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Native Language Interference in English L2 Word Recognition and Word Integration Skills

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Abstract—The current study was planned to investigate the interference of the native language in English word recognition and word integration skills in L1 speakers of French and Persian. The participants of the study were 48 intermediate and upper intermediate native Persian and French-speaking EFL learners studying in VUB and ULB universities in Brussels, Belgium. All in all, based on the results of ANCOVA, there was a strong and positive relationship between EFL learners' word recognition and word integration skills and their L1(first language). The RT (reaction time) resulting from the LDT (lexical decision task) showed that the Persian EFL participants were able to outperform French EFL participants, though Persian and English are orthographically and typologically distant languages. On the other hand, in a word integration task, French participants showed superiority over Persian participants in the direct object reading time that emphasized the positive aspect of L1 interference as facilitation.

Index Terms—mother tongue, mother tongue interference, reading comprehension, word integration, word recognition

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the major issues in today's world is bilingualism and multilingualism that called the attention of lots of researches. Firstly, as (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2008) acknowledged, the world's approximately 5,000 languages are spoken in the world's 200 sovereign states, meaning that communication between citizens in several countries calls for robust bilingualism/multilingualism. Considering bilingualism involving English, the statistics indicate that more than 41% or 235 million of the about 570 million English-speaking citizens worldwide were bilingual in English and some other languages (Bhatia & Ritchie, 2008).

According to Crystal (2012), English today has a special standing in at least 70 countries and is the most commonly spoken international language in more than 100 other nations, and as (Burchfield, 1985) announced, English has been a lingua franca all over the world. Hence the techniques and strategies used in the teaching of English have gained popularity due to the requirements of English language learners, in particular English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) (Turker & Selcuk, 2009).

English is learned by four primary skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Turker & Selcuk, 2009). Reading is commonly referred to as the most critical of the four language skills of ESL / EFL learners (Gu, 2003). In addition, reading comprehension studies have shown the importance and incidence of word-level processing capabilities used in fluent reading or text processing (Just & Carpenter, 1980).

A large amount of the first-language (L1) literature specifically shows that word recognition (as a pre-lexical mechanism refers to the ability to identify the form of written (i.e. orthographic) term or lexical entity that allows the sense of the phrase, structural / syntactic information, and other relations of pragmatics or environment knowledge (Fender, 2001, 2003)) , and word integration processes (i.e. combining terms into broader units of context at the sentence and clause level) are the most commonly used of the cognitive and linguistic mechanisms utilized in text processing (Grabe, 1988).

Therefore, as (Zu, 2009) reported, scholars, teachers and those interested in foreign language learning are paying special attention to the development of foreign language vocabulary and lower-level processing. In addition, (Gass, 1999) declared that learning a second language means learning its vocabulary, suggesting that knowing a lexical item means knowing several things. Vocabulary literacy is not an end of itself; it is undertaken to enable learners listen, talk, read and compose more efficiently (Nation, 2003). Similarly, research with relatively competent second-language / English as a second-language (L2 / ESL) speakers demonstrates that phrase-level communication capacities, like word recognition and word integration skills, are the most widely employed perceptual and linguistic processes for reading and text processing L2 / ESL (Frenck-Mestre & Pynte, 1997).

There are, however, some important differences between developing word-level processing skills at L1 and developing word-level processing skills at L2/ESL, especially for those who learn L2/ESL literacy skills during adolescence and later (Fender, 2003). First language intervention plays a significant part in the learning of the second

language (Kellerman, 1986). The L1 effect stems from the conscious or unconscious opinion of a learner that linguistic elements are identical in both the native and target languages, and it was believed that the learners' L1 habits had clashed with their L2 habits (Odlin, 1989).

Although there is a general understanding that transition happens mostly at the level of the sound system, primarily production and pronunciation, cross-linguistic experiments investigating word order transmission have found that morphemes and other syntactic structures of higher-order are more frequent than phonology-related transfer studies (Aquil, 2012). In other words, the study evidence shows that word-level processing skills at L1 tend to be a major factor interfering with and affecting the production of word-level processing skills at L2/ESL (Koda, 2000). Hence, ESL learners with typologically diverse L1 contexts can have markedly specific problems and thus different needs in learning fluent ESL text processing skills at word-level (Fender, 2003).

II. RESEARCH PROBLEM

First language intervention plays a significant part in the learning of a second language (Kellerman, 1986). Based on several studies performed by linguists, it was hypothesized that the typologically distinct languages have an impact on L2 learning processes. Ironically, it was proposed that the gap between languages, influences the rate of acquisition of L2 rather than the forms of transition (Odlin, 1989). In other words, if you study a language that is normally different from your mother tongue, it takes more time to acquire L2 compared to a language that is like your L1 (Hakuta & McLaughlin, 1996b).

Additionally (Inoue, 1996) conducted a study by using a model of the neural network indicated that the difference between languages affects the learning rate: the greater the distance between two languages, the longer it takes to learn. The model also showed an association of the language gap and the learning form. (Schachter, 1983) in his study expanded the notion of transferring to include any prior information that L2 learners have, including "imperfect" information of L2 learners. Shift applies not only to the negative factors (interference) on L2 learning but also to the positive influences (facilitation) (Hakuta & McLaughlin, 1996b). In another study (Frost, Katz, & Bentin, 1987) concluded that the L1's structural features typically tend to form the related L1 processing procedures, like the L1 orthography system, however, the creation of the underlying L1 word recognition skills are influenced in specific ways.

The result of a study by (Bates, 1999) was that the linguistic characteristics of the L1 phrases and clause systems form the underlying L1 word integration or sentence parsing methods. Reading and psycholinguistic studies suggest that fluent and effective comprehension requires the integration of knowledge from a variety of text processing capabilities at lower and higher rates. Accordingly, readers simultaneously process knowledge on the letter/phoneme, term, phrase/clause, paragraph, local cohesion, subject, pragmatic, and discourse structure to interpret and understand texts (Grabe, 1988). As language skills such as word recognition or word integration automatically operate, more text information may be processed and inserted into the working memory (Just & Carpenter, 1980). In other words, if lower-level word-level computing abilities are unreliable or underdeveloped, reading speed and/or comprehension would be negatively affected because less knowledge will be processed and incorporated into the working memory at any moment (Fender, 2003).

The efficient process of decoding abilities and word-level reading is, of course, crucial for fluency and comprehension in reading skills of L1 and L2/ESL (McDonald, 2000). While there has been little work on online word integration and sentence comprehension in L2/ESL, initial research in this field indicates that professional L2/ESL speakers acquire word integration skills quite close to native speakers (Bernhardt, 1987). There are indications that L1 word integration processes influence and form the creation of L2/ESL word integration processes, especially in adolescents who acquire L2/ESL (Fender, 2003). The result of a study by (Fender, 2003) on EFL learners of typologically distant languages, Japanese-English and Arabic-English indicated that the Japanese and Arabic participants have various word-level comprehension problems owing to the impact of their L1 on the understanding of word form and the process of word integration skills in L2.

In conclusion based on the importance of reading comprehension, and the limited number of studies on typologically distant languages, the present study was conducted to investigate the variation of the effect of L1 in typologically and orthographically distant and close languages on word-level processing skills (word recognition, and word integration) of adult intermediate and upper intermediate EFL learners of native Persian and French-speaking participants for developing EFL reading and text processing skills fluency and their use of lower-level word integration skills to integrate words into higher levels of sentences and clauses.

III. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

As reading comprehension is very significant in EFL learning, its growth as an ability will assume a vital importance in pedagogy (Mokhtari, 2014). Nevertheless, reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition as the foundation block for reading comprehension has not been at the forefront of focus in education. By investigating areas of L1 interference of typologically and orthographically distant and close languages in reading comprehension and word integration skills of EFL learners, it will be possible for the syllabus designers, ministry of education, coursebook designers, and lesson planners to provide EFL and ESL instructors with certain ideas to be able to assist and support

English learners to prevent language interference or to take advantage of the first language to improve the language learning especially reading comprehension. The current study is based on this assumption that language interference applies not only to the negative factors (interference) on L2 learning but also to the positive influences (facilitation) (Hakuta & McLaughlin, 1996b). In other words, L1 may have some facilitation merits that can facilitate the process of a foreign or second language that must be considered.

Based on the above-mentioned results, we would expect that Persian and French EFL learners in the present study which is a crosslinguistic study on EFL learners of typologically distant (Persian-English) and close (French-English) languages, show some differences in EFL word recognition and word integration skills and performance due to their first language typological, orthographic, and structures differences.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

For the purpose of the study the researcher considered the following questions:

1. Do Persian and French as native languages (L1) have a significant effect on intermediate and upper intermediate EFL learners' word recognition skills?
2. Do French-speaking bilingual intermediate and upper intermediate EFL learners with linguistically close native languages (French, English) outperform intermediate and upper intermediate linguistically distant native languages (Persian-English) EFL learners word recognition skills because of the similarities between both languages in this domain (word recognition)?
3. Do Persian and French native languages (L1) have a significant effect on intermediate and upper intermediate EFL learners' word integration skills?
4. Do French-speaking bilingual intermediate and upper intermediate EFL learners with linguistically close native languages (French-English) outperform intermediate and upper intermediate linguistically distant native languages (Persian-English) EFL learners word integration skills because of the similarities between both languages in this domain (word integration)?

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Participants for this study were 48 in total. 24 intermediate and upper intermediate female and male native Persian-speaking students studying at VUB university in Brussels and 24 intermediate and upper intermediate female and male native French-speaking students studying at ULB University, Brussels. The participants aged between 18 and 31 years were chosen based on convenience sampling since random selection was not possible for the researcher. All participants had passed the IELTS exam before varying from 4 to 6.5.

To see whether the participants build a homogenous group in terms of their English proficiency, the researcher recorded the IELTS reading scores of the participants who were distributed into two groups, French-speaking and Persian speaking each containing 24 students. Those participants whose IELTS reading score ranged from 4 to 6.5 were chosen. It should be mentioned that based on the IELTS exam the students whose scores were between this range were considered as intermediate and upper intermediate level (Cambridge, n.d.). The 48 participants were assigned to two groups of French-speaking and Persian-speaking students. 24 Persian-speaking and 24 French-speaking. All 48 students took part in both tasks (word recognition and word integration tasks).

B. Research Design

In this quantitative study, the researcher investigated the interference of the native language in English word recognition and word integration skills in EFL intermediate and upper intermediate L1 speakers of French and Persian. Keeping this intention in mind, the researcher used a word recognition and a word integration task to measure the RT of both French and Persian groups.

C. Instrumentation

The following instruments were utilized to serve the purpose of the research study.

1) IELTS Test (*International English Language Test*)

To ensure that the language skills of the learners were homogeneous IELTS reading score which according to (Dooley & Oliver, 2002) is one of the most used exams given by all participants have been recorded by the researcher. According to (Dooley & Oliver, 2002) the IELTS exam is used as a measure of English proficiency for both global (international) and local ESL (English as a Second Language) pupils and the band score is out of 9.

In the IELTS exam, there are 4 modules reading, listening, speaking, writing, each module is out of 9. The intermediate and upper intermediate band score is considered as 4 to 6.5 (Dooley & Oliver, 2002).

2) Lexical Decision Task

To evaluate the word recognition skills of Persian-speaking and French-speaking EFL students an LDT (lexical decision task) was conducted by the researcher. The Lexical decision-making is one of the most employed testing approaches for the evaluation of word processing abilities in L1 research (Frost et al., 1987). Throughout this task,

participants were to differentiate if each object was a word (i.e., lexical item) or not. In this task, participants required applying word recognition skills to distinguish lexical items from nonwords.

3) *Sentence Reading Test*

In order to measure word integration skills of the French and Persian-speaking EFL learners a sentence reading task was used. During this task 48 semantically high context and low context sentences were read by the participants on the computer. The participants read the sentences word by word and the pace was under the participants' control. Meanwhile, the computer recorded the direct object reading time of the participants. Reading times on the words represented not only word recognition systems, but also syntactic and semantic/conceptual systems that underlie word integration skills (Frenck-Mestre & Pynte, 1997). Moreover, their sentence comprehension was measured by reading a series of sentences that semantically corresponded to the previous sentences that they have read, and the computer recorded their responses.

D. *Stimuli*

1) *Stimuli in Experiment 1 (Lexical Decision Task)*

Two key sets of stimulus items that were English words, namely consistent words, and inconsistent words were used by the researcher in the present study. Among these sets which were in total 80 words, the consistent category consisting of 20 words, was made of words that were four to six letters long. These words have been taken from Fender's research (2003). Moreover, according to (Fender, 2003), the consistent words were highly consistent based on grapheme-phoneme correspondences in the English orthography (e.g., game and letter). The second category (inconsistent words) consisted of 20 items containing four to six letters long as well. "For example, the word great is inconsistent in grapheme-phoneme mapping compared to other words that share the spelling pattern eat, such as heat, beat, meat, and cheat" (Fender, 2003, p. 298).

Two other categories of nonwords each consisting of 20 words were also included namely pseudowords, and non-pronounceable words. According to (Fender, 2003), pseudowords were the pronounceable nonwords (e.g., glir, zirp) following grapheme-phoneme English orthography. However, non-pronounceable words research were 20 items that violated the English spelling system and were not pronounceable such as dsae, mtli (Fender, 2003). Regarding the validity of the stimuli, since they were derived from Fender's research (2003) and were confirmed by Fender that the stimuli check the construct is intended to assess, they have been utilized by the researcher.

2) *Stimuli in Experiment 2 (Lexical Decision Task)*

The stimuli which were 48 sentences in this experiment were derived from Fenders' research (2003), and as Fender claimed in his research, all the words that have been used in the experimental sentences were among 1500 first words that EFL/ESL students learn. Additionally, Fender (2003) claimed that the verbs in 48 sentences were the verbs that were highly frequent in the Interchange text series by Richards (1997). Interchange series by Jack Richards is one of the most common books which are used for EFL/ESL students to learn the English language so it can be the proof of students' familiarity with the words in the experimental sentences (Fender, 2003). Word length was a significant consideration, and thus all the terms in the sentence before the direct object was one or two-syllable phrases (Fender, 2003).

(Fender, 2003) acknowledged that the other critical aspect was the form of the phrase, and all the experimental sentences had the same number of terms and composed of "subject noun + prepositional phrase + auxiliary will + main verb + the +objective noun + prepositional phrase" (Fender, 2003, p. 302) structure.

The experimental sentences in this task used transitive verbs involving a direct object noun phrase, and in this task the experimental sentences " require the participants to integrate or attach the direct object noun phrase as a verb complement in the verb phrase, then interpret the direct object according to the semantics of the verb " (Fender, 2003, p. 302). The experimental sentences were semantically from two categories called low context sentences and high context sentences.

As (Fender, 2003) claimed in his research:

The high context condition was created with a subject noun, a noun in a prepositional phrase, and a verb that were semantically/conceptually related to the object. That is, the subject noun, modifying prepositional phrase and the verb conjoined to provide a context with a high degree of semantic/conceptual association or plausibility for the direct object as in sentence 3 below:

3. The waiter in the kitchen will bring the food to the table.

4. The lady in the office will bring the food to the party (p. 310).

The sentence number 3 is semantically high context since "the subject noun, prepositional phrase and verb are conceptually related to the direct object noun" (Fender, 2003, p. 310), and the sentence number 4 is semantically low context since "no such comparable conceptual or semantic association exists among the sentence constituents preceding the direct object" (Fender, 2003, p. 310).

