲新词酒一杯，去年天气旧亭台。夕阳西下几时回？
无可奈何花落去，似曾相识燕归来。小园径独徘徊。

The translation:

Version 1:

Silk-Washing Stream (Xu, 2007, p.305)

Yan Shu

A song filled with new words, a cup filled with old wine,
The bower is last year's, the weather is as fine.
Will last year reappear as the sun on decline?
Deeply I sigh for the fallen flowers in vain;
Vaguely I seem to know the swallows come again.
In fragrant garden path alone I still remain.

Version 2:

Bleaching Silk in the Stream (Zhuo, 2008, P.20)

Yan Shu

For each newly-writ song I drink a cup of wine,
In the same pavilion and weather as last year.
Would you'er return? Alas, the sun's on th'decline!
In spite of my wish the flowers fall there and here;
Th'swallows, old friends as it were, are back. I alone
Pace on the garden's flower-fring'd path without cheer.

Analysis: Yan Shu is a *ci*-poet having far-reaching influence in Northern Song Dynasty. Along with Ouyang Xiu, Yan Shu is acknowledged as the pioneer of the traditional genre of *ci* in Song Dynasty. Yan Shu is a custodian of the *ci*-poetic style in Southern Tang Dynasty, and the “Jiangxi *Ci*-poetry School” represented by him has laid a solid foundation for the revitalization of *ci* in Song Dynasty. His work *Zhuyuci* is deemed as one of the highest achievements in *ci* in the early Northern Song Dynasty. However, the 130 *ci*-poems in *Zhuyuci* are not full of “*zhu*” and “*yu*”, but “wine” and “worry” (Qian, 2012). In *Zhuyuci*, the “wine” mainly refers to “relieving sadness by drinking”, with only a few meaning “drinking for entertainment and banquet”. The “worry” involves anxiety to the shortness of life and to the complexity of human beings. In general, the *ci*-poetic style of Yan Shu is graceful and sentimental. Hundreds of years

later, another intellectual Wang Guowei (2010) regards his *ci* as worries about life from the perspective of philosophy, which indicates that *Zhuyuci* is a *ci* collection worth of appreciating for future generations.

The *ci*-poem *Huanxisha* mainly memorized the fleeting hours by describing the scene of spring and thus reflected a sentimental love for the past time. It seemed to depict the common phenomenon in life, however, there was an underlying philosophy that inspired people to think about life or even the universe from a high level. The *ci*-poem included profound themes such as the eternity of time and the limitation of life in a very subtle and indirect manner. In lines “一曲新词酒一杯，去年天气旧亭台。夕阳西下几时回？”，the meaning was ambiguous for its complex emotions the author wants to convey, which is an embodiment of semantic deviation in foregrounding. By making a description of the view in front of the author, it integrated the sense of nostalgia, grief and many other delicate feelings, of which both the two translators have different understanding. Especially for the one “夕阳西下几时回？”，it was not a simple question that meant “When will the sunrise come back”，but an absurdity that cannot be comprehended literally. What the author wanted to convey was that “will the past time return” to memorize the days. In regard to this, the first version “Will last year reappear as the sun on decline?” is more proper than the second one “Would you’er return? Alas, the sun’s on th’ decline!”. It is the ambiguity and absurdity of the meaning that brings about two kinds of distinct renderings. Both of them adopt the amplification method to make the meaning more clear. However, the first version is better in delivering the thoughts of the original text-the aspiration to return to the past and the appeal to cherish time, while the second version simplifies the emotions in the poem and narrows the space of imagination for readers. According to this, translators are supposed to understand both the surface and deep meaning of texts for the sake of making the translation more exact.

3. Grammatical Deviation

Grammatical deviation relates to language uses that do not conform to grammatical rules of the language (Qin, 1983). Compared with English, the grammatical rules of Chinese are more flexible and context-oriented. In literature language, grammatical deviation is also an effective medium to achieve certain highlight.

Example 3:

The original:

王安石·《桂枝香 金陵怀古》(Zhuo, 2008, P.31)

念往昔、繁华竞逐，叹门外楼头，悲恨相续。千古凭高对此，漫嗟荣辱。

六朝旧事随流水，但寒烟芳草凝绿。至今商女，时时犹唱，后庭遗曲。

The translation:

Fragrance of Laurel Branch (Zhuo, 2008, P.32)

The days gone by

Saw people in opulence vie.

Alas! Shame on shame came under the walls,

In palace halls.

Leaning on rails, in vain I utter sighs

Over ancient kingdoms’ fall and rise.

The running water saw the Six Dynasties pass,

But I see only chilly mist and withered grass.

Even now and again

The songstresses still sing

The song composed in vain

By a captive king.

Analysis: Different from Yan Shu, Wang Anshi is the initial JX native poet to make innovation in *ci* so as to break the traditional style in Northern Song Dynasty (Zhang, 1986). Although the existed *ci*-poems by Wang Anshi are relatively few, they completely shake off the style of Hua-jan *ci* prevailing in the late Tang and Five Dynasties. More importantly, Wang Anshi does not limited to the traditional subjects of *ci* taking love and entertainment as the core and incorporates themes as many as possible into his writing. For *ci*, most of the poets hold the view that “*ci* ought to focus on love and romance, not the history and reality.” Most nostalgic *ci* began to appear until the middle of Northern Song Dynasty. And it was the *ci*-poem *Guizhixiang* by Wang Anshi that first won reputation and status for nostalgic *ci*. *Guizhixiang* is a slow-rhymed *ci*-poem that represents Wang’s political indignation to the society by quoting stories and allusions in Six Dynasties. Its first half described the natural scene; and the next part sighed on the present situation by recollecting the past times, which embodied a deep feeling of nostalgia and worry. Briefly speaking, Wang Anshi had completely get rid of the traditional *ci*-poetic style and made a great success on the road of “writing *ci* based on *shi*”.

In a shining Autumn day after raining, the author climbed up to one of the highest buildings in Nanjing City with his friends. Facing the magnificent landscape of Jinling, he began to recall the history of Six Dynasties and therefore wrote this *ci*-poem. By making judgement on the rise and fall of the past dynasties, it showed a deep feeling of lament to political reality and revealed the author’s mind and bearing as a reformer. Being a witness of history, the natural scenery of Jinling still reminded people of the lessons from the past. But what about the reality? The author chose to state it with an allusion, namely, the last line “至今商女，时时犹唱，后庭遗曲。” originated from the poem of Du Mu “商女不知

亡国恨，隔江犹唱《后庭花》”。For Du Mu, the song stresses only sang without understanding the content of the song, let alone the sense of regret and sadness on subjugation it contained. However, apart from them, how many people were there who still remember the history? It showed the poet’s painful indignation to the decline of Tang Dynasty. For Wang Anshi, he was also indignant to Northern Song Dynasty by borrowing from Du Mu’s poem. Meanwhile, the tone of “至今商女，时时犹唱，后庭遗曲。” is intensified by adding two commas. Actually, the sentence would be grammatically complete and adequate without the commas. By cutting the line into three phrases of four characters, the comma functions as a pause that can prolong the sentence, strengthening its rhythm and emotion, hence putting an emphasis on the *ci*-poet’s reflection to the history and present time. While in the translation, the commas were omitted and the line was replaced by a simple sentence. In English, although the structure inside a sentence is flexible and changeable, it is unusual to add or omit a punctuation randomly as the meaning may be disrupted. Besides, although the four-character phrases are often rhythmic and coherent in Chinese, they are mostly loose and awkward in English. Thus, the translation “Even now and again the songstresses still sing the song composed in vain by a captive king” is quite natural and authentic, though it has not retained the foregrounding language of the original one.

4. Lexical Deviation

Lexical deviation mainly refers to the creation of new words and new meaning (Wang, 2013). Words are the foundation of content, and the choice of words is an important standard to measure the quality of a literary work. Lexical deviation has the function of injecting vitality to texts, and it is quite common in literary language.

Example 4:

The original:

姜夔·《扬州慢》(Xu, 2007, P.178)

淮左名都，竹西佳处，解鞍少驻初程。过春风十里，尽荠麦青青。自胡马窥江去后，废池乔木，犹厌言兵。渐黄昏、清角吹寒，都在空城。
杜郎俊赏，算而今重到须惊。纵豆蔻词工，青楼梦好，难赋深情。二十四桥仍在，波心荡冷月无声。
念桥边红药，年年知为谁生。

The translation:

Xu’s Version:

To the Tune of Yang Zhou Man (Xu, 2007, P.178)

As I walk along the road
Once bathed in a reach of vernal breezes
I see green field cress on all sides.
Since Tartar cavalry pressed upon the Yangtze,
The city with abandoned moat and towering trees
Still hates all mention of the war.
As evening sets in, in the empty city
Chilly horns are echoing.
If Du Mu the connoisseur of bygone beauty
Returned to life, he'd lament the lost glory.
His magic pen that described a cardamom-like girl
And dream-like time in blue mansions
Can no more tell a romantic story.

Zhuo’s Version:

Song of Yangzhou with a Slow Rhythm (Zhuo, 2008, P.148)

What us'd to be a ten-*li* thriving way
Is now overgrown with all kinds of weeds.
Since to th'river come th'covetous foe's steeds,
E'en th'trees and desolate ponds may dread
Th'mention of th'flames of war, which had o'erspread
Th'land. In th'lotted city, when dusk draws near,
Signal horns sound plaintive and drear.
Du Mu, who extols the place in his verse,
Would be stunn'd if he were reviv'd, I deem;
And I'd defy his gifts to tell the grief o'er th's curse,
Though nice are his poems on reality and dream.

Analysis: Jiang Kui, a famous writer and musician in Southern Song Dynasty, is also a representative of “Jiangxi *Ci*-poetry School”. He is very proficient in music and fond of showing his inner world by composing *ci*. The *ci* by Jiang Kui are characterized by musical and rhythmic beauty, with moving images created by various artistic means (Yan&Luo, 2015). He is renowned for the fluid and mild writing style, as well as the images adopting from the former *shi* and *ci*. The *ci*-poem *Yangzhouman* is an example that fully represents Jiang Kui’s personal style. It adsorbs some of the poems and images created by Du Mu of Tang Dynasty, and there are quantities of innovations on the level of word. The

ci-poem depicted a picture of desolation with graceful and brief language. It not only complained the rulers of Jin Dynasty about the disasters caused by their aggression, but also denounced the policy of concession taken by the rulers of Southern Song Dynasty.

The selected *ci*-poem is an intensive embodiment of the *ci*-poet's elegant and dynamic language. It mainly lies in words such as “清” “寒” “空” “波心” “冷月”, which further amplify the linguistic features of the whole text. By making a contrast of the present and past scenes of Yangzhou, the author revealed a great pity for the destruction of a regime and emphasized the vicissitudes in life. The *ci*-poem contains a bound of lexical deviations, involving “过春风十里”, “清角吹寒”, “豆蔻词工” etc. All these expressions not only reflect the profound knowledge of the author, but also produce more vitality and vigor. For “过春风十里”, the “十里” does not really refer to “ten-li”, it is merely a rough description of the breeze by concrete unit of measure to emphasize that the wind is in a large scale. Therefore, Xu's translation “a reach of vernal breezes” is more appropriate than “a ten-li thriving way”. “a reach of” is often applied to modify grass or woodland that means a certain range, here it is employed to describe “breeze”, which roughly equals to “here and there”. It is also a type of lexical deviation that are more equivalent to the meaning of “十里” in the original *ci*-poem. Then for “清角吹寒”, the “寒” is not “coldness” but “plaintive melody” that can bring people sense of coldness and sorrow. In Xu's version, the word “chilly” is applied to modify “horns”, which is also endowed with sadness rather than coldness. By contrast, Zhuo's version “Signal horns sound plaintive and drear.” is quite normal and does not embody similar connotation. In Chinese, the word “豆蔻” usually refers to the age of 13~14 of young ladies. Here the author adopts “豆蔻” to describe a poet's writing of charms and colors. Concerning this one, Xu renders it as “His magic pen”, which transfers the meaning of the original one creatively. The one who owns a magic pen is sure to own the ability to write well. While Zhuo's rendering “nice are his poems on reality and dream.” is more like a paraphrase of the original poem, thus is comparatively less attractive. Based on the above foregrounding language, Xu's translation is more acceptable and creative, and it is also worthy of learning by translators on how to make dynamic equivalence between two languages.

IV. CONCLUSION

Translation is an activity with its own regularity that needs to be further explored so as to establish an evaluation system in a more overall manner. Introducing foregrounding theory into classics translation can provide a new perspective for translators to represent the literary language of works. At the same time, it benefits to set reasonable principles for translation criticism. Foregrounding language is closely related to the literariness and aesthetic values of literary works including the translation of *shi* and *ci*. In order to represent foregrounding language better, translators are required to go deep into the analysis of language deviation and conclude more concrete translation strategies. It is unquestionable that the relations between foregrounding theory and translation are complicated and thus require to be researched in detail. In this sense, translators ought to be more sensitive to foregrounding language and manage to represent it as much as possible. In addition, the significance of foregrounding theory to classics or even literary translation needs to be further discussed both theoretically and practically.

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The Alphabetic Abbreviation Process in Persian Scientific Texts

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Abstract—Abbreviating has a long history. Lots of new services and products are distributed in the markets daily due to the wide use of languages all over the world. Certainly, labeling these services and merchandise is quite an interesting subject in the domain of language. Moreover, regarding the increasing number of organizations and developments in science and technology, the need for accelerating the process of communication especially linguistic communication is a must. This study examines the process of alphabetic abbreviation and the extent of its application in some Persian scientific journals. The research data were gathered from *The Pulse of Economy*, *Air Industry* and *Future Trade* magazines and were analyzed by the analytical research method. Among the mentioned magazines, the *Air Industry* had the highest number of alphabetic abbreviations; *Future Trade* was in the second place and *The Pulse of Economy* was the third in rank. In this article, the use of alphabetic abbreviation was analyzed in Persian and English languages separately and it was determined that 99 percent of abbreviated words were used in English scientific journals whereas in Persian journals this number was only 1 percent. This indicates the high role of borrowing in Persian texts. An explanation for the higher use of abbreviated elements is the scientific genre, which indicates that message transmission in the least possible time period is the main characteristic of any human communication, especially scientific communication.

Index Terms—morphology, word formation process, alphabetic abbreviation, Persian magazines, scientific texts

I. INTRODUCTION

Language is a social exchange instrument through which people interchange their thoughts, their experiences and their ideas. In fact, language is an instrument through which the members of a society can interact and the result of which is a social unit. Mass media plays a significant role in this regard. By taking the tools of mass media into account, we see that the press is the most important element in the formation of the public mind. This can be the consequence of different reasons including its long-lasting effect, its availability at any time and place, its cheap price and the variety of its content, which can address different groups and classes of people; The result is, an effect on the public mind on a vast scale. For a long time, due to the cultural interactions in human societies, and because of scientific developments, as well as the emergence of new phenomena and other considerable factors, new concepts have been entering the domain of language; In consequence, the need for word formation became an important issue.

Nowadays, with the arrival of new scientific explorations, the need for forming new words is felt more than before. In this paper, we have tried to study the alphabetic abbreviation in scientific journals from a linguistic point of view. One of the major processes in word formation is abbreviating. Alphabetic abbreviation is a type of various kinds of abbreviations, in which several letters or a set of letters replace a word or a long phrase. In general, we can consider the principle of economy or minimum effort in language as the main cause of abbreviation. This principle was proposed for the first time by Zipf in the field of communication science and linguistics (Zipf, 1935). According to this principle, human beings try to transmit the highest rate of information in the least possible amount of time. If we consider this principle in the domain of the structure of words and language, we can claim that some processes of word formation are done as a result of the principle of minimum effort. The main research question of this article is to determine the condition and the application of alphabetic abbreviation in Persian press especially the different scientific journals. The data collection process is done through library research. The research is done by an analytic method. This paper examines alphabetic abbreviation in *The Pulse of Economy*, *Air Industry* and *Trade* magazines. Three issues are selected from each of these magazines, so the sample size is 9 issues of Persian scientific journals.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT STUDIES

Taghva and Gilberth (1999) encountered a problem called *acronym* when they were designing a post processing system for output text information from optical character recognition tools. Abbreviations were the words which were not mentioned in lexicons, but were widely used in texts. A large part of the mentioned site was busy with recognizing

the wrong words. Because of the emergence of this problem, Gilbert developed a system for tracking these types of words. This system operated in four phases: the preparation phase, the input filter, chunking the remained input into words, and the function of tracking algorithm for the abbreviated words.

In other research, Schwartz and Hearst (2003) tried to develop a pattern for taking out information related to different words which challenged researchers with a big problem. By taking the high frequency of abbreviated words in scientific texts into account, the two researchers focused on finding these words. They proposed a simple algorithm which could quickly find abbreviations in biomedical texts. Their work was in fact, extracting words as well as their definitions in texts. Although they welcomed machine learning approaches in computational linguistics, they believe that in this specific field, a simple algorithm is more appropriate. In their idea, the simplicity factor of the algorithm means that it can get us to the aim as quickly as possible; For example, by using a simple algorithm, we can process thousand abstracts in one second and extract abbreviations from them.

Dannels (2005) states that because there are a lot of documents in the virtual world, finding the intended information would be very difficult for a checker. Computational linguists have tried to speed up the process of searching for and finding information by designing computer programs. Dannels tried to test the recognition of abbreviations in Swedish language medical texts. He has done it in a rule based manner and has compared it with different modes of machine learning. The findings of this research show that if the computer program have enough syntactic information and the pre-text processing get performed, the program can recognize the abbreviations used in medical texts of Swedish websites. Due to the wide use of abbreviations for naming equipments, methods, illnesses or drugs in science and medical sciences, this work can help a lot the researchers in medical fields to find information as quickly as possible.

Reza Golifamian (2008) has done a research in Persian and English abbreviations and the extent of their use of internet websites. In this research, it is claimed that there is a higher tendency to use abbreviations in developed societies in which life speed is higher and the people tend to apply the economy of language. To assess this hypothesis, some websites in both Persian and English were checked for the six fields of news, government, sciences, finance, sports and culture, and their abbreviations were counted. The findings of this research show that English has a higher rate of usage of abbreviations than Persian.

Playfoot, Izura and Tree (2013) in their *Neuropsychologia* article state that abbreviations are seen in different forms in English words like BBC, DVD, and HIV, which are pronounced literally. Some other abbreviations like NASA and AWOL are pronounced in general and irregular ways. Some limited studies have indicated that alphabetic abbreviation and initialism are accumulated along the main route of mental lexicon and there is a tremendous similarity between them, which is related to semantic processing. As a result, in general terms, semantic disorders are assessed regarding different types of abbreviations and the level of our understanding of each text is calculated in relation to the rate of our development regarding the level of words.

Piers, et al, (2017) state that medical faults are caused as a result of misunderstanding of abbreviations. According to the rules of selling drugs in drugstores, using abbreviations and badges on drug packages is not permitted and their application on drug packages can be harmful. They have also stated that the meaning of abbreviations should be mentioned completely in case of their application on drug packages. They could identify 828 types of abbreviations and written badges and also designed a special software for checking abbreviations and written badges on drug packages.

III. THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK

A. Morphology

"Morphology is the study of the internal structure of words. Somewhat paradoxically, morphology is both the oldest and one of the youngest subdisciplines of grammar or morphology is the study of the combination of morphemes to yield words. Morphology analysis typically consists of the identification of parts of words, or, more technically constituents of words. We can say that the word nuts consists of two constituents: the element nut and the element s" (Haspelmath & Sims, 2010). Morphology is a branch of linguistics which studies the internal structure of words and the relationships governing them. In other words, The study of the construction of a word is called morphology. It is the study of the form and the way that words are formed in a language. Each word is pronounced and conveys meaning in different ways. Moreover, each word is used in specific linguistic and social contexts that seem commonplace and obvious to the speakers. But, this concept is not quite clear and simple for researchers in language and they have to pay attention to different phonological, morphological, and syntactic field and the interaction of these fields together in order to be able to describe a word, its structure and its use in an orderly and systematic manner (Shaghghi, 2012, p. 9).

B. Word Formation Process

New words are formed by the processes of compounding, derivation, semantic expansion, word repetition, and so on. Some examples of word formation are mentioned here: 1) Acronyms: by putting the initial letters of words beside each other acronyms are formed. 2) Alphabetic abbreviations: it is read alphabetically-letter by letter. 3). Coined words: are the newly formed words with no origins. 4) Clipping: is written in short forms, but read completely. 5) Shortening: in this case, we cut some parts of the word in order to make it short. 6. Blends: two words are blended in a way that the first part of the word is combined with the second part of another word in order to make a new word. 7) Generified words: using a proper name in a general sense. 8. Borrowing: getting words from another language directly or indirectly

is called borrowing. 9. Conversion: in this case, the grammatical category of word is changed without formal, structure representation. 10. Derivation: this is a common process, i.e. adding a derivational affixes to a lexical base (Akmajian, et al, 2010).

C. Abbreviation

The speakers of a language try to abbreviate the spoken and written forms of the language in order to economize on energy and the needed space for expressing the necessary materials (Shaghghi, 2012, p. 108).

D. Alphabetic Abbreviations

The process of alphabetic abbreviation is one of the ways of shortening the long expressions in a language. The first letters of the combining words of that expression are used as a sign for each word. In this case, each letter is pronounced one by one and separately. By using the process of abbreviation, we can write the long names of organizations and institutions on plates or the limited spaces like the door of cars (Shaghghi, 2012: 108). The characteristic of these alphabetic abbreviations (or initialisms) is that each of their letters is individually pronounced (Akmajian, et al, 2010).

Here are a few well-known examples:

IT (information technology)

ATM (automatic teller machine)

E. Scientific Texts

A scientific text is an article written specifically to explain or explore a scientific idea. Scientific texts are often found in science journals or textbooks (Ensar & Eyyüp, 2016). One of the main reasons for the development of every country is the level of its production and the effect of its scientific publications (Osare, 2003). Today, the number of articles and the published scientific magazines is a main index of growth and the scientific credit of a country at an international level. Scientific articles are one of the most important tools for industry and technology because they can establish a link between scientific centers and researchers on the one hand and transmit science from the university and research centers to the industry and production sectors on the other hand. In fact, scientific magazines are a link between university and industry. It is quite clear that scientific articles which are considered as the main source of scientific information have a special place in all the scientific works (Nowruzi & Alimohammadi, 2006).

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

1-The analysis of alphabetic abbreviations from the *Pulse of Economy magazine*

By examining 3 issues of the Pulse of Economy Magazine, 60 pages were studied for each issue and several different alphabetic abbreviations were taken out. Some of the alphabetic abbreviations related to current economic subjects are mentioned several times in this magazine. For example, on page 42 of issue 16, the following samples are mentioned.

Sample 1: dar doran tahrir faaliyat arzy bank keshavarzi seh barabar shodeh bud zira tanha dar sal gozashteh noh milyard dolar goshayesh *elsi* tavasot bank keshavarzi anjam shod

(During the economic sanctions, the activities of agricultural bank tripled because only in last year 9 billion dollars LC were opened by agricultural bank).

As we can see, LC is an abbreviation which is read letter by letter, is an initialism, and is pronounced in Persian as /elsi/. It is also the abbreviation of two words: letter and credit.

Sample 2: bank *biemo* aedgham technology ba hes lameseh ensan ankeh dar avalin lahze vurud be shoab bank *biemo* be nazar miresad tedad kam karkonan ast

In issue 17 of this magazine, on page 40 we read, (BMO bank, the combination of technology with tactile sensation in human beings, the low number of employees is what takes the attention in the first glance when entering the BMO bank).

In the above sample, BMO is an alphabetic abbreviation. It is pronounced as /biemo/ in Persian language. The letter B stands for bank, M stands for Montreal, and O stands for online. This abbreviation is read letter by letter.

Sample 3: bebinid dar faseleh dah sal gozashteh chand keshvar be ozviyat faal sazman *dabelyutio* dar amadand dar hamin ejlas akhir nayrobi afghanistan ham ozv faal *dabelyutio* shod

On page 33 of this monthly magazine we read, (see, in the past 10 years, how many countries were accepted as active members of WTO? At the recent Nairobi conference, Afganistan was also accepted as an active member of WTO).

The abbreviated word WTO in the above sentence is composed of three terms of world, trade, and organization. This sample is also alphabetic, i.e. it is pronounced letter by letter. It is pronounced as /dabelyutio/ which means world trade organization.

Sample 4: hala va dar in sharayet elam shodeh sherkati keh mojry enhesary hagh pakhsh mosabeghat *eyefsi* ast

On page 38 of this magazine we read, (now and in this condition, it is announced that the company which is the exclusive proprietor of the right for broadcasting AFC races).

AFC is pronounced in Persian as /eyefsi/ and is an alphabetic abbreviation which is read alphabetically-each letter is pronounced separately. This term is composed of three words- Asian, football, and confederation and means the Asian football confederation.

The other abbreviations extracted from these 3 issues are presented below:

FDA MIT NYU MRI EBCL JFC JT ISIC ABS EBD AMC SME PR DNW POH CKD BMW NFC GT.

In general, 60 pages of each issue of the Pulse of Economy magazine were studied and 23 unique abbreviations were found in these three magazines. The frequency of these abbreviations was 85. Here, EBCL had the highest number of repetitions with 18 times of repetition in the data, and LC was in the second place with 17 times of repetition. Moreover, WTO was in the third place with a frequency of 15.

2-The analysis of alphabetic abbreviations extracted from the magazine of *Air Industry*

By considering 3 issues of Air Industry quarterly, 60 pages were covered for each issue and several alphabetic abbreviations were collected. Some of the most repeated alphabetic abbreviations in this magazine are presented below; For example, in issue 292 page 59 of this quarterly, the following text is presented.

Sample 1: anjoman eimeny tarabary ostoraliya *eytiesbi* darbarez beh ruzavary taen manategh jostojuy zir abi miguyad guruh danesh defaey va fanavary *ditiesji* baray nemunesazy masir ehtemali virayesh manategh jostuju etelaat mojud dar mored parvaz ra be surat koli baznegari kardeh ast

(The Australian association of transport security, ATSB, states about updating the positioning of underwater search areas: the group of defense, science and technology of DTSG has completely revised the existing data about flight for making samples of the probable editing of search areas).

In the above sample, ATSB and DTSG are examples of abbreviations in which each letter is pronounced separately. ASTB stands for four words respectively - australian, transport, safety and bureau. DTSG is the abbreviation of four words- department of defense, templates, science, and guide. They are pronounced as /eytiesbi/ and /ditiesji/ respectively.

ATSB is used in place of the Australian association of transport security and DTSG is used as a substitute for the department of science and defensive guidance.

Sample 2: bartarin tajhizkonandeh sal jabejaei zamini khavarmiyaneh jayezeh casb va car havaee *aitipi*

In issue 293 of this quarterly page 38, we read (the highest equipper of the land transport in the middle east, the prize of air entrepreneurship ITP, 2007).

In Persian, it is pronounced as /aitipi/. ITP is an alphabetic abbreviation. I is the abbreviation of international, T stands for trade, and P is an abbreviation for policy. It means the policy of international business.

This alphabetic abbreviation is also read letter by letter.

Sample 3: elat in mozu niz gamhaeist keh nasa ba mosharekat barkhi marakez sanati va be onvan bakhshi az barnameh havanavardi dustar mohit zist *iarey* khahad bardasht *iarey* dar sal 2015 va pas az yek doreh sheshsal keh bar ruy toseh va azmayesh hasht fanavari dustar mohit zist motemarkez bud

On page 56 of this quarterly, (The reason for this matter is also the steps that NASA will take with the partnership of some industrial centers as a part of the program for pro-environmental aviation-ERA. ERA, in 2015 and after a 6 year period of performance, focused on the development and a test of 8 pro-environmental technologies).

ERA is another instance which is used in the above mentioned text. In Persian, it is pronounced as /iarey/. This abbreviation is composed of three words, i.e. environment, relevant, and activity and means pro-environmental spacemanship.

The other extracted alphabetic abbreviations are as follows:

NCO INCO FASC CG ROE CAOC PPL CPL IR KCDC STA LCA ATR SOC NDT IECS ADS VIP EOTS IRST EORD AEW IAI UUV OMS XTI DXB PTY DSCA AIO WSO IFR VFR MATC ULD CRU AACS EMS DAO QMS QAT UN KPI SOP IMS CSR ESS DQAP DSVP DQA SEAD CMU DSCA DSSS FHSS DMSS GPS PRM ONR TTNT UAS.

From the total pages studied, 65 unique alphabetic abbreviations were found in these magazines with a frequency of 139. For example, DAO and ATR had the highest frequency with a repetition of 9 in the data, and EOTS was in the second place with a repetition of 6.

3- The analysis of the alphabetic abbreviations extracted from the magazine of *Future Trade*

By analyzing 3 issues of financial weekly Future Trade (60 pages from each) several alphabetic abbreviations were recognized and studied. Some of the abbreviations related to the current economic and financial themes of the country, which were repeatedly mentioned in this magazine, were analyzed. For instance, in issue 178 of this weekly magazine, page 56, the following text is mentioned.

Sample 1: majame sherkatha dar iran az do bod mored baresi gharar migirad aval sud naghdi taghsim shodeh *dipies* keh hamvareh az mohemtarin mavared mored bahs miyan sahamdaran va karshenasan budeh ast

(the assemblies of the companies in Iran are studied from two aspects. First, the dividend cash profit of DPS, which is always a hot debate among shareholders and experts).

The abbreviation DPS, which is used in financial texts, is an abbreviation. In this instance, each letter is read separately. DPS is pronounced as /dipies/ in Persian. D is the abbreviation of department, P is the abbreviation of public, and S is the abbreviation for service. The meaning of this abbreviation is cash profit for each share dividend.

Sample 2: banabarein safar aghay deyvid lipton moaven aval modir amel sandogh beynolmelali pul *ayemef* keh hudud do hafteh pish beh iran anjam shod faghat beh manay shoru hamkari dobareh ba sandogh beynolmelali pul *ayemef* nist

In this magazine, page 28, we read, (so Mr. David Lipton's trip, the first deputy CEO of international monetary fund, IMF, which happened two weeks ago to Iran, does not solely mean a start of cooperations with the international monetary fund, IMF).

IMF is pronounced in Persian as /ayemef/ which refers to three words- international, monetary, and fund. IMF is an alphabetic abbreviation which means the international monetary fund.

Sample 3: ankeh moshakhas ast nesbat mablagh vam beh arzesh vahed maskuni ya haman *eltivi* dar iran paein ast

In issue 179 of this magazine, page 58, we read (what is clear is that the ratio of the loan amount to the value of each residential unit or LTV is low in Iran).

LTV is formed of three words- loan, to, and valuation, and its translation in Persian is the loan for assessment. It is pronounced as /eltivi/.