E. *Procedure*

1) *Procedure in Experiment 1 (Lexical Decision Task)*

The lexical decision task was run on an ASUS computer utilizing PsychoPy 3 software package. The presentation of the stimuli items was controlled by the software while the reaction time (RT) of the participants in choosing answers

and their responses were also recorded by the software to be evaluated later. The participants began the task by viewing the instructions which have been given by the researcher orally before and some examples of word and nonword items were depicted on the monitor to avoid confusion.

Participants were told to click the correct button on their screen which means lexical item/word and for nonword items, the participants were told to press the left arrow. In addition, participants were advised to react as rapidly as possible yet accurately as possible. First, an asterisk emerged on the screen and lasted for 2 seconds, accompanied by the stimuli which were either word or nonword, consistent or inconsistent that randomly appeared on the screen.

In order to respond faster, the researcher told the participants to hold their middle finger on the right arrow and the index finger on the left arrow. The computer recorded the length of time every stimulus object turned into on the screen from the presentation onset to the lexical decision response.

2) Procedure in Experiment 2 (Sentence Reading Task)

This experiment went through different procedures such as, choosing the experimental sentences (stimuli), designing the task via PsychoPy 3 software, and running the test. The participants read 48 sentences that appeared randomly based on high semantic or low semantic context on the screen. Firstly, the participants were told how to the test, and in order to make sure that the EFL participants recognized the concept of the instructions appeared on the monitor again. The participants started the challenge by noticing the asterisk in the center of the screen and pressed the space bar and started the test to read the first word of the paragraph.

When the participants were prepared, they might proceed by pressing the key to scanning the first word. Solely the primary word of the sentence appeared on the screen within the sentence-initial position (i.e., the intense left-hand facet of the sentence). When the participants were ready for the next words, they pressed the key, and at that time, the primary word disappeared from the sentence-initial position and the second word within the sentence appeared in the second-word position in the sentence. Then, once the participants were prepared for successive words, they pressed the key. At that time the second word disappeared from the second abstraction position within the sentence and the third word appeared in the third sentence position. The participants had been informed before that the dot was a symbol of the end of the paragraph.

After finishing reading the sentence as they were instructed, they pressed the space bar and a true/false sentence appeared on the monitor. The participants were instructed to press the designated key (right arrow on the keyboard which means true) and the left arrow which implies false to respond based on the sentence that they have just read. From the moment the first word (stimulus) appeared on screen the participants' reading comprehension answers and their reaction time were recorded by the computer. Immediately after answering true/false sentences, an asterisk appeared on the monitor to initiate the next sentence. The participants continued this process till they completed all 48 sentences.

F. Data Analysis

In order to analyze the RT reaction time of the participants of both French and Persian groups, different statistical procedures have been carried out. In order to evaluate the data and control the effects of the covariate (IELTS reading score) ANCOVA (analysis of covariance) was utilized by the researcher.

VI. RESULTS

A. Word Recognition Analysis and Results

A two-way repeated-measures analysis of covariance ANCOVA was used by the researcher to compare the word recognition RT of intermediate and upper intermediate French and Persian EFL learners. As the participants' levels of English proficiency were assumed to affect the groups' word recognition RT, the researcher considered IELTS reading scores as a covariate to adjust or remove the effects of language background in the analysis. Moreover, the participants' mother tongue (Persian, French) was the between-subjects variable in the analysis, and the RT was the dependent variable. Results for all statistical operations are listed below.

B. Descriptive Statistics

TABLE I.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF GROUPS' REACTION TIME ON WORD RECOGNITION TEST

Mother Tongue			Sum	Consistent	Inconsistent	Pseudo	Non-pronounceable
French	N	Valid	24	24	24	24	24
		Mean	1032	991	920	1127	1095
		Std. Deviation	309	261	222	468	370
Persian	N	Valid	24	24	24	24	24
		Mean	882	785	765	904	1075
		Std. Deviation	164	143	117	217	334

Dependent Variable: correct answer RT/millisecond

Independent Variable: Mother Tongue

As it can be seen, Table I clearly shows the results of the EFL Persian and French learners' lexical decision tasks (word recognition test) RT per millisecond, in terms of descriptive parameters (mean, and standard deviation RT), across the four types of stimuli, consistent, inconsistent, pseudo, and non-pronounceable word conditions. As it is evident in Table I, the mean reaction time of the French group on the word recognition test was 1032ms in total, 991ms on consistent words, 920ms on inconsistent words, 1127ms on pseudowords and 1095ms on non-pronounceable words, and they were 882ms, 785ms, 765ms, 904ms and 1075ms respectively on the Persian group. Additionally, the standard deviation of the French group on the word recognition test was 309ms in total, 261ms in consistent words 222ms in inconsistent words, 468ms in pseudowords, and 370ms in the non-pronounceable test, and they were 164ms, 143ms, 117ms, 217ms, and 334ms respectively on the Persian group's word recognition test.

As (Field, 2016) acknowledged, recognizing that the average of one grouping is greater than that of another does not educate you enough to consider that there is a difference between the two categories. Therefore, the researcher conducted the ANCOVA test to make sure and check a disparity between the two groups' RT performance.

The results of the 2×2 (language group by word condition) repeated measures ANCOVA depicted a nearly significant main effect for language group, ($F= 3.275$, $p = 0.077 > 0.05$). In addition, there is an important impact on word condition, so there was an interaction between the language group and word condition factors. The mean values across the four-word conditions (consistent, inconsistent, pseudo, and non-pronounceable) depicted (Figure 1) that the Persian EFL participants were able to process consistent, inconsistent, pseudo, and non-pronounceable words in a lexical decision task more rapidly than the French EFL participants, which is reflected in the overall group means (Table I) for the Persian (882ms) and French (1032ms). Consequently, Persian participants demonstrated, 150-ms advantage over the French participants in total, 206-ms across the consistent, 155-ms across inconsistent, 223-ms across pseudowords, and 20-ms across non-pronounceable word conditions. Surprisingly, the main difference (in major stimuli, consistent, and inconsistent words) in language group by word condition was mainly regarding consistent words as there was an advantage of 206-millisecond advantage over the French group. The result is illustrated in the following clustered bar chart.

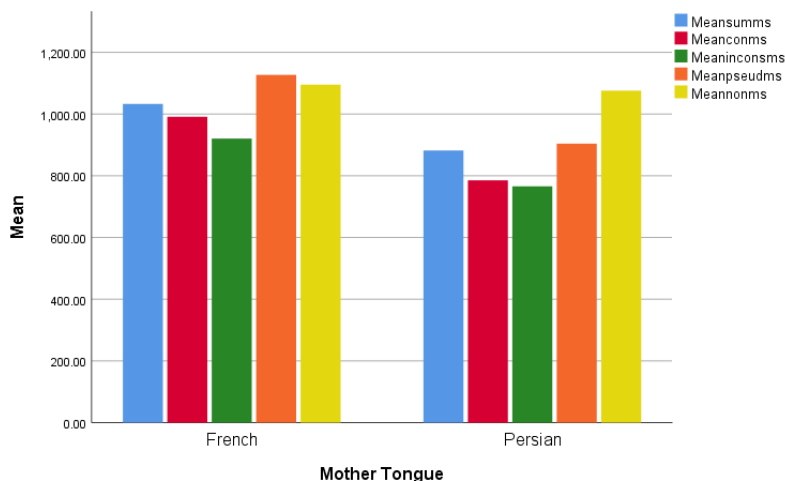


Figure 1. Mean Values (RT) Across the Four-Word Conditions

C. Word Integration Analysis and Results

To test the effect of L1 on student word integration skills, the researcher used the sentence reading task. In this test, just the direct object reaction time of the sentences that have been correctly replied was used to analyze and compare French and Persian groups RTs. The researcher applied A 2×2 (language group by semantic context) repeated measures ANCOVA to compare French and Persian groups word integration RTs. The participants' mother tongue (L1) was the between-subjects variable (independent variable), direct object reaction times as (dependent variables), IELTS reading score as the covariate, and the semantic context condition with two semantic levels (high and low context) was used by the researcher in the analysis. The results of both statistical tasks are listed below.

D. Word Integration Speed

TABLE II.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF GROUPS' REACTION TIME ON WORD INTEGRATION TEST

Mother Tongue		sum	High context	Low context
Persian-speaker	N	24	24	24
	Valid			
	Missing	0	0	0
	Mean	1595	688	2503
French-speaker	Std. Deviation	213	241	263
	N	24	24	24
	Valid			
	Missing	0	0	0
	Mean	1416	497	2335
	Std. Deviation	184	187	222

As it can be seen, Table II clearly shows the results of the EFL Persian and French learners' reading times on the direct objects in the reading task in terms of descriptive parameters (mean, and standard deviation across the two types of stimuli, high context, and low context.

As it is evident in Table II, the mean reaction time of the Persian group on the word integration test was 1595ms in total, 688ms in high context sentences, 2503ms in low context sentences, and they were 1416ms, 497ms, and 2335ms respectively on the French group. Furthermore, the standard deviation of the French group on the word integration test was 184ms in total, 187ms in high context sentences, and 222ms in low context sentences, and they were 213ms, 241ms, and 263ms respectively on the Persian group's word recognition test.

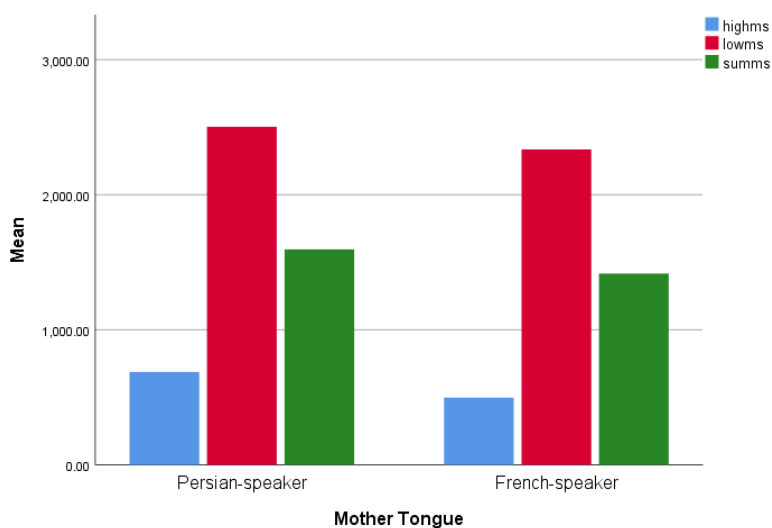


Figure 2. Mean Values Across the Two Semantic Context Conditions

The results of the 2×2 (language group by word condition) repeated measures ANCOVA depicted a highly significant main effect for language group, ($F= 8.129$, $p = 0.007 < 0.05$). Therefore, Persian and French speakers did not process direct objects at the same rate. Additionally, there was a main effect for high context ($F= 7.966$, $p = 0.007 < 0.05$) and low context ($F=4.682$, $P= 0.036 < 0.05$), so there was an interaction between the language group and context type.

The mean values across the two semantic context conditions depict (Table II) that the French EFL participants were able to integrate high context and low context direct objects more rapidly than the Persian EFL participants, which is reflected in the overall group means for the French (1416ms) and Persian (1595ms). Consequently, French participants demonstrated, 179ms advantage over the Persian participants in total, 191ms across the high context, 168ms across low context semantic conditions. Additionally, it was concluded that both French and Persian groups' direct object reaction time was lower in high context and higher in low context as it is illustrated in Figure 2.

To be concluded, there was a main effect and interactive relationship between language group and context factors since high context with plausible direct objects were read faster than low context direct objects ($p = 0.007 < 0.05$).

VII. DISCUSSION

A. Addressing the Research Questions

1) Addressing the First Research Hypothesis

In this research the first question explored was whether L1 has a significant effect on intermediate and upper intermediate EFL learners' word recognition skills. To answer this question, the present author tested two groups of participants, namely French and Persian groups. The results of the current study revealed that, that Persian and French-

Persian in the present study, could be the result of word recognition skills developed experiences in primary and secondary schools in Iran which made students strong in the lexical domain.

C. ESL Word Integration Skills

In conclusion, based on the research results, there were highly significant differences between direct object reading time of French and Persian EFL groups, as French and Persian groups did not process the direct objects at the same rate. French participants demonstrated, 179ms advantage over the Persian participants in total in reading the high and low semantic context (semantic plausibility) direct objects, 191ms across the high context, 168ms across low context semantic conditions. Subsequently, based on the above-mentioned results in the current research it was concluded that both French and Persian groups' direct object reaction time in integrating words into the larger phrase and clause structures and comprehending them was lower in high context and higher in the low context which as (Fender, 2003) acknowledged " the semantic context (i.e., semantic plausibility) effect clearly shows that low context direct objects require more semantic/conceptual processing effort than high context direct objects during incremental word integration processing" (p. 307).

A great number of psycholinguistic researches in both L1 research (Crain & Shankweiler, 1990; Fodor, Ni, Crain, & Shankweiler, 1996; Garrett, 2000; Gibson, 1998) and in L2 research (Frenck-Mestre & Pynte, 1997; Juffs, 1998) depicted that incremental syntactic or structural word attachments into the phrase and clause structures are involved in fluent English word integration processes. Besides as it was acknowledged by (Boland, 1997; Jackendoff, 1997; Mahesh, Eiselt, & Holbrook, 1999) structural word integration processes are one of the crucial components in incremental word integration procedures that contain and navigates the process of sentence comprehension and establishes syntactic and structural relationships among sentence constituents. Finally, due to word integration results, it can be concluded that French-speaking participants can use more extensive EFL word integration processes than the Persian participants which is supported by 179ms advantage over the Persian participants.

Moreover, based on the evidence and results of the current research and as (Fender, 2003; Gass, 1999; Juffs & Harrington, 1996; Kilborn, 1994) claimed word integration skills and processes in mother tongue (L1) affect L2 word integration processes development specifically during adolescence or later period that people acquire the L2.

Based on the current research results that Persian-speaking participants reaction time was higher than French group and they were slower in word integration task, it can be concluded that although English and Persian are both head-initial languages, Persian language is head-final in VPs(verb phrases and consequently in Persian language learners first process subject and verb and later on the verb that may effect on their word integration time in English which in VP is head initial) as a consequence of L1 structural and syntactic differences in word integration and sentence processing format in the first language of EFL Persian-speaking group and English, and orthographic differences between English and Persian, the Persian group were slower than French group in word integration task. In addition, the Persian language writing Style is from right to left and can be inferred that reading the English sentences on the display will take longer, because it is an incongruent activity due to the orientation of the sentences which could be the explanation for their higher RT in direct object reading.

In addition, it can also be inferred that, as in Iran's English education system, the emphasis is primarily on increasing the repertoire of vocabulary and, as reported by (Sadeghi & Richards, 2016), in high school, the attention shifts mainly to reading comprehension, which may result in poor reading skills due to lack of a clear emphasis on reading skills from early elementary schools.