Sample 4: anva moharekha *eyties* va mavad ravangardan jadid *enpies* va asarat an ruy salamat ensan pardakhteheim

Issue 178 page 34 of this magazine, (different stimulators ATS and new hallucinating drugs NPS and their effects on human health are examined).

They are pronounced as /eyties/ and /enpies/ respectively in Persian. ATS and NPS are alphabetic abbreviations. ATS is the abbreviation of three words- anti, tetanus, and serum. NPS is also composed of three words- new, psychoactive, and substances. The other extracted abbreviations are as follows:

DSSD GECF FDI FPI GDP CFTC API SUV CARS NHTSA CI IRR FCR GCC PSP SMS CIP CNN OECD KSC LLC ICB LC FATF MMA IBRD IDA IFC MIGA ICSID UANI CISADA STR KYC BOT IPC VIP CSR LNG WTO UNCTAD EPA NOAA DKNY HIV UNOCD THC FOMC CDO ICT KCL BBC WHO FBI HSBC VTM ATM POS SMS.

In total, 60 pages of each magazine were studied and it resulted in finding 64 unique alphabetic abbreviations with a frequency of 256 in these three issues. For instance, IMF abbreviation, with a frequency of 60, had the highest number of repetitions in the data, and USSD with a frequency of 30 was in the second place.

Alphabetic abbreviations for the whole corpus

By considering 9 issues- with an equal number of pages (60 pages from each issue) from the magazines of *Pulse of Economy*, *Air Industry*, and *Future Trade*- a number of 152 unique alphabetic abbreviations were extracted. The number of repetitions of these abbreviations is mentioned in the following table:

TABLE 1:
THE FREQUENCY OF SEPARATELY GAINED ALPHABETIC ABBREVIATIONS FOR EACH MAGAZINE

Row	The name of magazine	The number of alphabetic abbreviation	Frequency of repetition
1	Pulse of Economy	23	85
2	Air Industry	65	139
3	Future Trade	64	256
Total		152	480

Considering the above table, we can see the most alphabetic repetitions in the scientific magazine of the *Air Industry*, with a frequency of repetition of 139. The *Future Trade* magazine is in the next place, with a frequency of 256, and the *Pulse of Economy* magazine is in the third place, with a frequency of 85. In the following figure, the number of abbreviations is shown for each magazine separately:

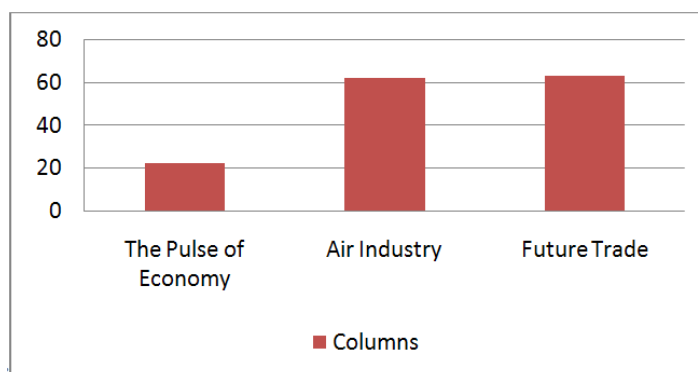


Figure 1: The frequency distribution of alphabetic abbreviations in different magazines

Another categorization of abbreviations is done in Persian and English languages separately in order to show their applications in these magazines. The number of English and Persian alphabetic abbreviations for English and Persian magazines is mentioned separately in the following table:

TABLE 2:
ALPHABETIC ABBREVIATIONS IN PERSIAN AND ENGLISH FOR THE WHOLE CORPUS

Row	The name of the magazine	The number of English alphabetic abbreviations	The number of Persian alphabetic abbreviations	The number of extracted alphabetic abbreviations
1	Economic	22	1	23
2	Scientific	65	0	65
3	Business	63	1	64
Total		150	2	152

As we can see, in the above table the English alphabetic abbreviations printed in Persian scientific magazines have a higher role in comparison to Persian alphabetic abbreviations.

In the following figure, the number of Persian and alphabetic abbreviations are shown separately in scientific journals:

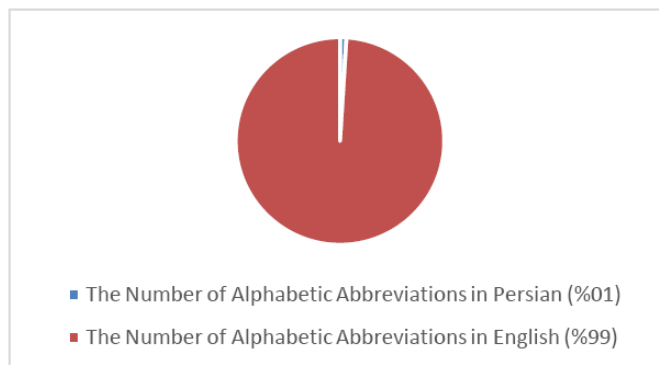


Figure 2: Frequency Distribution of Alphabetic Abbreviations in Persian and English for the Whole Corpus

As we can see in the above figure, the English alphabetic abbreviations, with arate of%99, has a higher level of usage in Persian magazines and the Persian abbreviations have a lower use of usage in scientific magazines.

In this research, alphabetic abbreviations were studied separately in scientific texts along with advertising texts in these magazines, which have a general genre and are not necessarily scientific.

In this way, a comparison was madebetween the usage of abbreviations in scientific and non-scientific texts, the results of which are presented below. In the following table, the number of usages of alphabetic abbreviations in propaganda and the advertisements in the mentioned scientific journals is given:

TABLE 3:
ALPHABETIC ABBREVIATIONS IN THE ADVERTISING TEXTS IN THE WHOLE CORPUS

Row	The name of the magazine	The number of repetitions
1	The alphabetic abbreviations extracted from the text	132
2	The alphabetic abbreviations extracted from the advertisements	20
Total		152

Regarding the above table, we can see that the number of alphabetic abbreviations found in advertisements is much lower than the alphabetic abbreviations extracted from the text. This is because this propaganda was of a general type and was also not necessarily about the genre text of the article and magazine. The following diagram shows the percentage of the usage of abbreviations in propaganda and advertisements in relation to the whole data:

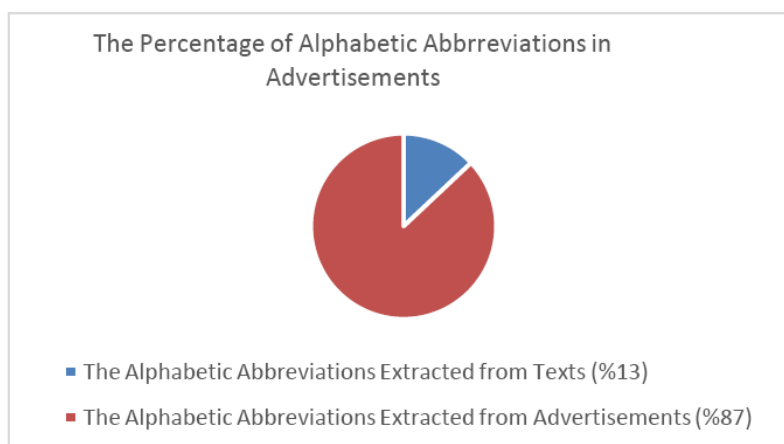


Figure 3: Frequency Distribution of Alphabetic Abbreviations in Advertisements, for the Whole Magazines

As we can see, in the above figure, it is quite clear that about 13 percent of alphabetic abbreviations have been used in the advertisements of these magazines and most of the extracted alphabetic abbreviations were used in texts, with a rate of %87.

V. CONCLUSION

In this paper, the process of word formation of alphabetic abbreviation was studied in some scientific Farsi magazines. The results show that this process has a high rate of usage in the studied Farsi scientific magazines. From a total of 152 extracted words, a number of 23 alphabetic abbreviations with a frequency of repetition of 139 were extracted from the Pulse of Economy magazine, and a number of 64 items with a frequency of 256 were related to the Future Trade magazine. The findings show that most of the abbreviations were in the Air Industry scientific journal. Moreover, in this paper, the application of alphabetic abbreviations was studied separately in both Persian and English languages, and it was determined that 99% of abbreviations in scientific journals were used in English form but Persian abbreviations were only 1%. This shows the high role of borrowing in Farsi texts. Other discussions show the usage of alphabetic abbreviations in the advertising section of the mentioned Farsi scientific journals. They show that only 13% of the gained abbreviations were in advertisements and 87% of these abbreviations were found in the texts of magazines. The use of abbreviations is a quick and easy way of reading and comprehending linguistic materials. The reason for their application is that we want to transfer information to the addressee as quickly as possible. Due to the expansion of languages all over the world, a large amount of goods and services are distributed in the markets daily. It is quite clear that naming these products and services would be an interesting subject in language. Economic institutions, service companies, and corporations consider naming their products as an appropriate name is a key to their financial success. One of the characteristics of a good name in the world of propaganda is its brevity. This has pushed the researchers in the domain of language, especially those dealing with business, to go into the realm of abbreviation. The findings show that regarding an increase in the number of organizations and the development in science and technology, a requirement for accelerating communication, especially linguistic communication by the use of abbreviations especially alphabetic abbreviation is a necessity. The reason for this is that a choice of the shortened and appropriate form for long expressions speeds up the process of communication and adds to its beauty and frankness. In this way, the efficiency of a language in providing a communicative function (in the case of scientific texts here) is enhanced.

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Critical Discourse Analysis of News Reports— Based on *the Guardian* News Report of China’s Military Parade to Mark the 70 Years of Second World War

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Abstract—Critical Discourse Analysis (abbreviated as CDA below), was firstly introduced by an English linguist, Norman Fairclough in the late 1980s. And CDA mainly focuses on public and non-literature discourse and it mainly applies Halliday’s Systematic Functional Grammar (abbreviated as SFG below). Since China announced the decision of holding a military parade to celebrate the 70’s anniversary of WWII victory, massive negative voices among the international society have been crowding in on China. Therefore, the present study was prompted to focus on the news report of China’s military parade to celebrate the victory of WWII from *the Guardian*, and use Fairclough’s Three-Dimensional Model of CDA as theoretical framework and apply Halliday’s SFG as analytic tools to study two questions: How does the reporter insert his ideology in the news text of *the Guardian* news report on China’s Military Parade to Mark the 70 Years of Second World War? What kinds of the social and historical ideologies bear in and account for the news? Through the analysis, it finds that *Guardian*’s reports overemphasize and over interpret the negative influences of parade.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, news report, ideology, China’s Military Parade

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Research Background

With the rapid economic development for several decades, every aspect of China, from micro social problems as well as every big move, has been drawing increasing attention from the world. “Media discourse is the main source of people’s knowledge, attitudes and ideologies, both of elites as well as of ordinary citizens.” (Van Dijk, 1993, P36). Hence, it is very important to study China’s images in western medias and how ideology influences and bears in language.

China held a ceremonial military parade to celebrate the 70th anniversary of the victory in the Chinese People’s War of Resistance Against Japanese Aggression and the World Anti-Fascist War on Sep. 3rd 2015, which had attracted the world major medias’ reports, however, the massive criticism outnumbered the positive messages of the parade and celebration. Seemingly, the rest of the world was hostilely over-interpreting this celebration. Negative comments and unpeaceful information were the main theme in multiples of world’s media reports and editorials. However, to many ordinary Chinese, they felt excited, proud, and the old generation and veterans who were gone through that part of history were deeply touched and shed tears.

Apparently, the observers, commentators and reporters around the world had a difficulty in seeing eye to eye with even an ordinary Chinese on China’s military parade to mark 70th anniversary of the World War II. Even before the big event, many articles released online with analysis of the behind meaning in China’s military parade were foreshadowing the enormous negative voices from the international community. The report on *THE DIPLOMA* was titled as *China’s Military Parade: A Warning to Japan and the US*. Simultaneously, over the Pacific Ocean, CNN mainly focused on the comparison on global military force between China and the USA by citing table and pie chart from authority and institute, highlighting the lockdown in Beijing and the prohibition on entertainment broadcast. *The Financial Times* editorial displayed the attitude of criticism in the first paragraph; “China’s rise as a regional hegemony and a blunt warning to the USA (*Pomp, Circumstance and Combat Vehicles at Beijing Parade, The Financial Times*)” and let alone the large quantities of critical quotations from the other observers and scholars in the article.

A report from *Daily Mail*, with the sentence “locals are banned from watching” in its news title prompted a hot discussion on Sina Weibo. Several comments and discussions with strong sentiments flowed in the blog. Many Chinese netizens showed drastic disapproval of the deliberate emphasis in this piece of news, arguing medias abroad reported this event with prejudices. One compatriot’s comment on *Daily Mail*’s message board evoked strong resonance among netizens on Sina Weibo.

B. Research Questions

The year of 2015 meaningfully flagged the 70th anniversary of the victory of the World War Second. As a member of the Allies and mainstay against Japanese Fascist in Asian battlefield in WWII, China held a celebration including activities of a reception, an evening gala and a military parade to celebrate the victory in the Chinese People's War of Resistance Against Japanese Aggression and the World Anti-Fascist War. For most Chinese, since it was a memorable and exciting event, they felt proud and strong ethos and all the reports and news covers were exactly the same way. However, English majors who utilize news reports to study English may encounter totally reversed reports, most of which were criticisms and negative information, totally different from what they had read from the domestic medias. Why medias abroad attacked China on such a big event on the victory day.

Based on this event and these phenomena, CDA and SFG will be conducted in this paper to investigate questions as follow:

(1)How does the reporter insert his ideology in the news text of *the Guardian* news report on China's Military Parade to Mark the 70 Years of Second World War?

(2)What kinds of the social and historical ideologies bear in and account for the news?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Since CDA is the basis of the whole study, firstly, a brief introduction will be drawn on CDA in this chapter. Then, Fairclough's Three-Dimensional Model and Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar serving as the theoretical framework and methodology of this paper will be detailed respectively. The literatures are surveyed to display the research and development on CDA from home and abroad in the following two parts. Afterwards, for CDA studies the abuse of power and hiding of ideology in language, the literature and research of ideology and power in language are reviewed to complete the theoretical basis of this thesis and then the connections between CDA and media discourse will be studied. At last the related CDA study on news reports with SFG was reviewed to show the hints of the present study.

A. *An Introduction of Critical Discourse Analysis*

As a newly-developing discourse analysis in the late of 1980s, CDA has been attracting an increasing attention of scholars from home and abroad. "Critical Linguistics" was firstly mentioned by Fowler in his book *Language and Control* published in 1979. Then ten years later, the term of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) was initially introduced by the English linguist, Norman Fairclough in his work *Language and Power*. "Critical Linguistics" is also called Critical Discourse Analysis. In China, majority of professors and scholars agree the standpoint that the two terms, CL and CDA refer to the same notion (Chen Zhonghua et al.,2002). In this dissertation, all the quotations and mentions of term CL are equally regarded as CDA.

Some Chinese representatives of this field define that CDA linguists disclose the complex relations among language, power, politics, social and historical ideology and decode how the injustice, inequality, political hegemony and ideological prejudice subconsciously spread through discourses mainly by studying the characteristics of discourses and the social and historical background of discourse.

B. *Fairclough's Three-dimensional Model*

Fairclough's Three-Dimensional Model has been a central theoretical framework for CDA linguists. As an interdisciplinary study, CDA highlights that the analysis of text can not be isolated from the discursive practice and the social context where it is produced.

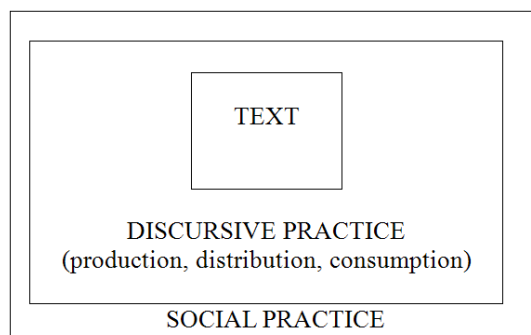


Figure1. (Fairclough 1989)

Fairclough illustrated the idea of discursive practice as a social practice within a diagram. It indicates: text is product of discursive practice or interaction process, and this practice includes the production and distribution and consumption of text, all which are all decided by condition of social practice (Xin Bin,2005). Early in 1989, Fairclough took the discourse as three dimensions: texts, interactions and contexts. Based on the three dimensions, he developed three stages or aspects of critical discourse analysis, description, interpretation and explanation:

(1)Description is the stage which is concerned with the formal properties of text, such as properties of vocabulary;

textual structure.

(2) Interpretation is concerned with the relationship between text and interaction with seeing the text as a product of a process of production, and as a resource in the process of interpretation.

(3) Explanation is concerned with the relationship between interaction and social context, with the social determination of the process of production and interpretation and their social effect (Fairclough, Norman, 1989).

The three dimensions could be illustrated in this following figure:

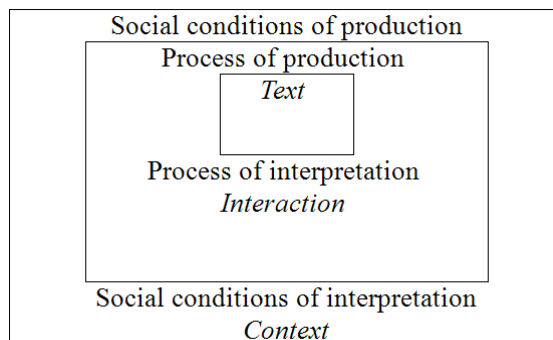


Figure 2. Discourse as text, interaction and context (Fairclough, 1992A)

We can understand the relationship between discourse and the three factors in the diagram as follows: firstly, it is the discourse as text of written and spoken language which contains formal properties like grammar and vocabulary. Secondly, it is discourse as discursive practice including the processes of production and interpretation of text, which means when analyzing the language of text, the way discourse production and interpretation in society should be taken into consideration. The last one is discourse as social practice, which emphasizes that the analysis of language use in text and the processes of production and interpretation should be put into the corresponding social context.

Later in 1992, he combined the three conceptions of discourse with the three stages or aspects, and applied these aspects to in CDA of discourse.

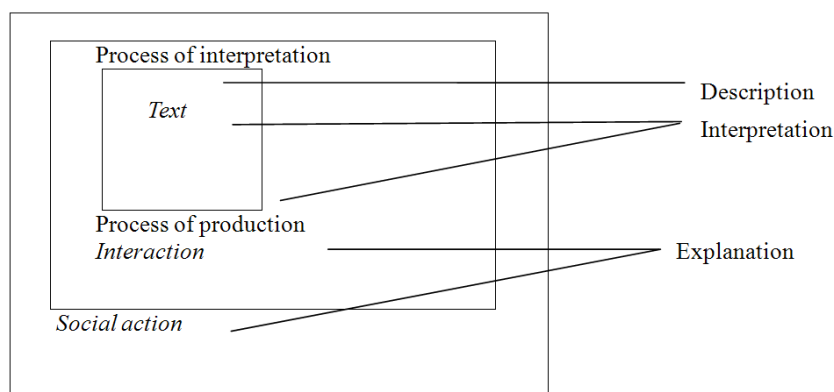


Figure 3. A three-dimensional view of discourse analysis (Fairclough, 1992A)

The conception of CDA and these three dimensions were explained in his book published in 1992. According to Xin Bin, that is to say “to describe formal properties of text, to interpret the relationship between text and interaction, and to explain the relationship between interaction and social context.” (Xin Bin, 2005, P55).

Fairclough noted “Each discursive event has three dimensions or facets: it is a spoken or written language text, it is an instance of discourse practice involving the production and interpretation of text, and it is a piece of social practice.” (Fairclough, 1993, P133). To sum up, when employing CDA into discourse, all the analysis of linguistic features, production and interpretation of text should be cast into its relevant context, because one of the main principles of CDA is that discourse is a social action.

C. Halliday's Systemic-functional Grammar

“CDA is regarded as an instrumental linguistics.” (Folwer, R. 1991, P481) According to Xin Bin, “CDA takes language as a multi-functional system” (Xin Bin, 2005, P55), which shares the same ground with the Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar to regard language as a reflection of its function. Therefore, SFG constitutes the main methodology resource of CDA.

The unique form of language grammar system is closely related to the social and personal need of language (Halliday, 1971), which means that language must fulfill the three needs of its users. According to him, the three fundamental functions of language were proposed as follows in 1971:

(1) ideational function which is “language serves for the expression of content... it is through this function that the speaker or writer embodies in language his experience of the phenomena of the real world; and this includes his experience of the internal world of his own consciousness: his reactions, cognition, and perceptions, and also his linguistic acts of speaking and understanding.

(2) interpersonal function which is the expression of his comments, his attitudes, and evaluation, and also the relationship that he sets up between himself and his listener-in particular the communication role that he adopts, of informing, questioning, greeting, persuading...

(3) textual function which is “in turn instrumental to these two, whereby language is, as it were, enable to meet the demands that are made on it...it is concerned with the creation of text...it is through this function that language makes links with itself and with the situations; and discourse becomes possible, because the speaker or writer can produce a text and the listener or reader can recognize one.”(Halliday, 1971, P332-334).

Generally speaking, the ideational function is language’s function as an expression of experience of the real world and the speaker’s or writer’s inner world; the interpersonal function is language’s communicative function, which establishes, maintains and reflects the speaker’s or writer’s social relationships with others; the textual function is the function that the transfers of information and language compose a coherent and discursive text associated with its social and communicative context. Briefly speaking, language works as a construction of people’s knowledge and thought system through the ideational function and forms social relationships between subjects by the interpersonal function. These metafunctions could be applied to explain the language intervention into society.

D. CDA Studies Abroad and at Home and Related CDA Studies on News Reports from Transitivity System

Affected by the “critical theory” in Western Marxism and in response to the long-dominant structural linguistics with representatives like Saussure and Bloomfield who regarded linguistic school as an abstractly self-contained and self-sufficient system, avoiding to cut off its connections to other disciplines like sociology, CL was conceived and laid the emphasis on one point that “disclose ideology hidden in the discourse text by analysis of society from language linguistics, application proper linguistic methodology and association with the historical and social background.” (Chen Zhongzhu et al.1995, P21).

With such a critical trend, myriads of English linguists emerging focus on the non-literary discourse-public and media discourse in the late 1970s. “Critical Linguistics” was firstly mentioned by Fowler and some other linguists from the University of Anglia in the book *Language and Control* published in 1979 in which, they applied critical approach to analyze language in different discourse from news reports to regulations to study the interaction between ideology and discourse. Then after proposal of CDA for the first time in the book of *Language and Power*, Fairclough (1993) viewed discourse is use of language seen as a form of social practice. It is worthwhile noticing that the word “critical” in CDA carries no regular meaning of criticizing, picking flaws or complaining, instead “it aims to change or even remove what is considered to be a false or distorted consciousness and to render transparent what had previously been hidden. In so doing it initiates a process of self-reflection in individuals or in groups so as to achieve liberation from the domination of past constraints.” (Connerton, 1976, P20).

Fairclough (1993) spilled out the purpose of the CDA by defining it as a discourse analysis which “aims to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination among discursive practices, events and texts, and wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power, and to explore how the opacity of these relationships between discourse and society itself as a factor secure power and hegemony.” (Fairclough, 1993, P135).

The another prominent contribution of Fairclough(1993) lies in that he puts forward and applied the use three-dimensional framework to discourse analysis for the first time, which serves as a theoretical and methodological guide for CDA practitioners. He held a viewpoint that each discursive event has three dimensions or facets: it is a spoken or written language text, it is an instance of discourse practice involving the production and interpretation of text, and it is a piece of social practice.

The most recently literature from Van Dijk(1993) defined CDA as “a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context. With such dissident research, CDA analysts take explicit position, and thus want to understand, expose, and intimately resist social inequality.” (Van Dijk, 1993, P374).

Comparing to the studies abroad, CDA in China needs catch up a little bit, starting with scholar Chen Zhongzhu in 1995. Due to the research blank, a growing number of domestic scholars have concentrated on the study of CDA. With the ardent research and arduous efforts, CDA studies in China had taken shape and deeply entered into a new course.

“The CDA development in China characterizes articles published in academic journalisms.”(Ji Weining, 2006, P114). The articles could roughly be divided into four genres: (1) introduction of CDA theories (2) research on methodology of CDA (3) case study and application of CDA (4) interdisciplinary studies of CDA.

From the aspect of linguistics and philosophy, many Chinese scholars explained and illustrated the theories and methodology of CDA. The main ideas and methodology and the relationships among language, power, and ideology were generally introduced by Xin Bin (1996). Xin Bin (2005) concisely illustrated the methodology of CDA in English news, emphasizing to pay special attention to the social and ideological factors in its production, distribution, and

interpretation.

The publication of Xin Bin's book (2005) helps to stretch the CDA studies in China to a new stage. In the book, he discussed language use in power and ideology and illustrated the methodology of CDA and application of CDA in news reports analysis. CL studies the relationships among language, power, ideology. It regards the text as the result of choice from the aspects of linguistic structure and ideology. And the most important theoretical basis and methodology come from the systematic functional grammar by Halliday (Xin Bin, 2005).

Under the theory of CDA, transitivity system in SFG is applied as methodology of present study, the studies of transitivity analysis of news reports will be survey in this session to display its effectiveness, and the methodology of present study will be explained in details in the following chapter.

On 4th July of 1986, the local court in Birmingham declared the innocent verdict of the policeman who accidentally shot the suspect's five-year-old son in sleep to death in 1985. At that night, BBC news reviewed the death of the boy, "the boy died when the policeman's gun went off". In the first place, BBC should have regarded this tragedy as a material process, reported it as other medias like "the policeman shot the boy" or "the boy was shot dead by the policeman"; however, BBC broke this event into two processes, avoiding the causal conjunctions such as because but using "when" to connect the two processes, therefore, the boy was no longer a victim but actor of the action "sleep"; the fact "the policeman shot" was downplaying as it was in the position of clause; the selection of verb "went off" turned the actor of action process into guns instead of the policeman(Xin Bin,2005). The selectivity in news reports can be realized through the choice of different processes, what's more, by investigating the linguistic features of these processes, the explicit and implicit ideology in news reports will be decoded, which hints a directions of present study.

E. Power in Language and Ideology in Language

Since CDA focuses on the language and ideology hidden in text, that is to say to study how use of language is applied to serve power order and power struggle in our society. Foucault used to say that "where there is discourse, there is power". CDA linguists deem discourse as a social practice, which means "first, the language is a part of society, and not somehow external to it. Secondly, that language is a social process. And thirdly, that language is a socially conditioned process, conditioned that is by other (non-linguistic) parts of society." (Fairclough, 1989, P22). Therefore, it decides that behind the discourse the whole social order of discourse composes together as a hidden effect of power (Fairclough, 1989). "Order of discourse refers to the specific texts in certain social field and institution, which composes and supports the social order." (Xin Bin, 2005, P31).

Fairclough used to criticize the conversational analysis, commenting that this kind of discourse analysis takes the control of power for granted. Hence, Fairclough(1992A) himself, thinks "the realization of controlling and the effectiveness of resistance depend on people developing a critical consciousness and its modalities, and challenging the mediator's positioning rather than just obeying it without questioning." (Fairclough,1992A,P8) That's what CDA pays attention to, language and ideology go hand in hand, and together they serve the power, building, consolidating and disorganizing the power system in our society.

The main task of CDA is to decode the associations among language, ideology and power. According to Chang Changfu (1998), ideology is "the ruling ideas of the ruling class, which puts emphasis on the relationships between acquired economic interests and the law, religion and philosophy which are shaped by it and serve it." (Chang Changfu, 1998, P229) "ideology essentially attempts to disguise the relations in reality, which is a reverse and mysterious reflection of the reality." (Yu Jingwu, 1993, P161). However, in the field of CDA, scholars hold a different view, and they regard ideology as a neutral concept. Fowler (1991) deems it as "the sum of ways in which people both live and represent to themselves their relationship to the conditions of their existence." (Fowler, 1991, P92). Kress and Hodge sees the ideology as a descriptive conception, viewing it as an ideological system organized from certain specific standpoint, which includes not only distorted political attitudes and theories but also science and metaphysics (Xin Bin, 2005). Thus, according to these reviews, ideology is something concealed and organized, so the informational formality of it could help to carry and spread ideology itself, which is what CDA tries to decode and reveal, the implicit ideology hidden in language.

F. Media Discourse and CDA

Thompson (1990) points out, that analysis of ideology in modern society must be sufficiently aware of the main functions of mass media's nature and effectiveness in the production and distribution of ideology. Since CDA was born, critical linguists have been attaching great importance on the analysis of the non-literal discourse. Media discourse, together with other mass discourse like advertisements and official fields consists of the analytical projects of CDA. So far, media discourse has been topping the list all the time. Media discourse, as an outcome of a social practice, news reports, like the other discourse, contain or demonstrate the reporters' viewpoints and stands. Therefore, there is no possibility that media discourse could absolutely objectively reflect and report the reality and society. As Geis has put forward, maybe the most significant right news media possesses is that it decides what question is important at what time and whose voice on what question should be reported (Xin Bin, 2005). That is to say media discourse and news reports is selective. Nowadays, mass media using English as a mediator has been penetrating every aspect of social life; "hegemony" sprouting from English and language culture has been becoming increasingly obvious; News reports in English dominate the world voice, even affect and control the public thought and awareness (Xin Bin,2005). For this

reason, there is a need to apply CDA to news by analyzing the linguistic features, interpreting it from the social and historical background, to reveal the unaware ideology hidden in language; simultaneously, it helps to improve language awareness and critical thinking of readers.

III. METHODOLOGY OF PRESENT STUDY

A. Methodology and Analytic Tools of Present Study

Present study is mainly conducted by the application of Halliday's SFG as a methodology under the theoretical guidance of CDA and focuses on analyzing the linguistic features in the material, rational and verbal processes from transitivity system as the ideational function of discourse in *the Guardian's* news report about China's WWII celebration and decoding the intertextuality of news by closely investigating the sources of these quotations. Hopefully, by analyzing the linguistic features from transitivity as an aspect of description, the production and interpretation of the news text and the explanation associated with social and historical background will be elucidated and the laden ideology within the news will be decoded. The answers would find all the proposed questions correspondingly.

B. Transitivity

"There are four aspects of English in discourse may contain ideology; they are the classification, transitivity, modality and transformation of discourse." (Xin Bin, 2005, P65). Halliday regarded the semanteme instead of the syntax as the basis of language to describe the real world, which means to study the ideational functions of different processes in text from the semantic system. Fairclough (1992B) defined transitivity as "the systemic linguistic term for exploring the ideational functional of grammar at the level of the clause." (Fairclough, 1992B, P177).

Halliday deemed that reality is made up of process, consisting of "goings-on": happening, doing, sensing, meaning, being and becoming. All of them are sorted out in the grammar of the clause which is the mode of action and reflection. The transitivity system construes the world of experience into a manageable set of process types: material process, mental process, relational process, behavioral process, verbal process and existential process. A process consists, in particular, of three components: the process itself, participants in the process and circumstance associated with the process. Those elements are expressed in the linguistic level as follow: processes by the verbal groups; participants by nominal group; and circumstances by adverbial groups or prepositional phrases.