VIII. CONCLUSION

As a finding in the present study, based on the results of ANCOVA, typically speaking the pace resulting from the lexical decision task indicated that the Persian EFL participants were able to interpret consistent and inconsistent words faster than the French EFL participants, while Persian and English are orthographically and typologically distant languages. Surprisingly, the main difference by word condition was regarding consistent words. As (Arab-Moghaddam & Sénéchal, 2001) asserted, the Persian language is a transparent and consistent language that each grapheme corresponds to a single phoneme (*i.e.*, Persian is not polyphonic). Accordingly this could be the explanation why Persian speakers outperformed French-speakers in the word recognition task especially regarding consistent words.

Moreover, in the public education system in Iran, the emphasis is primarily on the identification of alphabets and vocabulary teaching, and on growing the variety of vocabulary that may be very possible for Persian-speaking EFL participants to acquire fairly high English word identification skills owing to the comprehensive vocabulary activities in their education system. In other words, it can be mentioned that this superiority and success in lexical decision-making tasks over French-speaking participants, irrespective of the orthographic variations between English and Persian, maybe the product of orthographic skills acquired in primary and secondary schools in Iran. It allows students strength in the lexical sector.

Another issue explored in this study was whether there was any difference between word integration skills of typologically distant and close languages. Consequently, very significant differences have arisen based on methodological procedures. French participants showed superiority over Persian participants in the direct object reading time in both semantically high context and low context sentences. Subsequently, it was hypothesized that the direct

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An Analysis of Errors in English Essays Written by Thai Non-English Major Students

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Abstract—Writing is one of the vital skills for EFL learners. However, they still face some difficulties while processing a task. The present study aimed to analyze the errors that occurred on sixty English essays made by Thai University non-English major students who enrolled in the fundamental English course. The Surface Strategy Taxonomy (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982) was adopted to explore the errors of omission, addition, misformation, and misordering together with those that were excluded in the taxonomy. According to the framework of Surface Strategy Taxonomy, the findings revealed the most common errors involving omission of articles, followed by the addition of the preposition, the omission of the preposition, the omission of the subject, and misformation of subject pronoun, respectively. Then, according to the errors which were out of the stated taxonomy, the errors in subject-verb agreement were the highest detected error, followed by tense errors, ambiguous sentences, a direct translation from L1 to L2, misformation of object pronoun, misformation of using an adjective as the main verb, the addition of verb to be, and addition of conjunction, respectively. By investigating the errors in foreign language writing, the results would trigger foreign language learners to aware of the error of English writing that might occur. And the benefit also goes to the pedagogy in developing the teaching materials together with teaching strategies.

Index Terms—error analysis, Thai EFL learners, surface strategy taxonomy

I. INTRODUCTION

The English language plays a crucial role as a medium language for people around the world. It is used for various purposes such as business interaction and academic cooperation. For this reason, English is one of the most popular languages to be studied for learners worldwide. The importance of the English language has also spread to all Southeast Asian countries, especially on the time when the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) was formed. Used as a global language for communicating in various fields, people in Southeast Asia use English for processing their interaction around the region. However, the English proficiency of people in each country around AEC is different due to the intensity of English usage in each country. For example, English is used as an official language or a recognized language in some member countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, Brunei Darussalam, and the Philippines. On the contrary, English is not used as the official language in Thailand, Cambodia, Indonesia, Myanmar, Vietnam, and Laos. Focusing on Thailand, having been taught in the nation since 1824 (Darasawang, 2007), most Thai students still struggle in achieving learning English. The evidence from the survey of Education First (Index, 2019) which reported the largest ranking of countries worldwide by English skills revealed that the proficiency in English skill of Thai students was low and very low proficiency during the last decades (2011-2019). Thus, all English skills have been increasingly required for Thai people (Kirkpatrick, 2012). Viewed as a foreign language, English has been instructed in Thai education by including four skills that are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Among the stated skills, writing becomes more and more important for all students in various disciplines.

However, the writing skill has been determined one of the most difficult and complex skills that required more basic skills for foreign or second language learners to understand (Al-Shujairi & Tan, 2017; Fareed, Ashraf, & Bilal, 2016; Kirmizi & Karci, 2017; Padgate, 2008; Sajid & Siddiqui, 2015). Paying attention to Thai higher education, although there are many writing courses provided for Thai students, they still face some problems or difficulties in mastering the writing skill (Bennui, 2016; Boonyarattanasoontorn, 2017; Phuket & Othman, 2015; Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013). Therefore, the stated issue may lead to a more critical situation when they graduate and move into the real working world. That is because their future employers always expect a good command in English from their prospective employees for communicating effectively a certain set of ideas. Focusing on writing skill, those who perform poor writing ability can imply a sign of a low performance, which results in having a little chance of getting promotion for management positions (Iamsiu, 2014). Then, the errors found in the writing tasks are the evidence from the difficulties in dealing with writing English for communication in the workplace. The study of error analysis then plays role in the field of language learning as it is the study of the process of language acquisition (Dulay et al., 1982; Ellis, 2002). It is crucial to study language learners' errors because the state of the learners' knowledge could be seen from this exploration (Brown, 2000; Corder, 1967). By knowing where to fix, the teacher could design the proper treatment for each student. In order to understand how and why these types of errors occur, research into error analysis (EA) should be conducted because its benefits are really obvious. Firstly, EA provides important information to the

teacher as to “how far towards the goal the learner has progressed and, consequently, what remains for him to learn” together with providing insight into how second languages are learned and what phases learners go through in second language acquisition (Corder, 1967). Secondly, EA can help to investigate the language learning process and to guide the remedial actions teachers need to make in order to correct the errors for learners (Corder, 1981). Thirdly, EA can help to measure the language performance of learners (Dulay et al., 1982; Ellis, 2002) by detecting the proficiency level of students and obtaining information about the general difficulties in language learning. Fourthly, EA helps in identifying the development of learners, portraying conclusions to direct and adjusting the learning process (Ferris, 2011; Mitchell, Myles & Marsden, 2019). Lastly, EA can improve the writing skill of learners as a measure of language learning success together with giving the opportunity to a teacher for establishing effective instructional strategies to enhance the writing skill of students (Waelateh, Boonsuk, Ambele, & Jeharsae, 2019). The present study then argued that writing English was not an easy task for Thai EFL learners though they tried various learning strategies dealing with these difficult tasks. Thus, it was worth exploring the occurrences of errors found in English essay writings among Thai EFL learners in order that it could be an alternative to improve the English writing skill for them. The present study aimed to detect the two questions.

1) What are the errors under the Surface Strategy Taxonomy (Dulay et al., 1982) found in English essays written by Thai university non-English major students?

2) What are the errors excluded in the Surface Strategy Taxonomy of (Dulay et al., 1982) made by the same group?

II. LITERATURE REVIEWS

A. Definitions of Error and Error Analysis (EA)

Known as one of the very first founders of the field of error analysis, Corder defined error as the features of the learners’ utterances that are different from those of any native speakers (Corder, 1973). Richards and Schmidt (2002) then defined error as the “use of a linguistic item (e.g. a word, a grammatical item, a speech act, etc.) in a way which a fluent or native speaker of the language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning”. The next definition of error was that it was an identifiable alteration of the grammatical elements of a native speaker, presenting the learners’ competence in the target language (Brown, 2007). Another definition was that error was an integral and unavoidable feature of second language acquisition (Alanazi, 2017). Following the given definitions of error, error analysis was then very important for foreign language learning to clearly understand the process of the language (Jobeen, Kazemian, & Shahbaz, 2015). Various definitions of error analysis were later shared by many scholars. Firstly, Dulay, Burt, & Krashen (1982) defined EA as “a flawed side of learner speech or writing that deviates from the selected norm of mature language performance” (Dulay et al., 1982). Secondly, EA was defined as the study of unacceptable forms produced by someone learning a language, especially a foreign language (Crystal, 1999). Later, EA was described as the study and analysis of the errors made by second language learners (Richards & Schmidt, 2013). Next, EA was described as a device to precisely measure the correctness consisting of a set of procedures for identifying, describing, and explaining learners’ errors (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). In addition, EA was defined as a “red flag” which means they are warning signs that provide evidence of the learners’ knowledge of the second language (Selinker & Gass, 2008). The last definition which the present study noticed was that EA was as a comparison between “learner English” with English (L2) itself and judged how learners were ignorant (James, 2013).

B. Classification of Errors

As cited in Sompong (2013), Corder (1971) classified error into two types namely competence and performance. Firstly, the error of competence was divided into 1) interlingual which depended on linguistic differences between the mother language and the target language, and 2) intralingual which caused by overgeneralization in both the languages – mother language and the target language learning. Secondly, it was the error of performance. This type happened when learners’ errors occurred due to stress, fatigue, and false starts or slips of the tongue (Sompong, 2013). Another classification of errors could be considered local and global errors (Burt & Kiparsky, 1972). The local errors affected one element or constituent in a sentence which usually did not blend the meaning of the sentence, whereas the global errors affected the meaning of the whole sentence. Also, according to Dulay et al. (1982), error analysis was classified into four categories which were linguistic category classification, surface strategy taxonomy, comparative taxonomy, and communicative effect taxonomy. Among them, surface strategy taxonomy was the one that disclosed the types of errors the language learners made as well as leading them to unlock the factors beyond those errors (Imaniar, 2018).

C. Framework

The present study employed the Surface Strategy Taxonomy of Dulay, Burt, and Krashen (1982) to be a framework for investigating the errors in English essays written by Thai University students. There were many reasons why this taxonomy was selected. Firstly, it highlighted the way surface structures were altered (Dulay et al., 1982). It meant that students might apply the action of omitting, adding, misforming, and misordering during writing a sentence which might affect the semantic or syntactic of the sentence. Secondly, based on identifying cognitive processes that underlie the learners’ reconstruction of the new language, this taxonomy could show that learners’ error was not the result of careless or laziness, but was based on some logics which reflected the use of language among learners. Next, the

taxonomy was appropriated for analyzing the written text. The evidence was that there were many previous studies (Imaniar, 2018; Kim & Yoo, 2015; Maniam & Rajagopal, 2016; Mustafa, Kirana, & Bahri, 2017; Settanan, 2016; Sompong, 2013; Turtulla & Lopar, 2018; and Zheng & Park, 2013) which adopted the surface strategy taxonomy to explore the errors made by the non-native speakers. Then, the full detail of the taxonomy was presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
SURFACE STRATEGY TAXONOMY OF DULAY, BURT, & KRASHEN (1982)

Classification	Example
1. Omission	
1.1 Omission of major constituents	
1.1.1 head noun	a dirty ^
1.1.2 subject	^ play football.
1.1.3 main verb	Tom ^ football.
1.1.4 direct object	He likes ^
1.2 Omission of grammatical morphemes	
1.2.1 preposition: to, on, in	I fall down ^ the water. (in)
1.2.2 article: the, a	^ cat goes there.
1.2.3 short plural: -s	It's got some flower ^.
1.2.4 auxiliary: do, does, did	I ^ not/no hurt him. (do/did)
1.2.5 auxiliary: is, am, was	The car ^ coming.
1.2.6 copula: is, am	I ^ sick.
1.2.7 progressive: -ing	A father is come. (coming)
1.2.8 regular past tense: -ed	He close it. (closed)
1.2.9 irregular past tense	Good beach fall down. (fell)
1.2.10 third person singular	It don't fit here. (doesn't)
1.2.11 infinitive marker: to	I don't like ^ eat.
2. Addition	
2.1 Double marking	
2.1.1 present indicative	Bill doesn't likes it carrots.
2.1.2 regular past	Why didn't you came to school? (come)
2.1.3 irregular past	Did I did it? / The bird stoled it.
2.1.4 direct object	Put it down card. / You don't get it the coffee.
2.2 Regularization	
2.2.1 regular plural: (-s)	mouses
2.2.2 past tense marker: (-ed)	goed
2.3 Sample addition	
2.3.1 third person singular	The fishes doesn't live in the water.
2.3.2 preposition: in, to	You shop in over there.
3. Misformation	
3.1 Overregularization	
3.1.1 reflexive pronoun	He is licking hisself. (himself)
3.1.2 regular past	I falled. (fell)
3.1.3 third person singular	He gots a flower. (got)
3.2 Archi/Alternating forms	
3.2.1 auxiliary: does/is	What does he putting on the top? (is)
	He don't looking. (is)
3.2.2 prepositions: at/to, on/in	Daddy took me at the train. (to)
	in the feet. (on)
3.2.3 subject pronoun: he/she	Mommy was so mad so he spanked Backey. (she)
	The mother's over there and he's nervous. (she's)
3.2.4 Possessive pronoun: she, she's/her, him's/his	That's she's house. (her)
	She name is Maria. (Her)
3.2.5 negative: no/not	Man no go in there. (not)
	no going home. (not)
	I no have it. (not)
3.2.6 quantifiers	Puts a gas in. (some)
	I see a teeth. (some)
4. Misordering	
4.1 aux in simple question	What this is? (What is this?)
4.2 aux in embedded question	I know what is that. (what that is)
4.3 adverb	I eat sometimes candy. (I eat candy sometimes)

D. The Study of Error Analysis in Thailand

To understand the direction of error analysis, it is necessary to review the studies related to EA which were widely conducted by Thai scholars in the last decade. The objectives of the previous studies conducted by Thai researchers were various e.g. searching for the types of errors (Iamsiu, 2014; Khumpee & Yodkumlue, 2017; Kongkaew & Cedar, 2018; Namkaew, 2015; Phuket & Othman, 2015; Promsupa, Varasarin, & Brudhiprabha, 2017; Sermsook, Liamnimit, & Pochakorn, 2017; and Suvarnamani, 2017), investigating the source of errors (Phuket & Othman, 2015; Promsupa et al., 2017; and Sermsook et al., 2017), or even examining the effects of L1 (Thai) interference (Bennui, 2016; Iamsiu,

2014; Khumpee & Yodkumlue, 2017; Rattanadilok Na Phuket & Bidin, 2016; and Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013). Moreover, Thai scholars whose works related to EA still used various methods such as quantitative (Iamsui, 2014; and Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013), qualitative (Kongkaew & Cedar, 2018; Phuket & Othman, 2015; and Suvarnamani, 2017), or even mixed-method (Namkaew, 2015; Promsupa et al., 2017; and Sermsook et al., 2017). Also, divided by the type of the writing tasks, there were those compiled the errors from the essays written by Thai students (Khumpee & Yodkumlue, 2017; Phuket & Othman, 2015; and Promsupa et al., 2017), online written tasks (Kongkaew & Cedar, 2018), sentence writings (Sermsook et al., 2017), or even interview (Rattanadilok Na Phuket & Bidin, 2016). Deeper details of the stated previous Thai studies on EA were presented as follows. Firstly, Iamsui (2014) investigated five types of errors in students' written works. The results appeared that the five types of errors caused by L1 interference including word choice errors, errors in sentence structure, subject-verb agreement, word order, and connecting word. Secondly, Phuket & Othman (2015) explored the major sources of errors together with its types made by Thai EFL learners. The results revealed that the most frequent types of errors were translated words from Thai, word choice, verb tense, preposition, and comma, respectively. Khumpee & Yodkumlue (2017) then investigated the common types of grammatical errors in English essays written by Thai EFL undergraduate students. The results showed that there were 26 types of grammatical errors, with the total number of 4,909 errors, occurred in the students' written works, and the five most common types of all were punctuation, nouns, prepositions, verbs, and articles, accordingly. Next, Sermsook, Liamnimit, & Pochakorn (2017) explored the errors and their sources from 104 pieces of writing among Thai English major students. The findings showed that the most frequently committed errors were punctuation, articles, subject-verb agreement, spelling, capitalization, and fragment, respectively. Later, Promsupa, Varasarin, & Brudhiprabha (2017) explored the grammatical error types and analyzed sources of the errors in English writing. The findings were that 2,218 grammatical errors were found in both of two main types: morphological errors (81.97%) and syntactic errors (18.03%). Finally, Suvarnamani (2017) investigated grammatical and lexical errors, particularly tense, fragment, and collocation errors, found in descriptive writing. The results were that 1) tense errors were identified and classified into 13 types, 2) there were 32 instances of fragment errors, 3) a total of 65 occurrences of collocation errors were found in the paragraphs of 51 students, 4) wrong pronunciation, lack of consistency and paying too much attention to content were main causes of the tense errors, 5) L1 interference was the main cause of the fragment errors and collocation errors resulted from the overuse of a direct translation method (Suvarnamani, 2017).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants and Materials*

The participants of the present study are thirty Thai university students aged between seventeen to eighteen years old majoring in computer engineering and informatics. They were recruited by using a convenience sampling method. They were those who enrolled in the fundamental English III course in the 2nd-semester academic year 2019 at a Thai public university. They all had the same level of English proficiency based on the score of the national English test that they took before entering the university for the academic year 2019. Then, the materials are the English essays written by the participants.