The mother	cooks	dinner	quickly	at home
participant	process	participant	circumstance	circumstance
nominal group	verbal group	nominal group	adverbial group	Prepositional phrase

Clause as process, participant and circumstance

"System of transitivity makes options available, and which process type is chosen to signify a real process may be of cultural, political or ideological significance" (Fairclough,1992B,P180), which means that selection of different type of processes and placement of participants and circumstances are closely associated the writers' or speakers' inclination, ideology and social and historical context.

C. Processes of Transitivity in the Present Study

1. Material Process

"Material process is the process of doing."(Halliday, 1994, P103). He explains the notion that some entities "do" something which may be done "to" some other entities. Material processes are not only physical events but also abstract doing or happening. The verb indicates the process, and the logical subject is named as "Actor" and the direct object is called "Goal"; similarly, the Actor and Goal may also be abstract entity or non-human. One point should be made clear that sometimes for certain language effects, the Actor may not be always appearing in the clause by employing passive voice. Thus, the emphasis of Goal will be achieved.

the police (Actor)	shoot at (process)	the black man(Goal)
the black man(Goal)	was shoot(process)	by the police(Actor)

Material process and passive material process

2. Relational Process

Relational process is the process of "being", which intends to form a relationship between two participants without implying that one participant influence the other in any way. According to Halliday, there are two modes of relational process: attributive and identifying. Briefly speaking, attributive mode is that a participant has certain quality and in sentence this quality is an attribute, then the participant who carries this quality is called carrier. For example, James is knowledgeable. And identifying mode is identical properties of two entities; the identified and identifier refer to the same participants; for example Mary is teacher.

Another classification of relational process by Halliday is intensive (A is a), circumstantial (A is in, at, under, for, with a), possessive (A has a). These two classification can be interflowing, seeing the following chart:

mode	Intensive	Circumstantial	Possessive
type			
Attributive	Mark is smart	The book is on the table	The ring is Mary's
Identifying	Mike is the leader The leader is Mike	Tomorrow is V-DAY V-day us tomorrow	The book is mine Mine is the book

The type of relational processes

3. Verbal Process

Verbal process is the process of “saying”, within any symbolic exchange of meaning. It can be directly or indirectly quoted one. Three aspects of verbal process is namely, the participants: Sayer and Receiver, and the Verbiage. The verbiage is what is said or quoted.

He (Sayer)	repeated (process:verbal)	the warning(Verbiage)	
I(Sayer)	explained(process:verbal)	to her(Receiver)	what it meant(Verbiage)

IV. ANALYSIS AND RESULTS OF PRESENT STUDY

Data Collection

Due to the limited length of the dissertation and in order to analyze the text effectively, this research did a little change about the *Guardian's* original news texts, which abandoned the instantly short pieces of live news on that day. All this omitted live news covered the information of parade and celebration rehearsal and the foreign dignitaries' reception and introduction of the dignitaries. Therefore, this dissertation mainly concentrated on the relatively long reports of this event, which comes into being the TEXT NO.1

1. Data Collection of Transitivity

The abbreviation of the six processes of transitivity is as follow:

Full form	Abbreviation
Material Process	MaP
Verbal Process	VP
Relational Process	RP
Behavioral Process	BP
Mental Process	MeP
Existential Process	EP

“The transitivity system construes the world of experience into a manageable set of process types: material process, mental process, relational process, behavioral process, verbal process and existential process.”(Halliday,1994,P107). During the production of news report, the orientation of reporter has an influence on the choice of process; reversely, the distinct choice of process will show a clue of the reporter's ideology.

The number and percentage of the six processes chosen by the reported are calculated as follow:

	Number	Percentage
MaP	23	43.4
RP	14	26.4
VP	11	20.8
MeP	4	7.5
BP	0	0
EP	1	1.9
Total	53	100

This data collection from the TEXT NO.1 calculated the verbs in simple sentence as well as those in main clauses in complex sentences. As for in compound sentences, all the verbs including in paralleled clauses are all also calculated among 748-word news text. Since the news text this dissertation studied contained the whole directed quotation report from AP, the verbs within the directed quotations as news, speech and editorials are also accounted in.

The frequency of different processes applied and the percentage in the text have been demonstrated in the chart. With the material processes, relational processes and verbal processes ranking orderly as the most frequently used processes in this news discourse, the linguistic features are relatively obvious. Since this piece of news report is about China's military parade to celebrate the WWII as the title of the news suggested, essentially speaking, it is a coverage of an event, therefore, there is no doubt that the material processes will top the list as the chart has shown. What's more, this also matches the nature of news as a kind of non-literal discourse to tell people what is happening around the world.

2. Material Processes Analysis of the News Report

However, if taken a close look at, the secrecy of application of the material processes will be disclosed. As the study has been explained above, material process is a process of doing, involved with Actor and Goal to explore the “doing” process. The total 23 material processes are presented in details:

lable	Actor or Agent	Action
c	China military parade	Commemorates WWII Victory
c	China	Has been working to squash negative views
a	Xi	Needs to consolidate his power
a	Xi	and take control
a	He(Xi)	Wants to fan nationalistic
b	Beijing residents	Not be given the opportunity
b	Residents	Have received notices ordering
c	Beijing	Moblised neighborhood watchers
b	City roads	Will be closed
b	Public bus service	Suspended
b	Many bus stops	Sealed
b	Cordon tape	Will keep members of public away from the parade
c	Authorities	Are shutting
b	Some buildings	Are staying shut for three days
b	Nothing	Has been left to chance
b	Many businesses and roads	Have been shut down
b	Vehicles	Are allowed
	The military	Have been deployed
	China's role	Has been underplayed
a	Xi Jinping	Used unusually strong language
	Chinese people	Used their flesh and blood
	A nation	Accustomed to concealing history and rejecting
	Forum topics	Are banned

In the total of 23 material processes, there are four processes (labeled with c in the chart) referred to the government preparation of the celebration; four material processes were employed with Xi as Actor (labeled with a in the chart), which were from the quotations of the negative comments on Xi. *The Guardian* should have reported this event itself but it actually focused on some secondary information about the government and comments on Xi. Thus the readers' concentrations will not be on the parade itself but leadingly on the criticism of the event. Since the reporter usually borrows other reports to showcase his own view, so in this dissertation, we take the quotation news from the AP as the reporter's own reports. When it came to the report the residential life around the parade area, and the preoccupations of the military parade, the reporter applied 10 material processes (labeled with b in the chart) including 7 in passive voice, as "will not be given" "be shut down" "will be closed" "suspended" and "sealed" "have been shutting down" and "are allowed" to deliberately laid the emphasis on the orders issued by government and the inconvenience caused by the parade. The Actors of those material processes in passive voice are "most of Beijing residents, city road, public service, many subway stops, many business, vehicles", therefore the emphasis lays on the Actors, and the reporter conveyed an arbitrary and negative image of Chinese government to readers, which will easily prompt the censure from the discursive receivers. This is exactly the same as the report from *Daily Mail*. The material processes, which should have been chosen to demonstrate the reactions of the crowds in the parade spot, only amount to 3 in this articles; and material processes, which should have been applied to showcase the parades and the celebration conditions, were calculated none in this reports. The report entitled with *China military parade commemorate second world war-as it happened* lacks the description of the parade, the main commemorations of WWII and the reactions of the spectators but filled with the description of parade area life and preparation of parade from the negative perspectives. This kind of selectivity of report indicates that the reporter himself held a denial and negative attitude toward the military parade. The impression of China's extravaganza for big events and prejudice of socialist democracy have been long rooted in the western mind, thus when the journalist performed the discursive practice, he consciously concentrated on the negative and disapproval voice of the parade and understated that most Beijingers and compatriots were proud and excited of the parade despite the residential inconvenience and spot absence.

3. Relational Process Analysis of the News Report

As explained, the relational processes are the process of "being" categorizing into two genres: attributive process and identifying process. Attributive process is to describe certain qualities or properties the carrier possesses, and the identifying process is to identify the identified; that is to say, the two processes is to be understood as the carrier and the attribute, the identified and the identifier. Therefore, the relational process is a significant way to convey the reporter's opinion and judgment on certain events, which will also indicate his ideology and value-orientation. By analyzing the relational processes of this news, the Guardian reporter's attitude is obvious.

label	Carrier or Identified	Attributive or Identifier
a	The parade	is typically blunt
a	The parade	is to serve political needs
a	The parade	is a good way of demonstrating
a	The parade	is partly designed to flex
a	The parade	is to consolidate Xi's political status
c	Tiananmen Square	will be under curfew
c	Today's massive parade	is a made-for-TV event
a	The parade	is to redress the war narrative
	The Japanese militarist invaders	were extremely bloody and cruel
c	The anti-Japanese sentiment	is precisely why many major...
b (a)	A great country and nation	has the courage to face up its history
b (a)	To forget history	is to betray it
b (a)	To deny a crime	is to repeat it
b (a)	its future	will be like a tree without

The relational processes were calculated and the details were demonstrated in the chart. The total of relational processes was 14, among which only 3 processes (labeled with c in the chart) were the reporter's description, and other 10 were the quotations from other's comments. As it is said, all the quotations in the news directly or indirectly represent the reporter's attitude and opinion. There are 6 processes (labeled with a in the chart) involved in the evaluation of the parade, among which 5 processes are from the quotations of criticism from Chinese historian. The secrecy of the relational processes lies in the quotations about history (labeled with b in the chart). Those historical views and evaluations were contained in Farris, the Beijing-based lawyers' criticism. Hence, these processes served as the same descriptive function as group a, and help to mount to the criticizing effects. Including those processes disguised as neutral historical views, the total relational processes in 64.3 percent consists into the negative evaluations of the parade and China. The reporter's ideology and attitude towards China is self-evident and obvious.

4. Verbal Process Analysis of the News Report

The verbal process is a process of "saying". Verbs such as say, report, talk, insist, claim, stress, pledge and add will indicate the verbal processes. The verbal process is involved with three factors: sayer, receiver and verbiage. When it comes to editorial comments about the parade, the ideational function was realized through the verbal processes.

	Verb	Sayer	Receiver	Verbiage
a	Says	Zhang(Chinese historian)	Readers of this report	"the parade is to..." "Xi Jinping needs..."
a	Believes	Zhang(Chinese historian)	Readers of this report	"wants to establish..." "He wants to..."
a	Adds	Zhang(Chinese historian)	Readers of this report	"but the most of important..."
	Reports	AP and the Guardian	Readers of this report	Residents who live.....three days
	Reports	Fergus Ryan the reporter of <i>the Guardian</i>	Readers of this report	Today's.....
b	Said	Xi	The world(speech)	"the Japanese ...to yield
b	Added	Xi	The world(speech)	"in the face of...wall"
b	Said	Genera Liu Yazhou	The public	"a nation accustomed to..."
b	Maintain	China	The world	The parade is not aim
a	Points out	William Farris	Readers of his blog	Forum topics about certain history events
a	Quotes	William Farris	Readers of his blog	"A great..last long"

The whole verbal processes mainly serve as the description of the comments of the parade. The negative comments of parade mainly came from Chinese historian Zhang and lawyer William Farris, which represents the scholars from different fields of society; and the other four processes are mainly from China's official's view about history and Xi's speech about history. One of the purpose of massive media is to pursuit the truth of reality, in order to guarantee the authority and objectivity of report, most of the verbal processes are right from the insiders or authorities, carrying approval or disapproval attitude of the reporter meanwhile the reporter can borrow those quotations to express his ideology and standpoints. Although the reporter's disapproval sentiments towards China's parade are very clear in this report, but the production of this report is worth studying. To justify the criticism of the report, to convey the information that China's parade and celebration aimed at Japan, the reporter delicately arranged the criticism of China in the beginning and at end of the report, with quotations from Xi's speech and official's utterance about Japan and history in the middle. Following the reporter's train of thought, the readers will feel the criticism fair and reasonable and the reporter killed one bird with two stone. The responsibility for the views reported was subtly shunned and simultaneously, the criticism seemed legitimate and objective, and reasonably communicated to the receivers of the news.

The choice of verbs in verbal process can also indicate the reporters' attitude." China maintains the parade is not aim at ...". Unlike the other verbs, such as say, add and believe, the verb "maintain" is less neutral. It includes meaning of insisting and defending, which indicates the reporter is essentially disapproval of China's statement about the purpose of the parade.

V. CONCLUSION

Through the analysis of material, relational and verbal processes in transitivity system, the reporter's description of the event and purpose of criticism were very clear. As for the descriptions of parade, the reporter focused on the editorials and preparations of the parade and underreported the parade itself and the reaction of audience. The reporter regarded the parade as a manifestation of the global most powerful military country, the consolidation of Xi's authoritarian leadership and reproachful and harsh attitude towards Japan on historical issues, which is overemphasized and exaggerated. However, the celebration of victory, commemoration of historical contribution and sacrifice and the peaceful rise and development were all shadowed under the domestic and overseas criticisms. Following the reporter's ideological instruction, it seems that the news report is objective and reasonable, however the long-existence ideology bears in the report and once more conveys to the potential readers.

With the rapid economic development, though it is slowing down now, China threat theory has been ingrained in the western. Every move of China will be deeply even over interpreted therefore the wary attitude towards China is utmost. Japan and the United States have a partnership in Asian-Pacific region. Japan is strategically in the same camp with the European. China's parade serves as a form of the celebrating activities to remind the world of what happened in the Eastern battlefield in the WWII. As a responsible power that played an extremely important role in the Asian battlefield to fight against Fascist Japan, China's sacrifice and contributions have been underreported compared with its counterparts who fight against Germany and Italy in Europe. This step and activities have difference in essence with Japan's concealing and denying of the war as a part of the world history, the historical revisionism. The western favoritism for Japan according to their national interests, because of the USA as the only superpower in the world, accounts for the criticism attitude towards China's parade. These are the social and historical ideologies rooted in the report and explaining for the production of the news text. The irreplaceable contribution and bleeding sacrifice of China, which should have been redressed on this celebration, were once more overwhelmed by the criticism due to the prejudice and bias rooted in the ideology.

As English majors, who are learning English through news, critical thinking and language sensitivity are necessity. We should equip with a critical thinking and identify those hidden ideologies in the news reporter and strength our language awareness, and keep a language sensitivity to judge all the information we are absorbing when learning English through media.

APPENDIX (NEWS TEXT)

TEXT NO.1

China military parade commemorates second world war victory-as it happened

Last Updated: 08:36 GMT+8 Thursday, 03 September 2015

08:41

China has been working very hard to quash negative views about today's commemorations but there are, of course, many who say the parade serves as propaganda for the regime.

Luna Lin, in the Guardian's Beijing bureau, has been talking to **Zhang Lifan**, a Chinese historian known for his outspoken criticism of the government. His reading of the parade is typically blunt.

"The parade is to serve political needs," Zhang says. "Xi Jinping needs to consolidate his power and to take control of the army after ousting senior military figures" in his anti-corruption drive.

Zhang believes China's president "wants to establish the image of being the most powerful leader since **Mao Zedong** and **Deng Xiaoping**. The parade is a good way of demonstrating his power and further strengthening his control of the army."

"He also wants to fan nationalistic sentiment among the public ... which is a common practice among authoritarian states."

The parade is partly designed to flex "China's muscles" on the international stage, Zhang adds. "But the most important of the parade is to consolidate Xi's political status and leadership."

Last Updated: 08:41 GMT+8 Thursday, 03 September 2015

08:48

The Guardian's **Tom Phillips** is stationed in Tiananmen Square, along with a horde of journalists.

But most Beijing residents will not be given the opportunity to see the parade as it passes through their city.

As Associated Press reports:

Residents who live along the parade route have received notices ordering them to stay off balconies, keep windows shut, invite no guests and – at some buildings – snap no pictures.

"I am eager to watch the parade, but I understand it's impossible for everyone to have the chance to see it," said a Beijing lawyer who identified himself only by his surname, Yao. "I think watching the live broadcast will be a good alternative."

The neighborhoods around Tiananmen Square will be under curfew, and Beijing has mobilized 850,000

neighborhood watchers to report anything even slightly out of the ordinary.

City roads will be closed, public bus service suspended and many subway stops sealed, while cordon tape will keep members of the public away from the parade. Authorities also are shutting down office buildings, shops, restaurants and even hospitals along the route for at least 24 hours. Some buildings are staying shut for three days.

Last Updated: 08:48 GMT+8 Thursday, 03 September 2015

09:10

My colleague **Fergus Ryan** reports from Beijing:

Today's massive parade is a made-for-TV event and nothing has been left to chance. Many businesses and roads have been shut down for the event. For the roads that are still open, around half of the cities' vehicles are allowed on them.

And the military has even deployed falcons and monkeys to prevent birds from getting in the way of the jets flying overhead.

One of the principal aims of this, the largest military parade in modern Chinese history, is to redress the imbalance China sees in second world war narratives. China's role in defeating Japan, in particular, has been underplayed, the argument goes.

At a medal ceremony for war veterans on Wednesday, president *Xi Jinping* used unusually strong language to describe the Japanese invaders, calling them "fiendish".

"The Japanese militarist invaders were extremely bloody and cruel, who treated the Chinese people with unprecedented brutality, and tried to use massacres and death to get the Chinese people to yield," Xi said, according to Xinhua news agency.

"In the face of the butchers' knives of the invaders, the Chinese people used their flesh and blood to build a new Great Wall," he added.

The anti-Japanese sentiment is precisely why many major leaders, including from from the UK, US, Australia and Japan, have shunned the event. Many western countries are reluctant to buy into Asia's "history wars".

Despite the rhetoric, China maintains that the parade is not aimed at today's Japan, but to remember the past and hope for peace.

In **Wednesday's China Military Online**, People's Liberation army *General Liu Yazhou* said of Japan: "A nation accustomed to concealing history and rejecting the truth ... has no hope."

But as Beijing-based lawyer *William Farris* **points out in his blog Fei Chang Dao**, forum topics online on Baidu for "the Cultural Revolution," (文革) "The Great Leap Forward," (大跃进) and "Tiananmen" (天安门) are banned.

Farris quotes a **Global Times editorial** entitled "Japan Must Face up to Verdict of History" by *Sha Zukang*, former UN under-secretary-general for Economic and Social Affairs: "A great country and nation has the courage to face up to its history. To forget history is to betray, and to deny a crime is to repeat it. Only by taking history as a mirror can Japan look into the future. Otherwise, its future will be like a tree without roots, which cannot last long."

Last Updated: 09:10 GMT+8 Thursday, 03 September 2015

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“It” and Its Corresponding Translation in Chinese —A Case Study of *The Old Man and the Sea*

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Abstract—The word “it” is one of the pronouns that are of high frequency in English. It can be literally translated into “它” in Chinese. However, it is improper to simply translate all the “it” into “它” in text translation. In fact, there are only a few cases where “it” is translated into “它”, and more often it is omitted or translated into other forms such as “这”, “那” and the noun or noun phrase it refers to. This paper, taking *The Old Man and the Sea* as an example, analyses the translation of the word “it” in different cases in order to show the different ways people express themselves between English and Chinese, which is beneficial to the improvement of translation quality, and as a result, brings readers the feeling of reading the wonderful original works.

Index Terms—“it”, text translation, English and Chinese

I. INTRODUCTION

In translation practice, we encounter the word “it” frequently. It seems to us that the word is so simple, but it is not so easy to translate it in a proper way. In traditional modern grammar, according to Quirk et al. (1985), there are three kinds of “it”: referential it, impersonal it and anticipatory it. Referential it can refer to a person, an object or something. Impersonal it has no specific meaning and it can be used to express weather, climate, season, time, distance, environment, etc. Anticipatory it usually acts as a formal subject or a formal object, while the real subject or object will appear at the end of the sentence. Meanwhile, Quirk et al. (1985) classified the “it” in patterns of emphasis as anticipatory it. Besides, in traditional grammar, Bolinger (1977) believes that the word it is a neutral definite nominal. Kaltenbock (2003) holds the view that the word it is a definite nominal with certain referential function, which helps to establish a kind of referential relation among sentence elements. However, according to Halliday (1994) and Matthiessen (1989), the functional study of the word it shouldn’t be limited to syntactic structure. This paper, taking *The Old Man and the Sea* as an example, analyses the corresponding translation of “it” in Chinese in order to show the different ways people express themselves between English and Chinese. The paper also analyses the causes that lead to the differences, aiming at improving the quality of translation.

II. AN ANALYSIS OF THE TRANSLATION OF “IT” IN CHINESE

Generally speaking, there are four main categories when the word “it” is translated into Chinese: “它”; noun, noun phrase or other related words; zero form; “这”, “这样” and “那”.

A. “它”

The word “it” can be literally translated into “它” in Chinese. In text translation, it can act as a subject, an object or an object of a preposition when it is translated into “它” in Chinese. For example:

(1) But in the morning it is painful. (Hemingway, 1989)

不过在早上它叫人感到眼痛。(Wu, 2004)

(2) He waited with the line between his thumb and his finger, watching it and the other lines at the same time for the fish might have swum up or down. (Hemingway, 1989)

他把钓索夹在大拇指和食指之间等待着,同时盯着它和其他那几根钓索,因为这鱼可能已游到了高一点或低一点的地方去了。(Wu, 2004)

(3) The old man leaned the mast with its wrapped sail against the wall and the boy put the box and the other gear beside it. (Hemingway, 1989)

老人把绕着帆的桅杆靠在墙上,男孩把木箱和其他家什搁在它的旁边。(Wu, 2004)

In example (1), the word “it” acts as the subject of the sentence and it refers to “the sun” that has been mentioned earlier in the text without other words being referred to as “it”. In (2), “it” acts as the object of the verb “watch” and it refers to “the line between his thumb and his finger” that has appeared earlier in the same sentence. In (3), the word “it” acts as the object of the preposition “beside” and it refers to “the mast” that has appeared earlier in the same sentence.

From the three examples above, we can see that we can translate “it” into “它” literally if the word “it” refers to the noun or noun phrase that has appeared earlier in the same sentence or that has been mentioned earlier in the text as long

as it doesn't cause ambiguity. However, there is one thing special in Chinese. When the word "it" acts as an object, sometimes it will be translated into "把它.....". For example:

(4) The boy did not know whether yesterday's paper was a fiction too. But the old man brought it out from under the bed. (Hemingway, 1989)

男孩不知道昨天的报纸是不是也是乌有的。但是老人把它从床下取出来了。(Wu, 2004)

In this example, "it" refers to "yesterday's paper" in the previous sentence. It would be unnatural if we translated the sentence directly without using "把". There are also some cases where "it" is translated into "它们". For example:

(5) And I do not know whether the sun will rot or dry what is left, so I had better eat it all although I am not hungry. (Hemingway, 1989)

我还不知道太阳会不会把剩下的鱼肉给晒坏或者晒干, 所以最好把它们都吃了, 尽管我并不饿。(Wu, 2004)

In this example, what is left has been regarded as a whole, so "it" is used in English. While in Chinese, we usually use "它们" to express the concept of plural.

B. Noun, Noun Phrase or Other Related Words

The word "it" can be translated into the noun or noun phrase it refers to when it acts as a subject, an object or an object of a preposition. Sometimes, we translate "it" into the noun or noun phrase it refers to because the noun or noun phrase is far from the word "it". For example:

(1) "You study it and tell me when I come back." (Hemingway, 1989)

"你好好好看报, 等我回来了给我讲讲。" (Wu, 2004)

In this example, the word "it" acts as the object of the verb "study" and it refers to "yesterday's paper" that has been mentioned earlier in the text. There is a long conversation between "yesterday's paper" and the word "it", so it will be a little hard for the readers to infer what the word "it" refers to. Therefore, in cases like this, it is better to translate "it" into the noun or noun phrase it refers to. In some other cases, the word "it" is translated into the noun or noun phrase it refers to because there is more than one "it" and each refers to a different noun or noun phrase. For example:

(2) Then the sun was brighter and the glare came on the water and then, as it rose clear, the flat sea sent it back at his eyes so that it hurts sharply and he rowed without looking into it. (Hemingway, 1989)

跟着太阳越发明亮了, 耀眼的阳光射在水面上, 随后太阳从地平线上完全升起, 平坦的海面把阳光反射到他眼睛里, 使眼睛剧烈地刺痛, 因此他不朝太阳看, 顾自划着。(Wu, 2004)

In this example, both of the first and the fourth "it" refer to "the sun", while the second and the third "it" refer to "the glare". All the others are translated into the noun phrase that each of them refers to except the third one for the reason that it will be difficult for the readers to get to know what each of them refers to if we just simply translate all the "it" into "它". The reason why the third "it" is omitted is that it has the same meaning as the second one, which is close to it.

In some cases, the word "it" is translated into the noun or noun phrase it refers to only because of the fact that our translation will be more natural and fit the expression habit of Chinese better. For example:

(3) He lived along that coast now every night and in his dreams he heard the surf roar and saw the native boats come riding through it. (Hemingway, 1989)

他如今每天夜里都神游那道海岸, 在梦中听见拍岸海浪的隆隆声, 看见土人驾船穿浪而行。(Wu, 2004)

In this example, the word "it" acts as the object of the preposition "through" and it refers to "the surf" that has just appeared in the same sentence. It is more natural to translate with the common expression "穿浪而行" in Chinese rather than translate "it" into "它".

In some other cases, the word "it" is translated with the help of "把" when it acts as an object. For example:

(4) Shifting the weight of the line to his left shoulder and kneeling carefully he washed his hand in the ocean and held it there, submerged, for more than a minute watching the blood trail away and the steady movement of the water against his hand as the boat moved. (Hemingway, 1989)

他把沉甸甸的钓索挪到左肩上, 小心地跪下, 在海水里洗手, 把手在水里浸了一分多钟, 注视着血液在水中漂开去, 而那平稳地流着的海水随着船的移动在他手上拍打着。(Wu, 2004)

In this example, the word "it" refers to "his hand" that has just appeared in the same sentence. It is more natural to translate with the help of "把" rather than simply translate "it" into "它" or "手".

Sometimes, we translate "it" into other related words instead of the noun or noun phrase it refers to. For example:

(5) The sun was hot now and the old man felt it on the back of his neck and felt the sweat trickle down his back as he rowed. (Hemingway, 1989)

阳光此刻很热, 老人感到脖颈上热辣辣的, 划着划着, 觉得汗水一滴滴地从背上往下淌。(Wu, 2004)

In this example, the word "it" refers to "the sun" in the sentence. However, it is improper to translate it into "太阳" because here what is trying to express is the effect of the sun on the old man. Therefore, the expression "热辣辣" is used to show that the sun was so hot that the old man felt uncomfortable to some degree.

C. Zero Form

The word “it” can be translated into a certain form such as “它”, a noun or a noun phrase, but it is often the case that what the word “it” refers to is omitted when it is translated into Chinese. In these cases, “it” can refer to a noun, a phrase or what has been talked about earlier in the text and it acts as a subject, an object or an object of a preposition. For example:

(1) “No, I will eat at home. Do you want me to make the fire?”

“No. I will make it later on. Or I may eat the rice cold.” (Hemingway, 1989)

“不。我回家去吃。要我给你生火吗?”

“不用。等会儿我自己来生。也许就吃冷饭算了。” (Wu, 2004)

(2) “Cramp then if you want. Make yourself into a claw. It will do you no good.” (Hemingway, 1989)

“随你去抽筋吧。变成一只鸟爪吧。对你可不会有好处。” (Wu, 2004)

(3) “Christ knows he can’t have gone. He’s making a turn. Maybe he has been hooked before and he remembers something of it.” (Hemingway, 1989)

“天知道它是不可能游走的。它正在绕弯子呐。也许它以前上过钩，还有点儿记得。” (Wu, 2004)

In example (1), the word “it” acts as the object of the verb “make” and it refers to “the fire” in the previous sentence. It is more natural to omit the word “it” in Chinese, but a transitive verb needs a word to act as its object in English. In example (2), the word “it” acts as a subject and it refers to the previous sentence that has just been uttered by the old man. In example (3), the word “it” acts as the object of the preposition “of” and it refers to “he has been hooked before”. All the “it” have been omitted because the translation is concise in this way and there will not be ambiguity.

If the word “it” acts as a subject and the sentence uses simile, the word “it” is usually omitted when it is translated into Chinese. For example:

(4) The sail was patched with flour sacks and, furled, it looked like the flag of permanent defeat. (Hemingway, 1989)

帆上用面粉袋片打了些补丁，收拢后看起来像是一面标志着永远失败的旗子。(Wu, 2004)

In this example, “it” refers to “the sail” and it is compared to “the flag”. The word “it” is omitted when the sentence is translated into Chinese.

When the word “it” acts as the object of a preposition, there are some cases where something related to location is expressed. And in some other cases, both of the preposition and the word “it” are omitted when translated into Chinese. For example:

(5) The shack was made of the tough budshields of the royal palm which are called *guano* and in it there was a bed, a table, one chair, and a place on the dirt floor to cook with charcoal. (Hemingway, 1989)

窝棚用叫做 *guano* 的王棕的坚韧的护芽棕皮做成，里面有一张床、一张桌子、一把椅子和泥地上一处用木炭烧饭的地方。(Wu, 2004)

(6) He took the bait like a male and he pulls like a male and his fight has no panic in it. (Hemingway, 1989)

它咬起饵来像条雄鱼，拉起钓索来也像条雄鱼，搏斗起来一点也不惊慌。(Wu, 2004)

In example (5), the word “it” refers to “the shack” and it is omitted when translated. The preposition “in” can be regarded as transferring into an adverb and it is translated into “里面”. In example (6), the word “it” refers to “his fight” and both of the preposition and the word “it” are omitted when the sentence is translated into Chinese. At the same time, the word “fight” has been transferred from a noun into a verb.

In some cases, if the word “it” acts as the object of a verb which has the same meaning as the word that has already appeared earlier in the sentence, both the verb and the word “it” will be omitted when translated into Chinese. For example:

(7) He took hold of one foot gently and held it until the boy woke and turned and looked at him. (Hemingway, 1989)

他轻轻握住男孩的一只脚，直到男孩醒来，转过脸来对他望着。(Wu, 2004)

In this example, the word “it” refers to the “foot” that has just been mentioned and both the verb “held” and the word “it” are omitted because the verb “held” has the same meaning as the noun “hold” that has appeared earlier in the same sentence and it would be redundant to translate it again.

Sometimes, if “it” acts as a subject and it refers to a noun, noun phrase or some other expressions, the subject can be transferred into another word when the sentence is translated into Chinese. For example:

(8) The sun was two hours higher now and it did not hurt his eyes so much to look into the east. (Hemingway, 1989)

两小时过去了，太阳如今相应地升得更高了，他朝东望时不再感到那么刺眼了。(Wu, 2004)

In this example, the word “it” refers to “the sun” and it acts as the subject, but the word “it” is omitted and the subject has transferred into “他” when the sentence is translated into Chinese.