B. *Data Collection*

In each week, the participants were assigned to write one essay by mean that they could practice their writing by using the correct grammatical rules that they studied in each book chapter. The total that they composed were seven essays by including the grammatical features namely modifiers, active voice and passive voice, expressions of the contrastive ideas, causative verbs, adjective clauses and adverb clauses, reduction of adjective clauses and adverb clauses, and reported speech for each assignment. As the students were not informed that their writing assignments would be used to analyze for grammatical errors, their focus would be mainly on the grammatical feature of each chapter. Next, the last two essays were selected from each participant to be analyzed for the grammatical errors. The reason was that they had spent times practicing essay writing for five times which made them got used to with the essay writing. And, they also received some feedback for their first five essays. Finally, there appear sixty English essays retrieved from all participants.

C. *Data Analysis*

Supported by AntConc, the free access software with its multi-functions for various purposes (Anthony, 2005), the total words compiled from all sixty essays were 13521. And the average word of all sixty essays was 225.35 each. Next, error analysis was carried out in four consecutive stages (Ellis, 1994). These stages were that 1) collection of a sample of learner language, 2) identification of errors, 3) description of errors and 4) explanation of errors. The data analysis was then conducted base on the Surface Strategies Taxonomy (Dulay et al., 1982) as mentioned earlier.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *What Are the Errors under the Surface Strategy Taxonomy (Dulay et al., 1982) Found in English Essays Written by*

Thai University Non-English Major Students?

Table 2 presented the errors found under the Surface Strategy Taxonomy among Thai university students.

TABLE 2.
THE RESULTS UNDER THE SURFACE STRATEGIES TAXONOMY

Classification	No. of Frequency	Example
1. Omission of articles	13	I was like (a) dogs.
2. Addition of preposition	11	I ask <i>to</i> my father.
3. Omission of preposition	8	Parents ask what I want (to) study.
4. Omission of subject	8	because ^ will have fun.
5. Misformation of subject pronoun	7	Father asked if me (I) want to go.

According to table 2, the most frequent of errors were omission of articles (13), followed by the addition of a preposition (11), the omission of a preposition (8), the omission of a subject (8), and the misformation of a subject pronoun (7). There were some discussions on these findings. Firstly, Thai students omitted the use of the article the most. That is because the Thai language has no articles or is one of the article-free languages. Therefore, Thai students had a great deal of difficulty mastering the correct usage of articles in the target language (Nopjirapong, 2011). Secondly, the error in the use of preposition appeared on both omission and addition. It showed the significance of preposition in English writing among L2 learners. Presented a difficult challenge for all the levels of proficiency, the finding of the previous studies argued that the occurrence of errors in the use of prepositions was influenced by the speakers' first language (Suzanne, 2017; Thumawongsa, 2018) and these showed that the students failed to acquire competence in the lexicon of the English language (Pongpaiboj, 2002). In contrast, many errors under the Surface Strategy Taxonomy were not found on the writing tasks of Thai learners e.g. misordering of auxiliary in a simple question, misformation of regular past and third-person singular, and omission of progressive, regular past tense, irregular past tense, third-person singular, head noun, accordingly.

B. What Are the Errors Excluded in the Surface Strategy Taxonomy (Dulay et al., 1982) Made by the Same Group?

Table 3 revealed the errors which were out of the frame of the Surface Strategy Taxonomy among Thai university students.

TABLE 3.
THE RESULTS IRRELEVANT TO THE SURFACE STRATEGIES TAXONOMY

Classification	No. of Frequency	Example
1. Subject Verb agreement	28	She <i>like</i> gardening.
2. Tense errors	20	I <i>start</i> over at KU last year. (started)
3. Ambiguous sentences	18	I believe me to success. (I believe I can succeed).
4. Direct translation: L1 to L2	14	Then, I will <i>finish</i> university (graduate).
5. Misformation: Object pronoun	13	I advised <i>they</i> (them) not to get up late.
6. Misformation: Using adjective as	9	it (is) hard to find a job. a main verb
7. Addition: Verb to be	7	They <i>are</i> always support me
8. Addition: Conjunction	6	<i>Even though</i> I have to exchange for sweat <i>but</i> it is worthwhile.

According to table 3, declared as a common error among Thai learners (Iamsiu, 2014; Phuket & Othman, 2015; Sermsook et al., 2017; Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013), error in subject-verb agreement was the most frequently found on the writing tasks of the present study. The reasons for the occurrence of this type of error might be rooted in the interlingual error, ignorance of rule restrictions, incomplete application of rules, false concepts hypothesized, and carelessness (Mali & Yulia, 2017). Another highly found error was tense errors. These results were in the same line as some previous studies (Phuket & Othman, 2015; Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013). It was argued that the cause of this error type might be that L1 syntactic properties were transferred in L2 writing (Watcharapunyawong & Usaha, 2013). In the other words, the mother tongue interfered with the student's L2 writing, which eventually reduced his/her writing effectiveness. The third most found error was an ambiguous sentence. This error type might be caused by the lack of or limit of semantic competence of English words among Thai students (Tuaycharoen, 2003) together with the semantic errors (Sermsook et al., 2017). The fourth detected error was the direct translation from L1 to L2. Acting as a source of error (Khumpee & Yodkumlue, 2017; Phuket & Othman, 2015; Sermsook et al., 2017; Suvarnamani, 2017), this result was in the same line with those found in the previous studies (Iamsiu, 2014; Promsupa et al., 2017). Moreover, misformation in the subject pronoun was another error that should be discussed. The acquisition of English pronoun was a challenge for Thai learners, especially as English and their L1 (Thai) differed in morphosyntactically in an object pronoun. In morphosyntax, English pronouns appeared differently for a subject pronoun and an object

pronoun, whereas the L1 (Thai) in this study showed no difference between both of them. Next, it was a discussion on misformation in using an adjective as a main verb. This error might be inspired by the reason that the L2 writers got used to with their L1 (Thai) form which did not require an auxiliary verb when adding some related meanings to the nouns (Iamsiu, 2014). Also, the error in adding a verb to be should be also discussed. In this type of error, the writer might hope to protect their errors in forgetting to put up a verb for making grammatically a complete sentence (subject + verb + object). Finally, it was a discussion of the error in adding the conjunction. For example, in the sentence “Although....., but.....” normally the conjunction (but) should not appear. However, this was another error that was influenced by L1 interference.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR L2 LEARNING AND TEACHING

For teachers, they will get an overall knowledge about the students’ errors in writing, especially at the tertiary level (Mungungu, 2010). By familiarizing with the types of errors, it is a vital guide for designing the sequence and emphasis together with developing their teaching materials, assessment, and methods of instruction in the EFL classroom (Burt & Kiparsky, 1978; Wu & Garza, 2014). Moreover, the findings of this study would encourage L2 learners to pay attention to the errors that might cause miscomprehending when they do writing English as a second language, especially for academic purposes. In the other words, they can commit the same kind of errors during a certain stage of language learning by learning the errors in order to avoid them (Mungungu, 2010). Finally, the results of the present study help to develop the teaching techniques and materials in order not to make the common grammatical errors in English writing among L2 learners.

VI. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to analyze the errors made by Thai university students while writing English essays. Used as the framework for data analysis, the Surface Strategy Taxonomy (Dulay et al., 1982) was employed to explore the errors of omission, addition, misordering, and misformation. In addition, the errors which were out of the framework were also considered. The results under the framework of Surface Strategy Taxonomy showed that omission of articles was found the most frequently made, followed by the addition of the preposition, the omission of the preposition, the omission of the subject, and misformation of subject pronoun, respectively. The findings which were out of the framework of Surface Strategy Taxonomy then revealed that the error in subject-verb agreement was the highest detected error, followed by tense errors, ambiguous sentences, a direct translation from L1 to L2, misformation of object pronoun, misformation of using an adjective as the main verb, the addition of verb to be, and addition of conjunction, accordingly. The findings would also benefit for pedagogy in the way of developing both writing course and teaching material. For further study, the researchers should also conduct the qualitative method by interviewing the participants in order to get genuine data on the errors that they exactly did.

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EFL Writing Students' Responses towards Teacher Feedback to Enhance Their Writing Quality

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Abstract—This study deals with seventy-six students' feelings and perceptions on the teacher feedback that they received from their writing classes. Teacher feedback is sometimes seen as something unwanted, sickening, and even frustrating. Some students do not like getting feedback from their teachers as they think that the feedback corners them, pinpointing their weaknesses and errors. This makes them full of stress and have greater anxiety. Those aspects may be the negative sides of feedback that some students perceive. As a matter of fact, if learners are willing to look deeper into the benefits of feedback that teachers give, especially in writing, they will not feel the negative sides of feedback. Instead, they will crave and wait for it. The purpose of this study is to reveal the perceptions of 76 EFL learners' reactions towards teacher feedback that they received in their writing classes. The results of the study hopefully can inspire writing lecturers to give supportive corrective feedback, so that EFL learners' writing can be improved.

Index Terms—EFL, writing, feedback, writing quality

I. INTRODUCTION

“Learners need endless feedback more than they need endless teaching.” It is a very wise statement from Grant Wiggins (in Cunyngame, 2020), who describes the importance of teacher feedback. Teacher feedback is an important factor that can help students improve the quality of their writing, both in terms of content and language quality. Students in many ways still depend on their teachers' help, either in the form of consultation as a form of direct, spoken feedback or written feedback. In terms of both content and language, many students still rely on their teachers to help them produce a good piece of writing. Panhoon and Wongwanich (2014) even claim that feedback is the most powerful influence on learning. Rachael (2015) suggested that it may be better for teachers to provide feedback on students' grammar and content, while peer students can assist in the organization and academic style.

According to Wiggins (2012), basically, feedback is information about how students are doing in their efforts to reach a goal. An example of this is when a tennis player hits a tennis ball with the goal of keeping it within the court boundaries, and the tennis player will see where it lands, is it in or out of bounds. Also, when someone tells a joke with the goal of making people laugh, the person will observe other people's reactions – whether they laugh loudly or barely snuffle. The same case happens to teachers. When a teacher teaches a lesson with the goal of engaging the students, he/she can see that some students have their eyes focused on the teacher while others are nodding off. Teacher feedback has long been discussed and has also caused some controversies in its effectiveness, importance, as well as functions.

Considering the importance of teacher feedback for tertiary students, especially in the field of writing, this study was thus conducted. There is one central question addressed in this study: *How do second language writing students respond to teacher feedback?* Students' responses, in this case, constitute their opinions, perspectives, as well as feelings that they had upon receiving teacher feedback on their essays.

The research was done on four classes of writing, that is, *Research Proposal Writing*, *Academic Writing*, *Writing for the Media*, and *Creative Writing*, in an English Language Education Study Program, in a private university in Central Java, Indonesia. The writing classes were selected based on the consideration that *Creative Writing* is the first writing class offered to first-year students, while the other two writing classes, *Writing for the Media* and *Academic Writing*, are the two highest writing classes before students go to *Research Proposal Writing*.

The data collection on *Research Proposal Writing* was conducted in Semester II of the 2018/2019 academic year, involving fifteen (15) students. Then the research on *Academic Writing* was done on twenty (20) 2017 class year students in Semester III of the 2018-2019 academic year. Data from *Writing for the Media* was gathered from nineteen (19) 2018 class year students in Semester I of the 2019-2020 academic year. The last data from twenty-two (22) *Creative Writing* students were also derived from Semester I of the 2019/2020 academic year. Altogether, there were seventy-six (76) student participants in this study. These students were taught by the researchers, and all the students in those classes agreed to become the respondents of this research. The sampling technique was thus random sampling.

This study aimed to investigate students' perceptions of the importance of teacher feedback on their writing, and their feelings towards it. The participants in this study were randomly given initials as Student 1 to Student 76. The results showed that there were three kinds of second language writing students' responses toward teacher feedback. They had

positive responses, negative reactions, and mixed opinions.

A. *The Definition and Purpose of Feedback*

That many writing students are still very dependent on their teachers' help, including teachers' feedback is an undeniable fact. Students of English as a foreign language still need much help from their writing teachers. One form of teachers' help in second language writing is feedback given to improve students' writing quality, both in language and content. One may wonder what is actually meant by feedback. Regarding the definition of feedback, Zaman and Asad (2012) stated that feedback is a crucial part of writing development. One of the other purposes of giving feedback on learners' writing is because teachers want to give influence on the students' language use in the future and give comments on its past time use (Harmer, 2007, in Zaman & Asad, 2012).

Feedback can either be supportive or unsupportive. Ellis (2009) stated that supportive feedback affirms that a learner's response to activity is correct. Corrective feedback is actually a kind of unsupportive feedback. This remains debatable among researchers and teachers. Supportive feedback should be motivating and many second language (L2) learners give massive significance to it. On the other hand, it is argued that unsupportive feedback can be disheartening and this can affect learners' attitudes towards feedback; they may act adversely (in Zaman & Asad, 2012). Zaman and Asad (2012) further asserted that too many and too frequent corrections or unsupportive feedbacks have a demotivating effect on the learners. Lee (2008) claimed that L2 students in general put a high priority on the accuracy of their writing. That is why these learners are eager to have their errors indicated by the teacher.

In practice, according to Park (2014), feedback tends to be infrequent, not well coordinated, unclear, and no actions can be taken on it. Feedback providers, principals, coaches, and peers often lack professional development. They often lack skills, which new teachers need in order to involve themselves in feedback conversations, which are instructive and productive. Because of these problems, some organizational and structural issues at school and district levels may find confusion about the purpose of feedback. Agbayahoun's (2016) research findings also showed that teachers expected that feedback would be a tool to promote students' accuracy in writing, while students hoped that they also got feedback in terms of content.