When “it” acts as a subject, there are some cases where the word “it” does not refer to a specific word, expression or sentence etc. Sometimes, it just acts as a placeholder. In these cases, the word “it” is usually omitted when translated into Chinese. There are three types: “it” in sentences that express weather, climate, time, etc.; “it” that acts as a formal subject or a formal object; “it” in patterns of emphasis. For example:

(9) “It was noon when I hooked him,” he said. (Hemingway, 1989)

“我是中午把它钓上的，”他说。(Wu, 2004)

(10) It is better to be lucky. (Hemingway, 1989)

走运当然更好。(Wu, 2004)

(11) It was the yellow Gulf weed that had made so much phosphorescence in the night. (Hemingway, 1989)

正是这种黄色的果囊马尾藻在夜间发出那么强的磷光。(Wu, 2004)

In example (9), “it” is used to express time. In example (10), “it” acts as the formal subject while the real subject is “to be lucky”, which has been translated at the place where it ought to be. In example (11), “it” refers to nothing specific and it is just a placeholder. At the same time, “正是” is used to express the emphasis in the original sentence. All the “it” in the three examples above are omitted when they are translated into Chinese.

There are other cases where “it” refers to nothing specific and it acts as an object. In these cases, the translation will depend on the context. For example:

(12) I can do it as long as he can, he thought. (Hemingway, 1989)

它能熬多久, 我也能熬多久, 他想。(Wu, 2004)

(13) “You’re feeling it now, fish,” he said. (Hemingway, 1989)

“你现在觉得痛了吧, 鱼, ”他说。(Wu, 2004)

In both of the examples above, the word “it” refers to nothing specific and it is translated according to the context.

The word “it” in the interrogative can also be omitted when translated into Chinese. For example:

(14) “Why do old men wake so early? Is it to have one longer day?” (Hemingway, 1989)

“为什么老头儿醒得那么早? 难道是要让白天长些吗?” (Wu, 2004)

In this example, the word “it” refers to the fact that old men wake so early and it is omitted in the translation.

D. “这”, “这样” and “那”

The word “it” can be translated into “这”, “这样” and “那” and it refers to a noun, a noun phrase or what has just been said earlier in the text. In most of these cases, it acts as a subject. For example:

(1) “He is almost blind.”

“It is strange,” the old man said. (Hemingway, 1989)

“差不多瞎了。”

“这可怪了,” 老人说。(Wu, 2004)

(2) He was happy feeling the gentle pulling and then he felt something hard and unbelievably heavy. It was the weight of the fish and he let the line slip down, down, down, unrolling off the first of the two reserve coils. (Hemingway, 1989)

感到这轻微的一拉, 他很高兴, 接着感到有些猛拉的感觉, 很有分量, 叫人难以相信。这是鱼本身的重量造成的, 他就松手让钓索朝下、朝下、朝下溜, 从那两卷备用钓索中的一卷上放出钓索。(Wu, 2004)

(3) It was only a line burn that had cut his flesh. But it was in the working part of his hand. (Hemingway, 1989)

只不过被钓索勒了一下, 割破了皮肉而已。然而这正是手上最得用的地方。(Wu, 2004)

(4) “I do not like for him to waken me. It is as though I were inferior.” (Hemingway, 1989)

“我不愿让船主人来叫醒我。这样似乎我比他差劲了。”(Wu, 2004)

(5) But the old man always thought of her as feminine and as something that gave or withheld great favors, and if she did wild or wicked things it was because she could not help them. (Hemingway, 1989)

可是这老人总是拿海洋当做女性, 她给人或者不愿给人莫大的恩惠, 如果她干出了任性或缺德的事儿来, 那是因为她由不得自己。(Wu, 2004)

In example (1), the word “it” refers to the previous sentence and it is translated into “这” in Chinese. In example (2), “it” refers to “he felt something hard and unbelievably heavy” and it is translated into “这” with the help of the structure “……造成的” to show the relationship between the two sentences. In example (3), the underlined “it” refers to the “line burn” that has been mentioned in the previous sentence and it is translated into “这” with the expression “正是” to show that it is of great importance for the old man. In example (4), “it” refers to what has been said in the previous sentence and it is translated into “这样” in Chinese. In example (5), “it” refers to “she did wild or wicked things” and it is translated into “那” in Chinese.

In some cases, a noun or noun phrase is added when the word “it” is translated into Chinese. For example:

(6) “It’s steady,” the old man told him. (Hemingway, 1989)

“这钓索很稳当,” 老人对它说。(Wu, 2004)

(7) It would be wonderful to do this with a radio. Then he thought, think of it always. Think what you are doing. You must do nothing stupid. (Hemingway, 1989)

干这行当有台收音机才美哪。接着他想, 老是惦记着这玩意儿。想想你正在干的事情吧。你哪能干蠢事啊。(Wu, 2004)

In example (6), the word “it” refers to “the line” in the previous paragraph and it is translated into “这钓索” rather than “这”. In example (7), the underlined word “it”, which acts as the object of the preposition “of”, refers to the “radio” in the previous sentence and it is translated into “这玩意儿” in Chinese.

III. CONCLUSION

From the analysis above, we can see that the word “it” is not always literally translated into “它” in Chinese. It is often omitted or translated into other forms because Chinese pays more attention to parataxis while English attaches more importance to hypotaxis. Moreover, sometimes the subject “it” is transferred into another one such as a personal pronoun for the reason that Chinese focuses more on the person. In summary, we should translate according to the habit of the target language to make our translation more natural, which will help the readers appreciate the original works better.

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The Effect of Modified vs. Authentic Input on Iranian EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—The present study investigated the effect of authentic input as a classroom activity on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. This study intended to determine whether authentic reading materials could enhance Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension at the upper-intermediate level. To achieve this goal, 46 language learners were randomly selected from 60 ones who attended Shokoh English Language Institute in Rasht, Iran. Quick Placement Test was conducted to homogenize the participants. They were divided into two groups: the experimental and control groups. The groups experienced identical conditions during the study except for their exposure to the independent variable. After administering the pretest, the participants in the experimental group received the treatment. After eight sessions of the treatment, the posttest was administered to both groups of the study to find out the possible effect of authentic reading materials (independent variable) on the participants' reading comprehension skill (dependent variable). The results indicated that in the experimental group EFL learners' improvement in reading comprehension was significantly greater than those in the control group. This research is meant to improve EFL classes with respect to reading skill and to help English language publishers and teachers to see the unquestioning value of authentic texts.

Index Terms—authentic input, modified input, reading comprehension, EFL classroom

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is considered one of the most important skills that EFL students need to acquire. According to Bowman, Levine, Waite, and Gendron (2010), reading is important not only in developing language intuition and determining academic success, but also for completing certain task. However, one measure which is used to make the process of teaching and learning more effective is related to selecting and adapting reading materials so that they can improve students' comprehension and vocabulary acquisition. Thus, the teacher should provide the students with the texts that can motivate and encourage them to keep reading eagerly.

Acquiring reading skill requires one to be able to comprehend the text itself. The researchers and experts have emphasized the important role that input comprehension plays in second language acquisition (SLA) theory. It is based on the fact that mere exposure to the target language does not provide language learners with the ideal condition. Investigations and studies have proved that input must be comprehended and digested by the learner if it is to assist the acquisition process. However, one of the critical problems that EFL students face is the lack of appropriate reading materials. Consequently, in many cases, reading has been ignored by most students due to the difficulty of understanding and comprehending the reading passages.

Without appropriate reading texts that suit them, students spend long hours in the classroom with poor achievement. Too often, foreign language reading texts are either too difficult or too easy for students. Students' performance varies according to the type of reading texts given to them. Moreover, many published reading textbooks in Iran, at present, often include the recorded materials of the written language in standard and formal English. As a result, the content of these materials is outdated with no contact with the actual world. Students feel bored if they always read the outdated materials, whose content is far away from their real life (Martinez, 2002). By introducing authentic materials to language learners, the instructors can help them to acquire a kind of independency when face the real life context (Larsen-Freeman, 2000).

Many language researchers and teachers consider authentic materials as powerful motivators because they are "more interesting or stimulating than artificial or non-authentic materials" (Peacock, 1997, p.144). One of the proponents of this view is Nuttall (1996) who states that "authentic texts can be motivating because they are proof that the language is used for real-life purposes by real people" (p. 172). Berardo (2006) found the advanced learners in his own classroom "highly motivated" because they found the authentic materials more "interesting", "stimulating" and "up to date" (p.66) than the traditional textbooks.

Many authors (e.g. Field, 1998; Porter & Roberts, 1981; Rings, 1986) claim that authentic materials are beneficial and advantageous to the foreign language classroom. The satisfactory outcome of any language program is "to prepare our students to cope with English outside the classroom" (Hafernik & Surguine, 1979, p. 341). Thus it is strongly recommended that students experience the type of language that they are likely to encounter in the actual real world (Bacon, 1992; Ur, 1984). The other important advantage of authentic materials is that they "contain a wide variety of text types, language styles not easily found in conventional teaching materials" (Berardo, 2006, p. 65).

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The term *authentic material* has been defined in different ways by researchers and experts. At first it may be helpful to look at a few definitions. Peacock (1997) defines authentic materials as the ones produced "to fulfil some social purpose in the language community ... that is, materials not produced for second language learners" (p. 146). Wallace (1992) believes that authentic materials are "real-life texts, not written for pedagogic purposes" (p.145). Morrow (1977) defines authentic text as "a stretch of real language, produced by a real speaker or writer for a real audience and designed to convey a real message of some sort" (p. 13). Harmer (1983) expresses his definition of this term in the following way: "Authentic texts (either written or spoken) are those which are designed for native speakers: they are real texts designed not for language students, but for the speakers of the language in question" (p. 146). Berardo (2006) differentiates between the authentic texts and non-authentic texts by pointing out that the language and structures of non-authentic materials are "artificial and unvaried", consequently, "make them very unlike anything that the learner will encounter in the real world and very often they do not reflect how the language is really used" (pp. 61-62).

The other key term, *modified material*, refers to textbooks or workbooks that are specially designed for pedagogical purposes. The language of modified materials has usually been modified and adjusted according to the learning objectives and level of learners and their abilities. According to Bacon and Finnemann (1990), the main difference between authentic and non-authentic or modified materials lies on the naturalness of language used. Authentic materials mirror the natural language used by the real people in the real life. No doubt every EFL learner wishes to be able to use her/his knowledge of language in the real situations in the actual world. Guariento & Morely (2001) emphasize that nowadays language instructors are more conscious of the need to improve students' skills and make them ready for the real life communication, therefore, "teachers endeavour to simulate this world in the classroom" (p. 347).

Every EFL learner tries to master English language in order to be able to use it in actual real world. Now one wonders whether it is right to teach the artificial English language textbooks that are designed merely for language learning purposes and contain unnatural or artificial language. As Larsen-Freeman (2000) argues, when teachers are concerned with helping their students to develop reading skills, they should evaluate and improve not only their teaching methods but also teaching materials. Accordingly, the purpose of the present study is to focus on the effects of using authentic and modified text materials on learners' reading comprehension ability, which is very essential in the area of teaching English since it is one of the four basic language skills and it plays an important role in learning language and achieving higher levels of language proficiency.

A remarkable number of research projects and investigations have reported that comparing with modified texts, authentic texts are significantly more effective in improving students' four language skills: reading, writing, speaking and listening. Proponents of this view include (Guariento & Morley, 2001; Paltridge, 2001; Peacock, 1997; Shrum & Glisan, 2000). For example, several studies have shown that oral language development is improved when the practice incorporates authentic materials (Bacon & Finneman, 1990; Miller, 2005; Otte, 2006; Thanajaro, 2000). Research also supports the notion that authentic materials can enhance reading comprehension by introducing students to new vocabulary and expressions (Bacon & Finneman, 1990; Berardo, 2006; Otte, 2006) investigated whether aural authentic texts improved the listening comprehension skills of adult ESL students enrolled in an advanced listening course. His study proved that authentic materials developed the students' listening comprehension skills. Miller (2003), who conducted an investigation of authentic lectures, found that modified academic listening textbooks do not provide the students with the necessary skills to master the real lectures delivered at universities.

Besides the linguistic advantages, authentic materials have some non-linguistic advantages, too. All of us are aware of the significant role that motivation plays in a successful learning process, especially language learning. Many researchers (e.g., Allwright, 1979; Freeman & Holden, 1986; Gilmore, 2007; Little & Singleton, 1991; Sherman, 2003) believe that authentic materials have a strong positive effect on motivation. They believe that authentic materials can increase student motivation in the language classroom because they are more interesting and enjoyable. Kilickaya (2004) points out that authentic materials have positive effect on the learners' motivation, because they feel that they are practicing a real language used beyond the classroom. Both Thanajaro (2000) and Otte (2006) in their own studies proved that authentic materials increase learners' motivation. Berardo (2006) concludes that authentic materials are "highly motivating, giving a sense of achievement when understood and encourage further reading" (p. 67).

As it has been discussed authentic materials play significant role in increasing the learners' motivation for learning, and they provide a life-like setting where the learner can practice and improve her/his language skills. Nevertheless as Kilickaya (2004) points out there are still some teachers who are reluctant to use authentic materials in their own classrooms because they believe that these texts contain sophisticated language, complex structure and unusual vocabulary, consequently, they would not be suitable for the students at lower-level classes. For instance, Omaggio

(1986) warns the teachers about the risks of using "unedited authentic materials" in their classrooms. He claims that since authentic texts are "random in respect to vocabulary, structure, functions, content, situation and length" they are actually impractical and highly problematic for the language instructors to "integrate successfully into the curriculum" (p.128). There were some researches with disappointing outcomes too. Kienbaum, Russell & Welty (1986) who researched into the effect of authentic materials, found no statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups. However, the results of an attitude survey revealed that all the students reacted favorably to the absence of traditional texts. Furthermore, some of the teachers complained that using authentic materials imposed new challenges on them. They claimed that finding suitable authentic texts, planning exercises and drills required considerable extra preparation time. Some other scholars like Guariento & Morley (2001) again recommend the teachers at lower levels to select the texts that have "lexical and syntactic simplicity and content familiarity" otherwise the students may "feel frustrated, confused, and ... demotivated" (p. 348). Ur (1996) also warns the teachers against using authentic texts "with less proficient learners" because it might be "frustrating and counter-productive" (p.150). Indeed some of the EFL teachers may wonder, "are authentic materials too random and impractical for the classroom or can the right tasks alleviate those problems?" (Miller, 2005, p.12). No doubt, at intermediate and advanced levels a wide range of authentic materials are suitable for the classroom. However, when we are dealing with lower level classes, we should be more cautious. In fact the key of success lies in simplicity at both surface and deep layers of language: lexicon, syntax and culture.

The results of the above investigations, researches and studies have proved that the advantages of using authentic materials in EFL/ESL classrooms outweigh the disadvantages. Therefore, teachers would benefit from using authentic reading texts to improve their students' reading comprehension skills.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study was an experimental investigation on the effect of modified vs. authentic input on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension. It utilized a quantitative research method using a true-experimental design to test whether modified or authentic input has any effect on Iranian EFL learners' reading comprehension.

A. *Participants*

The present study investigated the effect of authentic input on Iranian EFL learners reading comprehension skill. To achieve this goal 46 EFL upper-intermediate level students (aged 16-25) were selected from the English learners enrolled in female adults' classes at Shokoh English Language Institute in Rasht, Iran.