Hattie and Timperley (2007) also emphasized the importance of feedback. They asserted that feedback is one of the most dominant influences on students' learning and achievements. The impact can be either positive or negative. The power of feedback is frequently mentioned in articles about learning and teaching. Smart (2003) argued that students will decide what works and what does not work based on the feedback that they receive.

Hyland and Hyland's (2006, in Lee, 2008) study suggested that students possibly find teacher feedback useful under two conditions. First, when it involves the student writer, and secondly when it is contextualized. Contextualized means that individual student needs are taken into consideration. Students are more likely to perceive feedback as effective when it is used to build good relationships with students, and it is targeted to their personalities as well as needs. Hence, student reactions seem to be influenced by who the teacher is and how s/he interacts with students during the feedback process.

In dealing with feedback, Tomczyk (2013) asserted that it is essential to distinguish between *errors* and *mistakes*. Corder (1967) and Selinker (1972), as cited in Tomczyk (2013), claimed that an error is an unusual form, which results from a lack of knowledge of a particular form, and this reflects a learner's current stage of their *interlanguage* development. It can be said as a learner's attempt to try something out, even though he/she does not have adequate knowledge yet to produce a given form or item in the correct way.

Corder (1967, in Tomczyk, 2013) added that a mistake refers to a learner's inaccuracy and performance problems, which are temporary in nature. This happens when a student is familiar with a rule, but an incorrect form appears. This can be caused by inattention, fatigue, or the result of a change from one's original plan or intention during the speaking. Truscott (1999) claimed that there is no proof that corrective feedback is helpful. However, teachers treat feedback as something that is always necessary for the language classroom. On the other hand, Lyster, Lightbrown, and Spada (1999, in Tomczyk, 2013), disagreed with Truscott's paper. They claimed that correcting students' deviant forms seldom hurts their self-esteem. In fact, most learners expect to receive corrective feedback. Deci and Ryan (1985, in Maherzi, 2012, p. 774) maintained that supportive feedback would allow the individual to be competent. In contrast, the feeling of "incompetence or *amotivation*" may result from constant unsupportive feedback.

B. *Emotions and Feedback*

Dowden, Pittaway, Yost, and McCarthy (2013) conducted research on student perceptions of feedback, while Young (2000) studied the relationship between self-esteem and feedback (in Taggart & Laughlin, 2017). The first mentioned study dealt with the collection of survey and focus group data. It found that there was increased attention given to the relationships between emotions and feedback. The second study revealed that predictably, self-esteem seems to significantly affect student responses to feedback. Students with higher self-esteem had more positive attitudes towards receiving feedback and often perceived unsupportive comments as positive, while students with lower self-esteem did not.

Another researcher, Lee (2008, p. 145), claimed that without understanding students' feelings and responses to teacher feedback, teachers may run the risk of continually using counter-productive strategies. When teachers give feedback on student writing, it is essential that student responses to the feedback be returned back to teachers as an

empirical approach. This is important to help teachers develop reflective and effective feedback practices. Still, according to Lee (2008), previous research on student views of feedback has constantly shown that students treasured and appreciated teacher feedback. They also gave much greater attention to it than other types of feedback like audio feedback, peer evaluation, or self-evaluation.

C. Feedback in Red Ink

Raihany (2014) mentioned that many teachers often give feedback on the students' work, especially writing tasks, in the form of returned papers covered with red ink. This actually can result in students' disheartenment and lack of self-confidence. Even worse, teachers often mark and correct the surface errors in students' compositions, write brief comments, or sometimes no comments at all. They often use only underlining or circular signs and finally provide a grade as a result, and their students' writing results do not improve much. Pitifully, many teachers are not aware of this.

Raihany (2014) further stated that feedback plays an important role in motivating further learning because it informs learners about the results of their learning or their needs for improvement. Feedback is also essential for improving not only learning, but also and teaching. It enables teachers to find out to what point they have been successful in their teaching and what they need to do to make their teaching more effective. Feedback also influences learning in that it provides an opportunity for learners, mainly EFL learners, to know what they need to do in order to improve.

Receiving a corrected piece of work full of the teacher's judgmental comments in bright red ink can indeed be frustrating. Nevertheless, a teacher's written comments on a student's paper can be encouraging and motivating. Being motivated, the student may then produce a much better piece of writing than the corrected one. This is what is called *corrective feedback* from the teacher. Hyland (2002) affirmed that feedback, either from a tutor or from peer students, is a central element of a writing course.

Balu, Alterman, Haider, and Quinn (2018, p. 11) discussed an institution that really gives special attention to feedback. A school in New York City conducts a program called *New Visions*. In this program, teachers have an opportunity to give their students *more pointed* comments and suggest the steps for revision. All of this is integrated into online assignments. In the second year, teachers' comments will focus on sentence-level revisions, which are easier for students than revisions related to an entire assignment. It is an example of integrating technology with student writing and teacher feedback.

D. Previous Studies

Some studies have been done in the area of teacher feedback.

In 2007, Hattie and Timperley reviewed 196 studies on feedback and concluded that "effective feedback can almost double the average student growth over a school year" (in the Australian Institute for Teaching and School Leadership (AITSL), 2019, p. 4). Black and Wiliam (2010, as cited in AITSL, 2019), asserted that many studies also showed that an improved formative assessment called feedback, helps lower-achieving students to perform better. Teacher feedback also can raise the overall standards of students' attainment while reducing the gap between higher- and lower-achieving students at the same time. According to AITSL, effective feedback practices will provide a bridge between two important aspects, that is, assessments and learning (2019).

Tomczyk (2013) also conducted a study with a purpose to compare teachers' and students' perceptions of oral errors and their corrective feedback, which is an inseparable part of language acquisition. As many as forty-three (43) secondary school teachers and 250 English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners became the participants of the study. They filled out questionnaires and they were observed in real-life situations in the language classroom. The findings revealed that corrective feedback is an important part of language learning. It was even expected by most students. Besides that, the majority of the teachers and learners stated that grammatical and pronunciation errors seemed to be the most important as far as error correction is concerned. The findings also showed that "*it is the teacher who is regarded as a competent, non-erring and ultimate authority*" (p. 930). Therefore, teachers are supposed to provide corrective feedback whenever deviant forms occur.

Another researcher, Elsaghayer (2014), conducted a study on one hundred ten (110) EFL learners found that the respondents reacted emotionally towards corrective teacher feedback. It sounds contradictory to Lyster, Lightbrown, and Spada's (1999) opinion (in Tomczyk, 2013, p. 2) that correcting students' deviant forms seldom hurts their self-esteem, and that most learners expect to receive corrective feedback.

Suarez, Cerezo, Rosario, and Valle's (2015) study dealt with a survey in Bangladesh, which explored EFL university teachers' and learners' perceptions of the issue of feedback. The results of the survey indicated that both the teachers and learners had very positive attitudes towards corrective feedback. Besides that, they also paid great attention to feedback on the word form.

Taggart and Laughlin (2017) surveyed 343 students nationwide who took a writing-intensive course. They were asked to learn about the moments when they were not able to take teacher feedback and use it to revise. They were also asked to recall the times when they used feedback against their own judgment. It was found that students' expressions of the negative moments often reflected a hierarchy. They felt disrespected and confused. They had common desires, which were for more time and space, respect, and clearly worded, consistent instructions. This is in line with Brookheart's (2008) opinion. She proposed that good teacher written feedback has clarity, with specificity not too broad nor too narrow, and tone in dealing with word choice and language style.

In 2019, Arndt also conducted a study on corrective feedback. Ten participants from his study supported both direct and indirect feedback methods. These learners believed that when they understood why an error was marked, they would be able to incorporate the feedback into their present as well as future writing tasks, thus becoming better writers.

From the elaborations above, it can be clearly seen that there are many things that are interrelated with a teacher's feedback. Teacher feedback can be encouraging, a kind of "approval" which adds students' satisfaction in their successful learning process. This satisfaction is rooted in their intrinsic motivation. The role of the teacher's feedback, which is corrective and encouraging, then, cannot be taken for granted. It should be given a special place in the teacher's mind map. On the other hand, teacher feedback can also be negative, discouraging, and disheartening. What is meant by unsupportive feedback is actually corrective feedback. In this case, it is important for a teacher to use wise words to write one's feedback. This is basically meant to help students perform better and not the other way around.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Data for this research was taken from participants' questionnaire answers from four different writing classes. The first questionnaires were collected at the end of Semester II in the 2018/2019 academic year (around April 2019), from *Research Proposal Writing*, involving fifteen (15) students. Next, data collection was also done on twenty (20) 2017 class year students at the end of Semester III in the 2018-2019 academic year (around July 2019) for *Academic Writing* students. Data from *Writing for the Media* was gathered from nineteen (19) 2018 class year students at the end of Semester I in the 2019-2020 academic year (around December 2019). The last data was from twenty-two (22) *Creative Writing* students and was also derived at the end of Semester I in the 2019/2020 academic year (around December 2019). Altogether, there were seventy-six (76) student participants in this study. The researcher taught all these students.

Interviews were also conducted with five (5) students in April 2020 to validate the students' answers, and also to ask for clarification from vague or ambiguous answers. All the data collected, both the journals and interviews, was done in English. In all these writing classes, many kinds of activities were conducted, like small group discussions in the form of peer assessments to examine a peer's introduction, body, and conclusion. For daily writing exercises in dealing with writing skills like paraphrasing, summarizing, writing in-text citations, or writing parts of the essay, like the introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion, the students submitted hard copies. This made it easier for them to assess each other's work while doing a peer assessment or peer review. For the complete final drafts, however, they were asked to submit them in the form of soft copies through an educational platform.

There were basically three themes drawn from the questionnaire answers, that is, favorable, unfavorable, and mixed opinions towards teacher feedback. The participants in this study were given initials of P1 until P76. In order to be ethical and respect the confidentiality of the participants' data, their real names were not mentioned. Table 1 clarifies the participants in this study.

TABLE 1.
STUDENT PARTICIPANTS

Initials	Classes	Academic Years when the Classes were Offered
P1 – P15 (15 students)	<i>Proposal Writing</i> class	Semester II/ 2018-2019
P16 - P35 (20 students)	<i>Academic Writing</i> class	Semester III/ 2018-2019
P36 – P57 (22 students)	<i>Writing for the Media</i> class	Semester I/ 2019-2020
P58 – P76 (19 students)	<i>Creative Writing</i> class	Semester I/ 2019-2020

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

In this study, there were two main questions asked in the questionnaires. The first question was: *Do you think that teacher feedback is necessary?* And the second question was: *How do you feel when you get teacher feedback?* For the interview, there was only one question asked: *Can you please elaborate on your feelings when you get teacher feedback in more detailed statements?* Various answers were derived from the questionnaires as well as interview sessions with the students.

From all the participants in this study, it was found that there were 49 student participants (64.47%) who had good or positive perceptions towards teacher feedback in their writing classes. Ten students (13.16%) displayed unfavorable attitudes towards teacher feedback, and the remaining seventeen students (22.37%) had mixed perceptions towards teacher feedback. Here is the detailed information on the perceptions.

A. Students with Good Perceptions towards Teacher Feedback

Out of 76 participants in this study, 49 (64.47%) showed that they had positive or good perceptions of teacher feedback. Most of these students mentioned that teacher feedback was necessary and it helped them a lot in their writing. Twenty-three (23) students claimed that they felt happy and helped by teacher feedback. Some participants' quotations were as follows, *"I am happy because when I get handwritten feedback, I can see some details"* (Participant 1, *Proposal Writing* class). A similar statement came from Participant 7, *"I feel satisfied with the teacher feedback because it helps*

me do my research in an organized way" (Participant 7, Proposal Writing class).

Besides the 23 students who showed positive attitudes towards teacher feedback, five (5) students talked about having a better understanding of writing. They claimed that the teacher feedback made them understand better. This is one student's statement, *"Teacher feedback makes me understand about my paper better and I can make better sentences/ paragraphs after getting feedback from my teacher"* (Participant 59, from Creative Writing class). Similar statements were also stated by P4, P51, P60, and P62. Eleven (11) other students admitted that feedback made them know their mistakes. The feedback helped them identify their errors and mistakes and it made it easier for them to revise their work.

Excerpt 1:

I feel thankful because through the teacher feedback I can improve my writing and make it better. If I do not get feedback, I do not know where my mistakes are. From this, I can learn from my mistakes.

(Participant 49, Writing for the Media class)

Excerpt 2:

Teacher feedback is necessary for me because I can know my writing errors, and I feel happy because it is meaningful for me.

(Participant 50, Writing for the Media class)

Four (4) other students said that they were happy because getting teacher feedback meant that their teacher cared for them. They felt that their teacher showed her willingness to help through feedback. *"I feel like my teacher really read my essay and had a willingness to help me"* (Participant 28, Academic Writing class). A similar statement was also mentioned by Participant 74. *"I feel really happy because I think the teacher really cares about our work and I think that the teacher appreciates our work. Even when there's something wrong, the teacher helps us a lot to fix our work"* (Participant 74, Creative Writing class).

Still included in the positive attitude group, the remaining six (6) students gave distinct and different answers. It can be said that they gave unique answers. Participant 46, for example, mentioned that her writing skills have improved because of the teacher feedback on her writing. Participant 55 admitted that the teacher feedback became a kind of reflection for her that she should do better and correct her mistakes in the past. Participant 57 felt that he was motivated to improve his writing so that he could get better scores in the next assignment. Participant 58 mentioned that she felt a personal touch when getting feedback from her teacher. Participant 67 even admitted that she loved seeing her teacher's handwriting in the feedback. The last participant, Participant 72, mentioned that she appreciated and liked her teacher's feedback because it was fun to see the feedback. Excerpts 9 and 10 show some of the statements from the participants: *"I like and appreciate my teacher's feedback, and it is fun to see the feedback"* (Participant 72, Creative Writing class), and *"I feel that my teacher's feedback is friendly, and I feel a personal touch in the feedback"* (Participant 58, Creative Writing class).

The fact that the teacher feedback made the participants realize their errors is in line with Sidorova's (2016) study. The indirect written corrective feedback that the English language learners received over the course of the study had a positive effect on their views and written accuracy.

In summary, there were various reasons why the 49 student participants in this study had good or positive perceptions towards teacher feedback. Table 2 shows the overall reasons.

TABLE 2.
STUDENTS' POSITIVE RESPONSES TOWARDS TEACHER FEEDBACK

Initials	Reasons for Having Positive Opinions	Number
1, 7, 9, 10, 11, 14, 19, 20, 22, 24, 25, 26, 27, 30, 33, 34, 36, 37, 38, 44, 45, 71, 76	Teacher feedback helped them	23
4, 51, 59, 60, 62	Teacher feedback enhanced their understanding of how to write well	5
6, 12, 15, 48, 49, 50, 56, 64, 66, 68, 69	Teacher feedback made them know their errors/ mistakes	11
28, 43, 61, 74	Teacher feedback made them appreciate their teacher	4
46, 55, 57, 58, 67, 72	Other answers	6
Total number		49

The problem of teacher feedback has been highlighted by Hyland and Hyland (2006, as cited in Lee, 2008). As previously mentioned above, they claimed that students are more likely to find teacher feedback useful when it involves the student writer and when it is *contextualized*, meaning that individual student needs are taken into consideration. Students themselves are more likely to perceive feedback as effective when it is used by teachers to build good relationships with students, and it is targeted to their personalities as well as needs. Hence, student reactions seem to be influenced by who the teacher is and how s/he interacts with the students during the feedback process.

B. Students with Negative Perceptions towards Teacher Feedback

Out of 76 student participants, there were ten (10) participants who thought of teacher feedback negatively. There were three reasons for not liking teacher feedback. The first reason was that it was difficult to understand the teacher's handwriting. There were five students who stated this: P16, P17, P18, P31, P65, and P70. The second reason was that they found it difficult to understand the symbols used in marking their papers. It was stated by P2 and P54. The last two student participants, P39 and P40, admitted that they were nervous and worried to see their teacher's feedback. It means that teacher feedback was in a way threatening for them. Below are some excerpts of the students who had negative perceptions of their teacher feedback. *"I am nervous to get feedback on my paper because it means that I made many mistakes and I should fix them"* (Participant 39, *Writing for the Media* class). Participant 40 also stated a similar thing. *"I feel worried about how many mistakes I made in my paper"* (Participant 40, *Writing for the Media* class).

This is in line with what Deci and Ryan (1985, in Maherzi, 2012, p. 774) stated. They maintained that supportive feedback would allow students to be competent. "When there is no external pressure, the feedback would positively affect students' intrinsic motivation to accomplish optimally stimulating, moderately difficult activities". In contrast, feelings of incompetence or loss of motivation might emerge from constant unsupportive feedback.

C. Students with Mixed Perceptions towards Teacher Feedback

The rest of the student participants, 17 people, had mixed perceptions towards teacher feedback. They perceived the feedback both positively and negatively. Four of them mentioned that they were happy to get teacher feedback, but somehow felt unconfident, nervous, and afraid to get their teacher's feedback (P8, P41, P52, P63). These quotations show these participants' nervousness: *"I felt happy but my heart beats fast every time I get feedback from my teacher. Feedback really helps me 'repair' my mistakes"* (Participant 8, *Proposal Writing* class), and *"I feel unconfident because it means that my work is not perfect, just as I had expected. But I also feel happy because I can fix my mistakes"* (Participant 41, *Writing for the Media* class).

IV. DISCUSSION

The fact that feedback can be either positive or supportive and negative or unsupportive has previously been discussed. Folkman (2006) mentioned that for many people, giving and receiving feedback is seen as something negative more than positive. In reality, most feedback results contain both supportive and unsupportive feedback. Nevertheless, most people focus on the negative side and believe that the key to self-improvement is found in fixing their own weaknesses, which can either be positive or negative. Ellis (2009) stated that supportive feedback shows that a learner's response to activity is correct.

On the other hand, unsupportive feedback signals that the learner's utterance or writing lacks veracity or is linguistically not right. Ellis (2009) also claimed that corrective feedback is actually a kind of unsupportive feedback. Alhosani (2008, in Tsao, Tseng, and Wang, 2018) claimed that the purpose of giving written corrective feedback is basically to help learners improve their writing proficiency. This can be done by minimizing errors and maximizing clarity in their pieces of writing. Up to now, this case remains debatable among researchers and teachers. It can further be interpreted that supportive feedback is motivating and many second-language learners (L2 learners) place great attention to it. On the other hand, unsupportive feedback may make learners demotivated and this finally makes their attitudes adverse towards feedback (as cited in Zaman & Asad, 2012).

Seven student respondents admitted that they were glad getting teacher feedback. However, they had difficulties understanding their teacher's handwritten feedback. The writing was sometimes unclear and they could not understand what the teacher meant. These student participants were P5, P13, P21, P23, P29, P32, and P35.

All the participants who were interviewed in April 2020 (P1, P2, P6, P18, and P65) stated a similar perception. When they did not understand the teacher's feedback or the symbols in the feedback, they preferred asking the teacher directly to get a clearer understanding of the meaning. Three of them, P2, P18, and P65, also asked their peer students whom they thought were more capable than they were. If their peer students could not give satisfactory answers, they would resort to their lecturer.

The last seven student participants (P3, P35, P42, P47, P53, P73, P75) had their own unique answers. P42 and P47, for example, felt that they needed face-to-face interactions or direct interactions with the teacher to get the teacher's message across. P3 admitted that sometimes he felt encouraged and sometimes discouraged after getting teacher feedback, depending on the teacher. P53 felt that teacher feedback was necessary; however, it made his assignment "dirty" or untidy. P73 thought that he was happy to get teacher feedback because he could know his mistakes. However, he was unhappy to rewrite or revise his work. Similar to P73, P75 felt that revising was not easy for him.

Excerpt 3:

It (teacher feedback) is necessary because it helps us to know our errors. However, I prefer having face-to-face feedback so that I can communicate better with the teacher. (Participant 42, *Writing for the Media* class)

Excerpt 4:

I could feel either really encouraged or discouraged depending on the teacher, the color of pen used, and content of the feedback. A red glaring pen will discourage me, but other colors won't. (Participant 3, Proposal Writing class)

Students' preference of direct feedback is in line with Fithriani's (2017) study. One of the findings of her study mentioned that students preferred a direct rather than an indirect form of feedback. This has also been mentioned previously. Lee (2008) explained that how students respond to feedback might be influenced by the teacher who delivers the feedback. Wihastyanang, Kusumaningrum, Latief, and Cahyono's (2019) experimental study on 55 English Department students, however, found that students who had an online teacher and peer feedback provided through Edmodo did not perform better in writing than those who experienced teacher feedback in the conventional offline method.

Lee (2008) asserted research findings such as students' welcome praise (Gee, 1972) and students like to receive both praise and constructive criticism (Ferris, 1995; Hyland, 1998), which are examples of generalizations that need to be examined further. Who the teacher is and how the comments are given the need to be researched more deeply.

The use of threatening ink in giving feedback has also been discussed. Raihany (2014) mentioned that many teachers often give feedback on the students' work, especially writing work, and return them with glaring red ink. This can result in students' discouragement and a lack of self-confidence. It is often found that teachers mark and correct the surface errors in students' compositions, write brief comments, or sometimes give no comments at all. They often use codes, which are confusing for students without explaining the meaning first, like underlining or circular signs, and finally provide a grade. As a result, their students' writing, sad to say, does not improve much. However, many teachers are not aware of this and still continue to do it.

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

From the discussion above, several inferences can be drawn. First, there are some characteristics of teacher feedback. The nature of teacher feedback varies from being negative, positive or constructive, and neutral. Unsupportive feedback can make students demotivated, discouraged, anxious, or even afraid.

Secondly, students' responses toward teacher feedback also vary. A good type of feedback that students are waiting for would be one that is contextualized, meaning that is adjusted with students' conditions as well as needs. This, however, may lead to another question: How can teachers understand students' needs and conditions when giving feedback? This can be another area to be researched. The third point worth considering is that any type of feedback, whether it is written, typed, face-to-face, or online, has its own strengths and weaknesses. Provided that it can cater to students' needs and help solve students' problems, it should not matter.

In a special condition like the one amidst the coronavirus outbreak, almost all things are done online, including classes and consultations. This may trigger another problem when students cannot see their lecturer in person to ask for clarification or elaboration. This also needs to be highlighted. When students receive online feedback, what problems do they face? For students who can have a videoconference with the lecturer, it does not become a problem. What about those who are short of cellular data fund credit or lack a good Internet connection? This may lead to other problems.

Regarding students' responses toward teacher feedback, some students exhibit positive, negative, and mixed attitudes towards teacher feedback. In this study, it was found that 49 student participants (64.47%) had good or positive perceptions towards teacher feedback in their writing class. Ten students (13.16%) showed unfavorable attitudes towards teacher feedback, and the remaining seventeen students (22.37%) had mixed perceptions towards teacher feedback.

To bridge the gap between writing lecturers' and students' expectations in terms of feedback, EFL writing lecturers should consider the three parameters of effective written feedback as mentioned by Brookheart (2008), which are the clarity of the language in the feedback, the tone of the feedback, and how to deal with the word choice and style. Subconsciously, writing lecturers may show their emotions and dissatisfaction through the tone of feedback. This, in turn, may cause learners to be discouraged and lose motivation. In the worst cases, it even may result in lower self-esteem or self-confidence. The other thing is specificity, meaning that the feedback is not too narrow nor too broad which may confuse learners. Besides giving feedback with clear language, the right tone, and good specificity, EFL writing teachers should also creatively use any possible means to suit the learners' needs and concerns (Hamp-Lyons & Hyland, in Seker & Dincer, 2014).

This study hopefully yields some pedagogical contributions regarding the area of feedback and hopefully, this study helps shed a light on the area of teacher feedback; that is, second language writing lecturers can have some ideas of what kind of feedback is constructive and contextualized for their students. Future researchers can conduct research with more participants, not only in writing courses but also in other areas like speaking, listening, or grammar classes.

APPENDIX A. QUESTIONNAIRE QUESTIONS

1. How do you feel when you get your teacher's feedback? Please explain.
2. Is it clear for you?
3. How does your teacher usually give feedback? Written or typed?

4. Does your teacher ever use red ink to give feedback? How do you feel?
5. Do you feel any personal touch when feedback is given with handwriting?
6. Do you think your teacher is more expressive when using handwritten feedback?

APPENDIX B. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Student 1:

You said in the previous questionnaire that you like to get hand-written feedback in writing because you can see the details in the feedback.

What if you don't get detailed feedback? Or, what if you get feedback that you don't understand. What do you usually do?

Student 2:

You said in the previous questionnaire that you are happy when you get feedback because you can know directly what your mistakes are. What if you get feedback from your teacher in writing, but you don't understand what to do? What are you going to do?

Student 6:

You said in the previous questionnaire that sometimes you are not happy with teacher feedback because you don't understand the symbols/ marks made by your teacher in your writing. In this case, what do you usually do?

Student 18:

In the previous questionnaire, you said that you sometimes did not like getting your teacher's feedback in writing class because you cannot read the teacher's handwriting which is unclear. In this case, what do you do?

Student 65:

In the previous questionnaire, you said that you sometimes did not like getting your teacher's feedback in writing class because you cannot read the teacher's handwriting which is unclear. In this case, what do you do?

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The Pedagogy of Corpus-aided English-Chinese Translation from a Critical & Creative Perspective

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Abstract—With the advancement of corpus linguistics, there has been an increasing interest in using corpora as a tool for translator training and translation practice. Despite the usefulness of corpora in translation pedagogy, the more and more reliance on parallel corpora in translating activities has diminished the ability to determine the meaning of words within different contexts using dictionaries. However, it has hampered the enhancement of translation competence of trainee translators. This study investigates the necessity of adopting critical and creative thinking in the teaching of corpus-aided English-Chinese translation. It first examines the increasing importance of corpora in aiding translator training and translating practice. A critical analysis was adopted to analyze a translation case using a parallel corpus. Thirteen Chinese versions of *Pride and Prejudice's* opening remark were compared and analyzed critically and creatively with the aid of different corpora. Pedagogical implications for translation teaching were summarized.

Index Terms—critical, creativity, translation, pedagogy, corpus, English, Chinese

I. INTRODUCTION

The combination of corpus linguistics and Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) has given rise to Corpus-based Translation Studies (CTS). Many different corpora types, such as monolingual, parallel, comparable corpora, have been built and applied in translation studies (Zanettin, 1998). According to Laviosa (2004), Gellerstam's first monolingual comparable corpus of Swedish novels in 1986 and Lindquist's investigation of Swedish renderings of English adverbials with a parallel language database in 1989 marked the beginning of applied corpus translation studies, which was mainly concerned with the practice and training of translators (Laviosa, 2004, p.15). Laviosa also pointed out that corpora in applied CTS are used as sources for the retrieval of translation equivalents to help improve the quality and efficiency of target texts. Moreover, it functions as “repositories of data” for better understanding of the translation process and language behavior (ibid.). Unlike descriptive studies, which mainly use parallel, comparable monolingual corpora as well as single translational corpora for a description of translation process and product, applied CTS rely primarily on comparable bilingual corpora or monolingual target language corpora in experiments or classroom teaching of translation to enhance the acquisition of translation skills and target language competence (Laviosa, 2002, p. 101).

As a new paradigm of translation research, Chinese scholars have already adopted corpus linguistics and applied to their studies. Liu Kanglong & Mu Lei (2006) explored the relationship between corpus linguistics and translation studies. Hu Xian Yao (2007) discussed the characteristics of lexical terms in Chinese translated novels based on corpora. Xiong Bing (2015) studied a translation teaching model based on an English-Chinese parallel corpus, and Xu Jiajin (2016) looked at the semantic generalization of translational English based on comparable corpora. However, Malmkjær warned that the bulk of statistical evidence, like corpora's concordances, may lead scholars to neglect or ignore problematic translation (Baker, 1998, p. 53). The novice translators, who have not yet developed proficient linguistic ability and translation competence, might rely too much on corpora to produce the target texts without appropriate guidance from the teachers or trainers. Therefore, it is quite essential and necessary for both teachers and students to assume critical and creative thinking in corpus-aided translation. The masterpieces of translation are mostly the result of the translators' creativity, and “creativity in translation starts where imitation stops” (Newmark, 1991, p. 9).

This paper first reviewed the importance of corpora in translation pedagogy. Then, a comparison was made between dictionaries and corpora in translation, followed by a discussion of creativity as an essential quality of translators. Afterward, a statistical investigation into parallel and monolingual corpora was conducted. The pedagogical implications for translation teaching and practice were summarized in the last section.

II. IMPORTANCE OF CORPORA IN TRANSLATION TRAINING AND PRACTICE

A. Application of Corpora to Translation Studies

The development of computer technology has made possible the automatic processing of large-scale information. When such technology is applied to collecting texts representing a given language for linguistic analysis, a new branch

of general linguistics called corpus linguistics came into being. Modern corpus linguistics began in the early 1960s, marked by the creation of Brown Corpus (Laviosa, 2002, p. 3). After nearly thirty years of progress, Sinclair (1992) predicted that there would be “some fascinating years and decades in linguistics” based on the development of computer technology which enables people to retrieve information from text corpora, and he firmly believed that such technology would exert the most profound effect in the study of language (Sinclair, 1992, p. 379). Following Sinclair’s prediction, Baker (1993), based on her in-depth knowledge and rich experience in the field of translation studies, argued that “the techniques and methodology developed in the field of corpus linguistics will have a direct impact on the emerging discipline of translation studies, particularly to its theoretical and descriptive branches” (Baker, 1993, p. 233). At almost the same time, Leech (1994) also proclaimed that “In the future,...the grammatical tagging of such large quantities of data is likely to have important applications” (Leech et al., 1994, p. 47). A quarter-century has passed since then, corpus linguistics has not only grown into a fully-fledged discipline in itself but been widely adopted by scholars in the field of translation studies in their research of various kinds. Furthermore, this trend had encouraged Robin et al. (2017) to claim that the spread of computer-readable electronic corpora has enabled researchers to apply corpus-based approaches to examine translated texts (Robin et al., 2017, p. 100).