B. *Materials and Procedures*

The present study comprised of five steps including administering QPT, random assignment, administering pre-test, applying experimental treatment to the participants, and administering post-test. In order to select a homogeneous sample the Quick Placement Test (QPT) was administered to 60 students. The test consisted of three parts with 60 items. Based on the standard of the test, the allotted time was 60 minutes. Having selected the participants based on the result of proficiency test, they were randomly assigned to the experimental and control groups. The researcher administered a pretest on the dependent variable (reading comprehension skill). Pretest and posttest designs compare students' performance before the treatment with their performance following the treatment.

Two types of material were used in this study: authentic materials and inauthentic materials. The reading materials and activities used in the control group were chosen from American English File (3) (Oxenden & Latham-Koeing, 1997) that was used as the course book in the English language institute. The reading materials used for the experimental group were chosen from newspapers, internet magazine scripts and literature. Due to the difficulty of grading the authentic materials, the chosen authentic texts were validated by 4 teachers in the English language institute. All four teachers approximately confirmed that the authentic texts chosen for the experimental group matched with the students' level in terms of vocabulary, structure, culture and overall understanding of the texts. The pretest was administered to compare students' performance before the treatment with their performance following the treatment. An IELTS reading test was given to both experimental and control groups to assess the reading comprehension ability of them. After administration of the pretest, the treatment was carried out for 16 sessions for the experimental group and the placebo for the control group. Finally, to figure out the effect of the independent variables on the reading comprehension ability of the students, and to determine to what extent the treatment resulted in learning, an IELTS posttest was administered to the both groups. The researcher then compared the two groups' scores on the posttest.

The data were analyzed using SPSS statistical package, version 22. Based on the nature of the study, mean and standard deviation were computed for the pre and posttests scores collected from all participants. Then, a Paired Samples t-test and a one-way ANOVA were used in order to test whether there's a statistically significant difference between the means of the before-treatment test and the after-treatment test scores. Normality tests were used to check the normality of distribution. The procedures were conducted to figure out if authentic input would lead to better reading comprehension ability than modified input among Iranian EFL learners. Based on this premise, the null hypothesis "There is no statistically significant difference between the effect of using modified input or authentic input on the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners comparing" was presented.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

To select homogenous sample, a total number of 46 EFL learners were selected out of 60 EFL learners who attended the QPT test and those who scored within the range of 31 to 40 in the test were selected as upper-intermediate group for the present study.

TABLE 4.1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE QPT SCORES

N	Valid	60
	Missing	0
Mean		27.77
Median		26.00
Mode		24
Std. Deviation		4.826
Variance		31.742
Skewness		1.084
Std. Error of Skewness		.261
Kurtosis		.225
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.463
Range		22
Minimum		17
Maximum		41
Sum		2875

Based on the findings of group statistics for the QPT scores (Table 4.1) that was given for picking out uniform sample with respect to general foreign language proficiency. Scores within the domain of 0-15 are considered Beginners, 16-23 (Elementary), 24-30 (Pre intermediate), and 31-40 (upper intermediate). The reliability of the reading comprehension pretest and posttest was estimated through Cronbach's Alpha. The findings of the reliability analysis are presented in Table 4.2.

TABLE 4.2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES

	Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items	N of sample
Reading comprehension (pretest)	.825	32	46
Reading comprehension (posttest)	.796	32	46

Based on the reliability criterion scale recommended by Barker, Pistrang, and Elliott (1994), the reliability of the pre-test ($\alpha_{\text{pre-test}} = .825$) and post-test ($\alpha_{\text{post-test}} = .796$) of reading comprehension estimated was acceptably good and reliably appropriate for the analysis of the results.

A. Descriptive Statistics for Pretest and Posttest

According to Table 4.3, the mean score of the control group in the pretest is 12.60 and the minimum and maximum scores are 13 and 24, respectively. The mean score of the experiment group is 12.50 and the range of scores is from 13 to 25.

TABLE 4.3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES

Statistic	Mean	Lower Bound	Pretest scores		Posttest scores	
			control group	experimental group	control group	experimental group
			12.60	12.50	13.25	20.56
95%Confidence Interval for Mean		Upper Bound	11.18	11.49	13.48	19.14
			15.03	14.52	15.11	22.95
5% Trimmed Mean			12.46	12.46	12.62	20.70
Variance			32.29	24.31	29.46	40.01
Std. Deviation			5.53	4.25	5.89	5.23
Minimum			13.00	13.00	14.00	16.00
Maximum			24.00	25.00	27.00	31.00

The mean score of the control group in the post-test is 13.25 and the minimum and maximum scores are 14 and 27, respectively. The mean score of the experiment group is 20.56 and the range of scores is from 16 to 31.

As illustrated in Table 4.3, there was no statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups on the reading comprehension pretest ($p > .05$). Thus, as Figure 4.1 displays, before receiving the treatment, both the experimental and control groups had the same proficiency level in terms of their reading comprehension ability.

B. Assessing the Normality of the Distributions

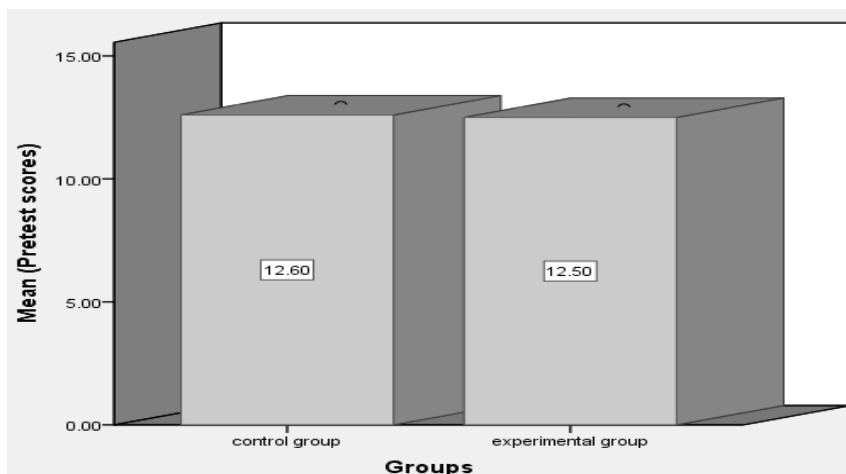


Figure 4.1 The comparison of the mean scores for the pretest scores

The assumption of normality was examined before running the main statistical analyses. To check the normality of the posttest scores the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality was run. This was to confirm that parametric statistics could legitimately be applied to this case study. Table 4.4 displays the results of the test.

TABLE 4.4
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

Posttest scores	
Kolmogorov-Smirnov	.896
Asymp. Sig.(2-tailed)	.399

As Table 4.4 illustrates, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z equals .896 and the p-value is .399. We assume that the sampling distribution of the mean is normal thus parametric statistics could be used legitimately. A Pretest and posttest design is to compare the participants' performance before the treatment with their performance after receiving the treatment. In a pretest and posttest design, the researcher could measure the immediate effect of the given treatment. The main purpose was to determine to what extent the treatment resulted in improving the students' reading comprehension skill. At first the researchers were to find out whether the treatment was effective in developing the participants' reading comprehension skill from a statistical point of view. Thus, a paired-sample t-test was run. The results of the test are displayed in Tables 4.5 and 4.6.

TABLE 4.5
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

groups		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Control group	Pair 1 Pretest scores	12.60	23	6.51	1.188
	Posttest scores	12.80	23	6.20	1.131
Experimental group	Pair 1 Pretest scores	12.50	23	5.43	.991
	Posttest scores	20.56	23	6.40	1.169

The mean score of the control group for the reading comprehension test improved from (M= 12.60) in pretest to (12.80) in posttest; that of the experimental group progressed from (M= 12.50) in pretest to (20.56) in posttest. As depicted in Tables 4.6, and 4.7 below, both control and experimental groups changed from pretest to posttest. Based on the results of paired t-tests, this improvement was statistically significant simply for the experimental group ($P > .05$), but not for the control group ($P > .05$). In other words, the experimental group showed a significant improvement over the time as compared to the control group in the posttest.

TABLE 4.6
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR READING COMPREHENSION PRETEST AND POSTTEST

Groups		Paired Differences	Paired Differences			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
			Mean	Std. Dev.	Std. Error Mean				
control group	Pair 1 Pretest scores	-0.20	2.35	.42	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		-0.46	29	.64
	Posttest scores				Lower	Upper			
experimental group	Pair 1 Pretest scores	-8.06	3.99	.72	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		-11.07	29	.00
	Posttest scores				Lower	Upper			

According to Table 4.6, since all p-values are less than .05 it is confirmed that the treatment has significantly improved the reading comprehension ability of the participants. A one-way ANOVA test was performed on posttest scores to determine if a statistically significant difference existed between the experimental group and the control group

in the level of reading comprehension as measured using raw scores from the reading comprehension posttest. The result of this test is presented Table 4.7.

TABLE 4.7
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

	Type III Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	216.600	1	216.600	13.861	.000

As Table 4.7 illustrates, the p-value is .000. In other words, the mean-score of the experimental group is significantly different from the mean-score of the control group. Since the mean-score of the experimental group on posttest is 20.56 and the mean-score of the control group on the posttest is 12.80, it can be claimed that the experimental group has outperformed the control group. Since there was a statistically significant difference between the means ($p < .05$), the null hypothesis "There is no statistically significant difference between the effect of using modified input or authentic input on the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners comparing" was rejected.

C. Results of Hypothesis Testing

One of the advantages of a pretest and posttest design is that the researchers can recognize and determine the immediate effect of the treatment given to the experimental group. Before the treatment, the participants of the both groups sat for a pretest. To determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the scores of the two groups in pretest, a paired sample t-test was run. The Sig. value was reported to be above the cut-off of 0.05. This indicated that the two groups did not perform differently on the pretest. The experimental group received the treatment. After that the posttest was conducted. To determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the scores of the control and experimental groups on the posttest, another paired sample t-test was run. This time our Sig value was less than 0.05, indicating a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the groups on the posttest. A one-way ANOVA test was performed on posttest scores to determine whether there was any statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups. Results of the study indicated that, the null hypothesis of this study was rejected. It was concluded from the results that authentic materials could be more effective than modified materials in developing the reading comprehension skill of EFL learners at the upper-intermediate level. The following figure depicts the two groups' scores on the posttest at the end of the study.

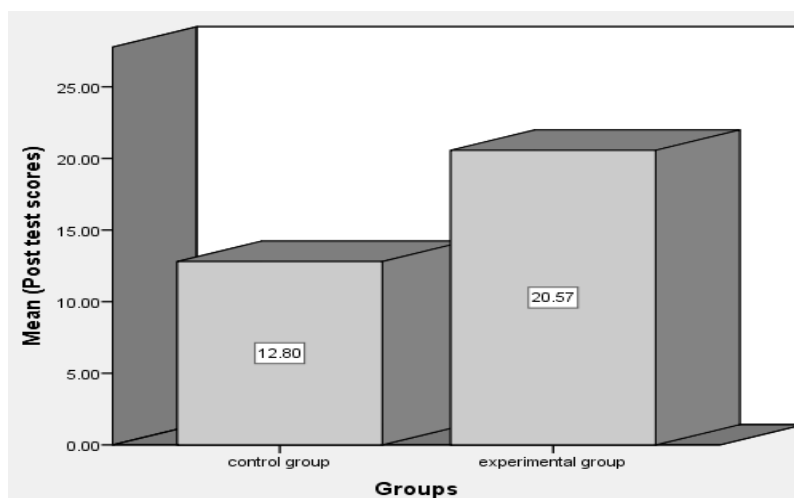


Figure 4.2. The comparison between the mean scores of control and experimental groups on posttest

As Figure 4.2 indicates, although the two groups were homogenous in terms of their reading comprehension as depicted by the results of the pretest at the beginning of the study, on the posttest the experimental group that received the experimental treatment significantly performed better than the control group that received the routine or traditional treatment.

According to the finding, the null hypothesis "There is no statistically significant difference between the effect of using modified input or authentic input on the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners comparing" was rejected. On the basis of the results the researchers claim that authentic materials were more effective than modified materials in improving the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners.

V. DISCUSSION

The present study investigated the impact of authentic and inauthentic materials on improving the reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. The researchers have found evidence for a strong relationship between authentic texts and the reading comprehension ability of upper-intermediate learners. Now they can claim that authentic reading materials can increase students' reading comprehension in an EFL situation at upper-intermediate level. In other

words, the analysis of obtained data from pretests and posttests revealed that the use of authentic reading materials in EFL classroom enhanced students' reading comprehension ability. The students' reading comprehension appeared to improve significantly after exposure to authentic materials in the classroom.

The advantageous of using authentic materials in EFL/ESL classrooms have been increasingly acknowledged. Empirical studies (e.g., Bacon & Finneman, 1990; Miller, 2005; Otte, 2006; Thanajaro, 2000; Yi, 1994) have proved that by providing opportunity for language learners to read authentic texts, good results can be achieved. These findings are supported by some other scholars (e.g., Bacon & Finneman, 1990; Berardo, 2006; Dornyei & Csizer, 2002; Guariento & Morley, 2001; Peacock, 1997; Porter & Roberts, 1981; Rogers & Medley, 1988). In other words, by incorporating authentic materials into the language curriculum, students are empowered to join the real world and enjoy the experience of effective communication. Because as scholars such as (Harmer, 1983; Morrow, 1977; Wallace, 1992; Wilkins, 1976) emphasize, students experience using the "real language" produced by the "real speaker" who intends to convey a "real message" to the "real audience."

However, the finding is in contrast with some researches. Yi (1994) investigated the effects of using authentic versus edited texts on Korean and Japanese ESL learners at lower level of proficiency. According to their performance data, the two different types of texts had already the same impact on the learners' reading comprehension skills. In addition, Kienbaum, et al. (1986) who compared the impact of using traditional second language instruction and a communicative approach in second year French, German, and Spanish courses, found no significant difference between the experimental and control group. Nevertheless, an attitude survey showed that authentic materials increased the motivation of the experimental group. Moreover, the result of the study done by Aspari (2014) revealed that the use of authentic material in teaching reading did not significantly improve students' reading comprehension. In other words, the study indicated that the use of authentic reading text in comparison to created materials (non-authentic reading text) did not produce significantly better learning outcomes.

VI. CONCLUSION

Due to its importance, a remarkable number of researches and studies have explored what constitute authentic input, why it is important, what makes it more effective in the language classrooms and how lesson planners and curriculum designers can support it. This study also examined the impact of using authentic input on the learner's reading comprehension skills in EFL classrooms. Our findings have proved that exposure to authentic materials has a positive impact on students' reading comprehension skills. The results from this study indicate that authentic input is more interesting and inspirational than artificial exercises and drills that EFL learners find in their own textbooks and supplementary materials, thus it must be included in the English language syllabus for EFL learners. Iranian students benefited from the exposure to the authentic materials which motivated further and deeper reading and empowered them to improve their comprehension skills. Using a variety of authentic resources helps the instructor to deepen and broaden the learners' understanding of the culture, customs, beliefs, values and rituals of the speakers of the target language. The learning environment should be similar to those that the learner would experience in the real world: watching TV, listening to the radio, attending a live theater, reading a poem, magazines and newspapers and etc. By reinforcing the link between class work and real-world, authentic input encourages students to practice adopting diverse roles and make them ready to join much readily the real life outside the classroom. Consequently, "once outside the 'safe', controlled language learning environment", (Berardo, 2006) the learner will be able to read and comprehend much more fluently the texts that are written for native speakers.

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