B. Use of Dictionaries and Corpora in Translator Training and Translation Practice

One of the primary resources used by translators or translation trainers has been printed dictionaries (Bowker, 2000, p. 186). Dictionaries have long been the most important source of consultation for translators, regardless of professional translators or novice translators. An authoritative dictionary usually provides as many entries as possible, enabling the translators to find the equivalent meaning of some difficult words or phrases in rendering the target texts. A professional translator may use the dictionary entries as a clue to produce the closest equivalents in the target language, whereas novice translators tend to replace the words or phrases in the source language with the entries in the dictionaries mechanically. However, due to such shortcomings as limited space, the omission of terms or the lack of extended contexts, traditional dictionaries have apparent limitations in providing services to translators. The advent of corpora has changed the situation. With corpus linguistics being applied more and more widely to translation training and evaluation from the early 1990s, corpora have become “a useful complement to conventional translation resources” (Bowker, 1999, p.170). From dictionaries to the Internet and corpora, translators are relying more and more heavily on external sources. Compared with dictionaries, “corpora can provide greater coverage of the concepts and terms in a subject field,” and usage information can easily be obtained from a corpus consisting of authentic running texts written by subject field experts (Bowker, 2000, p. 187). What is more, “Corpora are also capable of providing information about the relative frequency of lexical items-information that is not typically provided in a dictionary even though it can be precious to translators” (Williams, 1996, p.290, cited from Bowker, 2000, p. 188).

While contending that Evaluation Corpus can significantly reduce the subjective element in the evaluation of translation product, Bowker also reminds that a corpus should not be taken “as a replacement for competence and critical judgment on the part of the evaluators, but rather as an aid to help them make sound and objective judgments” (Bowker, 2000, p. 206). This is a significant and timely reminder based on the fact that the application of corpus linguistics to translator training and translation studies seems to have been deemed as a fashionable approach, which has neglected the significance of laying a solid foundation for novice translators. However, when emphasizing the objectivity of corpora in identifying lexical errors made by student translators, Bowker (2000, p.199) hypothesized that corpus-based feedback would be more convincing and acceptable to students, which would “result in the production of higher quality translations.” It should be pointed out that corpus-based feedback alone is insufficient to enhance students' competence in rendering high-quality translations. Some concordances in target language found in some parallel corpora might not be the closest or appropriate equivalents judging from contextual or cultural criteria.

To sum up, both translation teachers and students must be wise in using dictionaries and corpora. Dictionaries provide entries and explanations, while corpora offer more examples and broader context, which complement each other. Translation teachers or trainers, in particular, should assume critical and creative thinking in their daily training practice with corpora.

III. CRITICAL AND CREATIVE THINKING IN CORPUS-AIDED TRANSLATION

A. Creativity in the Translation Process

People with little knowledge of translation tend to believe that translation is no more than finding the equivalents of the source language in the target language, retaining the meaning and style at the same time. For translation practitioners, it is not the case at all. Critical and creative thinking plays a crucial role in producing masterpieces of translation, and in some sense, creativity in translation is more complicated than in creative writing. As early as the 1970s, Preiser(1976, p. 2f) had already proposed such characteristics of creativity in translation as a novelty, surprising elements, singular or at least unusual, and the fulfillment of particular needs by fitting in with reality (quoted from Kussmaul, 1995, p. 39). According to Kussmaul, despite general discussion of creativity by such scholars as Wilss, who maintained that creative translation involves “unpredictable non-institutionalized use of language” (Wilss, 1988, p.127, quoted from Kussmaul, 1995, p. 39) and Alexieva, who believed that creative translation is a non-rule-governed selection of translation variant (Alexieva, 1990, p. 5, quoted from Kussmaul, 1995, p. 39), there had been no data-based

study in this respect until then, limiting his research to non-routine processes which give rise to problems that require creative solutions (Kusssmaul, 1995, p. 39). Aranda maintained that although “creativity is an inevitable aspect of the translation process” involving “problem-solving” at an individual level, it has been “a neglected research topic in translation studies” (Aranda, 2009, p. 23) with scarce attention from the field of translation studies. The significance of creativity in translation lies in the fact that it introduces new concepts, new genres, and new devices and mirrors the shaping power of one culture on another (Aranda, 2009, p. 30). Kisiel (1990) had gone a step further, contending that translation is by no means “a seemingly slavish repetition” but “a creative repetition” that requires tact, boldness, and ingenuity, especially when none of the entries offered in the dictionary can fit the sense of the word used in the source text (Kisiel, 1990, p. 143-144). He thus regards the translator’s task as “more difficult than that of the original author” (Kisiel, 1990, p.144). From a translator training perspective, Hewson (2016, p. 20) defined creativity as:

the ability to exploit the resources of both source and target languages to produce unpredictable micro-level translation solutions that are coherent with the macro-level interpretation given to the text and compatible with external parameters.

He also claimed that creativity had rarely been explored in many general works on translation theory despite that creative approaches were frequently adopted by translation practitioners, especially in dealing with challenging texts in whatever fields. Furthermore, it was seldom studied in translation classrooms (Heuson, 2016, p. 23). Translation pedagogy generally focuses on principles, routines, norms, techniques, and technologies. In translated works, particularly literary translations, creativity differentiates an excellent translator from a mediocre translator, a masterpiece of translation from a commonplace one.

B. Critical and Creative Thinking in Corpus-aided Translation

As mentioned above, dictionaries and corpora, which complement each other, constitute primary consultation sources for translators. “Bilingual dictionaries provide normative translation solutions for lexical items, which are incorporated into standard syntactic patterns and governed by ‘correct’ grammatical usage” (Hewson, 2016, p. 14), while concordance tools enable translators to “see terms in a variety of contexts simultaneously” and frequency information can help translators to determine commonly or idiosyncratically used particular terms (Bowker, 1999, p.162;163). Therefore, corpora are “a useful complement to conventional translation resources” (Bowker, 1999, p. 170) in the real sense.

However, we should never overestimate the role of corpora in facilitating translating activities. While emphasizing the central role of corpus translation studies for the discipline of Translation Studies to remain vital and move forward, Tymoczko (1998, p. 1) suggested that “intuition and human judgment” are still essential components behind the establishment of corpora, which is no different from the design of any experiment or research program or survey. Therefore, translation practitioners and teachers must know that neither dictionaries nor corpora can replace translation competence, consisting of linguistic and extra-linguistic components. We should take advantage of technological advances in language and translation studies to gain access to a wide range of authentic and suitable texts. This would not only enable the trainers to verify or correct the students’ choices, both conceptual and linguistic, but provide more constructive and objective feedback based on the evidence (or lack thereof) in the corpus. Moreover, input enhancement through intensive exercises is always necessary and indispensable for nurturing language awareness and promoting linguistic competence in novice translators.

To assume critical and creative thinking in corpus-aided translation, we should:

- i. make use of the large number of concordances found in the parallel or monolingual corpora to set exercises for student translators;
- ii. apply translation norms acquired previously to make comments on and analysis of a few typical examples in the parallel corpora;
- iii. mobilize human judgment and creative thinking to improve some target texts.

In this way, corpus linguistics will be given full play in translation teaching and practice. In the following part, an example taken from a paper entitled “*The Role of ‘highly refined’ parallel corpora in translation teaching*” in the Journal of Chinese Translators was analyzed. First, we would like to express our thankfulness to the author. Second, it should be noted that the analysis was by no means a denial of the use of corpus by the author. On the contrary, this paper provided an excellent example of utilizing corpora in translator training. In this paper, the author illustrated the application of the parallel corpus “English-Chinese and Chinese-English Translation Distant Teaching System” developed by the City University of Hong Kong to her classroom teaching of translation. The source passage in the corpus is:

(SL)KPMG could transform into a global partnership in 10 years

The head of KPMG has forecast that the accounting firm could transform into a single global partnership within ten years.

The radical reform would be a lasting solution to regulators' concerns that the big accounting firms offer inconsistent audit work standards across the world.

Mike Rake, the international chairman of KPMG, said the creation of a single global would.

The Chinese version given in the corpus is as follows:

(TL)毕马威可能在 10 年内转成单一全球合伙企业

bì mǎ wēi kě néng zài shí nián nèi zhuǎn chéng dān yī quán qiú hé huò qǐ yè.

会计师事务所毕马威 (KPMG) 全球业务董事长麦克·雷克 (Mike Rake) 近日预言说, 公司可能在 10 年内转型成单一全球合作企业。

zài shí nián nèi zhuǎn chéng dān yī quán qiú hé zuò qǐ yè.

监管部门一直担心, 大型会计师事务所在全球提供的服务标准不一致, 而上述根本性的改革将一劳

jiǎn guǎn bù mén yī zhí dān xīn, dà xíng kuài jì shī shì wù suǒ zài quán qiú tí gōng de fú wù biāo zhǔn bù yī zhì, ér shàng shù gēn běn xìng gǎi gé jiāng

永逸地解决这一问题。

yī láo yǒng yì de jiě jué zhè yī wèn tí.

雷克先生表示, 单一合伙人制度的确立将……

Rake xiān sheng biǎo shì, dān yī hé huò rén zhì dù de què lì jiāng……

The teacher first asked the students to compare the two versions and found that the second paragraph's theme-rheme structures differed in the source and target languages. Then, by clicking the tagging mark, students found the detailed analysis of translation strategies, through which they learned the theme-rheme structures in both English and Chinese texts, and were better informed of the effect of the theme-rheme system on the cohesion and coherence of the context. After that, the teacher suggested that the students produce their own version, which read as follows:

(S)这一根本性改革将一劳永逸地解除监管部门的忧虑, 监管部门一直担心大型会计师事务所在全球提供的审计标准不一致。

zhè yī gēn běn xìng gǎi gé jiāng yī láo yǒng yì de jiě chú jiǎn guǎn bù mén de yōu lǜ, jiǎn guǎn

bù mén yī zhí dān xīn, dà xíng kuài jì shī shì wù suǒ zài quán qiú tí gōng de fú wù biāo zhǔn bù yī zhì.

Based on the knowledge of the theme-rheme structure and the two different versions of the second paragraph, the teacher asked the students to discuss in groups, and most students believed that the student version read more fluently. After analyzing the differences between the two languages, the teacher pointed out that the target text's information distribution was not in line with the Chinese way of expression. In contrast, the information distribution in the target text in the corpus has been adjusted based on the Chinese logic sequence, which was more acceptable in terms of Chinese readers' expectations. The teacher finally summarized that the comparison between the two versions further indicated the interactive relationship between the selection of theme-rheme structure and textual coherence. The above is undoubtedly an excellent case of applying parallel corpora to teaching. Students were motivated and encouraged to produce their version. However, critical and creative thinking led us to challenge this approach and doubt whether there was still room for improvement in the target text. When we took a closer look at the sentence in question in the target text, we found that in the source language, the topic of the first paragraph was the transformation of the firm that could happen within ten years, and this is followed by "the radical reform" at the beginning of the second paragraph, realizing a cohesion and making the sentence read smoothly. Whereas the corresponding Chinese version of this paragraph begins with "The regulators are concerned" through back translation, which was not mentioned in the first paragraph, thus failing to achieve cohesion and sounded a bit abrupt. From this perspective, it is not a good translation either.

Based on the version in the parallel corpus and the student's rendering, we'd like to propose the following version of the sentence in question as follows:

这一根本性改革将一劳永逸地解决监管机构所关切的大型会计师事务所在全球提供的审计标准不一致的问题。

zhè yī gēn běn xìng gǎi gé jiāng yī láo yǒng yì de jiě jué jiǎn guǎn bù mén suǒ guān qiè de dà xíng kuài jì shī shì wù suǒ zài quán qiú tí gōng de fú wù biāo zhǔn bù yī zhì de wèn tí.

This version avoided the other versions' problems, achieving cohesion and introducing new information "regulators" smoothly. It is, therefore, assumed to be a better version. Maybe we are somewhat captious in this very tiny aspect. Instead of criticizing, it is suggested that when applying specific corpora to the teaching of translation or translation practice, it had better adopt human judgment by assuming critical and creative thinking rather than taking the offerings of the corpus blindly. We should mobilize our knowledge of and experience in translation to produce better versions, which will enhance the student translator competence more effectively and improve the quality of existing corpora.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Materials

The research was designed to illustrate the significance of critical and creative thinking in corpus-aided translation practice. The well-known opening paragraph of *Pride and Prejudice* by Jane Austin was taken as an example. Its thirteen Chinese versions of different periods by different translators were compared and analyzed.

As a romantic novel, *Pride and Prejudice* was first published in 1813 and has gained tremendous popularity among Chinese readers since it was translated and introduced into China. The opening remark, "It is a truth universally acknowledged that a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife," has not only become a

household sentence in everyday expressions but also remained a hot topic in the field of literature, marriage, love, and family, etc. Researchers like Wang Yan (2007, p. 100) used the novel as a corpus to study linguistic characteristics, plot development, and character personalities with such tools as WordSmith. However, almost no endeavor has been made to compare their differences based on the analysis of relevant corpora, not to mention applying corpus analysis to translation practice and translator training. In translator training, comparable bilingual corpora are often employed to explore stylistic features of texts by comparing words and phrases with strong formal resemblance (Laviosa, 2002, p. 102). Sometimes, translators also use bilingual corpora to produce better target texts based on the equivalents of the same words or phrases. In such cases, corpora play a similar role in dictionaries, with the differences lying in a larger number of examples and extended contexts. In this research, *The Babel English-Chinese Parallel Corpus* was used as a reference for evaluating the quality and differences of target texts produced by different translators. This corpus was created on a research project *Contrasting English and Chinese* consisting of 327 English articles and their translations in Mandarin Chinese. It contains 121,493 English tokens plus 135,493 Chinese tokens from 115 texts collected from the *World of English* between October 2000 and February 2001, and 132,140 English tokens plus 151,969 Chinese tokens from 212 texts selected from *Time* from September 2000 to January 2001. The corpus contains 544,095 words, including 253,633 English words and 287,462 Chinese tokens, from such articles as *The Future of Africa*, *My Only True Love*, *For Whom The Bell Tolls*, *Hacking the Cell's Circuitry*, *Blue Sky Still Out There*, etc.. Although this is not a purely literary corpus, it is large enough with comprehensive coverage and representativeness because the language of *Pride and Prejudice* is not difficult and can be read with relative comfort even it was written more than two hundred years ago.

Furthermore, general corpora such as BNC, COCA, COHA, and MCC (Modern Chinese Corpus) will also address the above parallel corpus' deficiencies. According to Laviosa (2002, p.103), general corpora can also have equal value for enhancing translator skills and refinement of contrastive knowledge of the source and target language. BNC is the British National Corpus with 100 million word collections of written and spoken language from a wide range of sources, designed to represent a broad cross-section of British English from the late twentieth century. COCA is the Corpus of Contemporary American English, containing more than 560 million words of text (20 million words each year 1990-2017), equally divided among spoken, fiction, popular magazines, newspapers, and academic texts. MCC (www.cncorpus.org) is the corpus developed and maintained by the Chinese National Committee of Language and Characters, containing 19,455,328 tokens (including Chinese characters, letters, figures, and punctuations), 12,842,116 words (including single Character words, multi-character words, letter words, foreign words, the string of figures, punctuations), 162,875-word types in total, and 151,300 Chinese words (excluding foreign words, a string of figures and punctuation) from 9,487 texts selected from books, book chapters, journal and newspaper articles, etc.

B. Data Collection

The method of comparison was adopted to compare the thirteen versions of the opening remark of

Pride and Prejudice primarily focusing on keywords and phrases such as "truth," "must," and "be in want of," etc. Before the comparison, the information about the translators, publishing houses, the publication time, and the number of Chinese characters of each target text were collected. Then based on the results of the comparison, the Chinese equivalents of "truth," "must," and "be in want of" were listed to find out the differences. To have a clear picture of the differences in translation renderings, back translation from each Chinese version into English was provided. Concordance and Word Sketch were used to study more examples of the usage of the words and phrases mentioned above through Sketch Engine to observe their meaning within broader contexts and more examples.

During this process, the comparable bilingual corpora such as *The Babel English-Chinese Parallel Corpus*, and the monolingual corpora such as BNC, COCA, COHA, and MCC were used as sources to extract the usage of the keywords and phrases contained in the sentence of the question, as if we were looking at the collocations, the contexts and styles with an amplifier to see the exact meaning of these words and phrases more clearly to evaluate the quality of translated products by each translator. The table below (Table 1) shows the thirteen versions during the past sixty years from the 1950s to 2016. About half of the translators are professors from universities, which indicates that they had an excellent mastery of both English and Chinese languages. However, the target texts vary a lot in the diction of several keywords and phrases.

TABLE I (BELOW)

A	B	C	D	E	F
Translator	Publishing House	Time	It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife.	Number of Chinese Characters	Note
Wang, Ke Yi	Shang Hai Yi Wen	1980	凡是有钱的单身汉，总想娶位太太，这已经成了一条举世公认的真理。 Fanshi you qian de danshen han, zong xiang qu wei taitai, zhe yijing cheng le yi tiao jushigongren de zhenli.	28	Finished in the 1950s.
Sun, Zhi Li	Yi Lin	1990	有钱的单身汉总想娶位太太，这是一条举世公认的真理。 You qian de danshen han zong yao qu wei taitai, zhe shi yi tiao jushigongren de zhenli.	23	
Zhang Ling Zhang Yang	People's Literature Publishing House	1993	饶有家资的单身男子必定想要娶妻室，这是举世公认的真情实理。 Rao you jia zi de danshen nan zi biding xiang yao qu qishi, zhe shi jushigongren de zhenqing shili.	27	
Yi Hai	Hai Xia Literature & Art PH	1994	举世公认，一个拥有一大笔资产的单身男人，必定想娶一个女人做太太，这已成为一条真理。 Jushigongren, yi ge yongyou yi dabi zichan de danshen nanren, bi ding xiang qu yi ge nv ren zuo taitai. Zhe yi cheng wei yi tiao zhenli.	37	
Zhang, Jing Hao	China Translation & Publishing Corporation	2009	有钱的单身汉必定想娶妻，这条真理无人不晓。 You qian de danshen han bi ding xiang qu qin, zhe tiao zhenli wu ren bu xiao.	19	Finished in 1995.
Li, Chang Shuan	Foreign Language Teaching & Research	1997	家产万贯而又尚未婚配的男人一定需要一位贤内助，这是一条世界上尽人皆知的真理。 Jia chan wanguan er you shang wei hunpei de nan ren yi ding xu yao yi wei xian nei zhu, zhe shi yi tiao shijie shang jin ren jie zhi de zhenli.	37	
Fan, Qing Lan	SDX Joint Publishing	2010	富有的单身汉必定需要一位太太，这是一条举世公认的真理。 Fu you de danshen han bi ding xu yao yi wei taitai, zhe shi yi tiao jushigongren de zhenli.	25	
Wang, Jin Hua	Bei Yue Literature & Art	2011	一个富有的单身汉所缺少的一定是一位年轻貌美的太太，这是一条举世公认的真理。 Yi ge fu you de danshen han suo que shao de yi ding shi yingwei nianqing maomei de taitai, zhe shi yi tiao jushigongren de zhenli.	36	Compilation
Luo, Liang Gong	Yangtze Literature & Art	2011	单身男人一旦有了钱财，必定想要娶妻觅偶，这是一个举世公认的真理。 Dan shen nan ren yi dan you le qiancai, bi ding xiang yao xun qi mi ou, zhe shi yi ge jushigongren de zhenli.	29	Finished in 2007.
Fang, Hua Wen	Shang Hai Yi Wen	2011	单身汉如果手中拥有一笔可观的钱财，势必需要讨房妻室，这已成为举世公认的真理。 Dan shen han ru guo shou zhong yong you yi bi ke guan de qian cai, shi bi xu yao tao fang qi shi, zhe yi cheng wei jushigongren de zhenli.	35	
Zhang, Chen Guan	Ji Lin	2013	凡是有钱的单身汉，总想娶位太太，这已经成了一条举世公认的真理。 Fan shi you qian de danshen han, zong xiang qu wei taitai, zhe yijing cheng le yi tiao jushigongren de zhenli.	28	
Guo, Zhi Hong	Bai Hua Zhou Literature & Art	2013	富有的单身男子总想娶妻，这是天经地义的事。 Fu you de danshen nan zi zong yao qu qi, zhe shi tianjingdiyi de shi.	19	
Li, Ji Hong	Tian Jin People's Publishing House	2016	有个道理众所周知：家财万贯的单身男子，肯定是需要一位太太的。 You ge daoli zhong suo zhou zhi: jia cai wan guan de dan shen nan zi, ken ding shi xu yao yi wei taitai de.	27	

From the table above, we got the proportion of each equivalent of “truth,” “must,” and “be in want of” produced by different translators (Graph 1, below).

EQUIVALENTS OF “TRUTH”

真理 (zhēn lǐ)	真情实理 (zhēn qíng shí lǐ)	天经地义(tiān jīng dì yì)	道理(dào lǐ)	Total
10	1	1	1	13
77%	7.7%	7.7%	7.7%	100%

EQUIVALENTS OF “MUST”

总 (zǒng)	必定(bì dìng)	一定(yī dìng)	势必 (shì bǐ)	Total
4	5	3	1	13
31%	38%	23%	7.7%	100%

EQUIVALENTS OF “BE IN WANT OF”

想/想要 (xiǎng/xiǎng yào)	需要(xū yào)	要 (yào)	缺少(quē shǎo)	Total
6	4	2	1	13
46%	31%	15%	7.7%	100%

Here, ten out of thirteen equivalents of “truth” are 真理 (zhēn lǐ), accounting for 77% of the total. The equivalents of “must” are distributed relatively evenly, with four 总 (zǒng), 31% of the total, five 必定(bì dìng), 38%, while 一定(yī dìng) and 势必 (shì bǐ), accounting for 23% and 7.7% respectively. As per the phrase “be in want of,” six translators rendered it as 想/想要 (xiǎng/xiǎng yào), nearly half of the total, while 需要(xū yào), 要 (yào), and 缺少(quē shǎo) accounting for 31%, 15%, and 7.7% respectively. Which of the equivalents rendered by the translators in different periods has the closest meaning to the original? Is the equivalent of the highest proportion the best one? If not, what might be the better equivalent? We tried to answer these questions in the following section with the help of corpora.

C. Results and Discussion

The equivalent of “truth.”

We first searched for the word “truth” in *The Babel English-Chinese Parallel Corpus*, and 17 matches were returned. (Graph 2, below)

Your query "truth" returned 17 matches in 1 text (in 244,696 words [1 texts]; frequency: 69.47 instances per million words) [0.369 seconds - retrieved from cache]		
<div> <div> <div>I <</div> <div><<</div> <div>>></div> <div>> I</div> </div> <div>Show Page: 1</div> <div>No KWIC view available</div> <div>Show in random order</div> <div>New query</div> <div>Go!</div> </div>		
No	Filename	Solution 1 to 17 Page 1 / 1
1	babel_e2c	Is it best to tell him the truth ? 最好把实情告诉他吗？
2	babel_e2c	Should they at least conceal the truth until after the family vacation ? 还是他们至少应该在他与家人度假归来再告知真情？
3	babel_e2c	Studies show that most doctors sincerely believe that the seriously ill do not want to know the truth about their condition , and that informing them risks destroying their hope , so that they recover more slowly , or deteriorate faster , perhaps even commit suicide 研究表明，多数的医生真诚地相信，重病号不想得知疾病的实情，要是告知实情就会冒毁掉其希望的危险，导致其康复得更慢或者恶化得更快，甚至自刎
4	babel_e2c	As one physician wrote : " Ours is a profession which traditionally has been guided by a precept that transcends the virtue of uttering the truth for truth 's sake , and 'as far as possible do no harm ." 正如一位医师所写的那样：“我们这个职业传统上一直受一个信条支配，‘职业传统上一直受一个信条支配，只要不造成伤害受一个信条支配，，可以超越讲真话的美德来编造谎言。”
5	babel_e2c	As one physician wrote : " Ours is a profession which traditionally has been guided by a precept that transcends the virtue of uttering the truth for truth 's sake , and 'as far as possible do no harm ." 正如一位医师所写的那样：“我们这个职业传统上一直受一个信条支配，‘职业传统上一直受一个信条支配，只要不造成伤害受一个信条支配，，可以超越讲真话的美德来编造谎言。”
6	babel_e2c	Studies show that , contrary to the belief of many physicians , an overwhelming majority of patients do want to be told the truth , even about grave illness , and feel betrayed when they learn that they have been misled . 恰恰与很多医师的观点相反，研究表明绝大多数患者确实希望被告知真实病情，哪怕病情严重。一旦得知受到欺骗，他们就有被出卖的感觉。
7	babel_e2c	In truth , Bakelite - whose more chemically formal name is polyoxybenzylmethyleneglycolanilidrid - was just a harbinger of the age of plastics . 事实上，酚醛树脂其正式的化学名称是聚甲苯甲酞甘醇酞——只是预示了塑料时代的到来。
8	babel_e2c	The paper says it is impossible to distinguish a true from a false memory and it is dangerous to use confidence , vividness and detail as indicating truth . 论文认为，要区分记忆真实与否是不可能的。而且，用自信、生动以及详细作为判断真实性的标志是很危险的。
9	babel_e2c	She would never know the truth about the poems . 她永远也不会知道有关这些诗的事实真相。
10	babel_e2c	Johanna , I shall never let him know I found out the truth . 约翰娜，我决不会让他知道，我发现了事情的真相。
11	babel_e2c	Suddenly all the tension seemed to leave my body as the truth of what he said hit me . 我领悟了他话中的道理，浑身的紧张顿时消失了。
12	babel_e2c	In truth , versions of the Net have been around since the 1960s , but it really only publicly caught on after the mid-1990s . 的，各版本的互联网自从二十世纪六十年代以来就已出现，但是一直到九十年代中期以后才真正引起公众注意。
13	babel_e2c	The truth is , I was goofing off . 事实上我只是在消磨时间。
14	babel_e2c	He 's a mean truth teller and sometimes a curiously tender one . 他是一个糟糕的说真话者，时而又不可思议地表现出柔情。
15	babel_e2c	Watching Dutch 's obsessive pursuit of the truth is merely tedious and glum . 目睹达切鬼迷心窍般地查找真相的过程只会让人觉得沉闷又单调。
16	babel_e2c	But since people do n't always say what they think , marketers would need direct access to consumers ' thoughts to get the truth . 但是由于人们并不总会说出心里话，市场营销人员有必要直接了解消费者的真实想法。
17	babel_e2c	He also always told the bitter truth . 他总是把最可怕的实情告诉大家。

Of the seventeen examples found in the parallel corpus, “truth” is mostly rendered in Chinese as 实情[sh íq íng], 真情[zhēn qíng], 真相[zhēn xiàng], 事实[sh ísh í], meaning the fact, the real situation, and what happened, etc.. Maybe confined to the size of the corpus, 真理[zhēn lǐ] as the equivalent of “truth” rendered in most Chinese versions of the opening remark of *Pride and Prejudice* was not found in this corpus. Therefore, we resorted to the search for the English equivalents of 真理[zhēn lǐ] in the same corpus, and got only one result as follows (Graph 3, below):

Your query “真理” returned 1 matches in 1 text (in 275,361 words [1 texts]; frequency: 3.63 instances per million words) [0.45 seconds - retrieved from cache]		
<div> <div> <div>I <</div> <div><<</div> <div>>></div> <div>> I</div> </div> <div>Show Page: 1</div> <div>No KWIC view available</div> <div>Show in random order</div> <div>New query</div> <div>Go!</div> </div>		
No	Filename	Solution 1 to 1 Page 1 / 1
1	babel_e2c	然而他是真的。1983年，苏布拉马尼扬·钱德拉塞卡获得了诺贝尔奖，他的理论也变成了公认的真理。 But he was right ; his 1983 Nobel Prize simply made it official .

A liberal strategy was adopted in the translation of the original sentence, and no English equivalent of 真理[zhēn lǐ] was found in this corpus.

Under such circumstances, we resorted to monolingual corpora of both English and Chinese to find the concordances of the word “truth” in English and 真理[zhēn lǐ] in Chinese to know the meaning of them in a large number of examples and extended contexts. With SearchEngine, we found 8,368 concordances of the word “truth” in BNC, most of which meaning real situation, or what happened as mentioned above. Very few of them could be translated into 真理[zhēn lǐ] as in the sentence in question (Graph 4 & 5 below)

truth British National Corpus (BNC)

Query **truth** 8,386 (74.64 per million)

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Written bo... of a pavement, we will not be far from the **truth**. At Lockleys, Herts., for example, six types of

Written bo... of discussion, dignity of life, stress on **truth** in scholarship, study in depth, no fear of

Written bo... like him as long as you live." </p><p> I will swear to the **truth** of that right now. Though it was not just his

Written bo... see I should have left myself out. To tell you the **truth**, I wasn't at all pleased about Russell sitting

Written mi... through sieves into stone water jars, and if the **truth** were told, it was probably not very alcoholic

Written mi... elsewhere, were discovering some home **truths** about quality control and the merits of

Written mi... must, therefore, take account of the central **truths** of the Catholic faith and present the rest in

Written mi... the rest in proper perspective. </p><p> These central **truths** are: * the mystery of God, the Father, the Son and

Written bo... like presupposition, illocutionary force, **truth** condition to sentences or utterances,

Written bo... statements, and thus can sensibly be assigned **truth** conditions (as philosophers have long noted;

Written bo... years old These facts seem to establish that **truth** conditions must be assigned to utterances,

Written bo..., not to sentences alone (or, if one likes, **truth** conditions include context conditions). So

Written bo... semantics then one is forced to state **truth** conditions on sentences-in-contexts, or if

Written bo..., say, with the recursive assignment of **truth** conditions to well-formed formulae, so

Written bo... semantics is to be truth-conditional, then the **truth** conditions can only be assigned to utterances,

Written bo... . The sentence can only be assigned the right **truth** conditions, or alternatively be given the

Written bo... that A was a male superior (that would make **truths** relative to whomsoever they are addressed).

Written bo... the semantic content of a sentence with its **truth** conditions, then the semantic content of (4)

Written bo... individual who was the mother of Napoleon. The **truth** of (4) in no way depends on who says it, but simply

Written bo...) I am the mother of Napoleon We cannot assess the **truth** of this sentence without taking into account

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truth British National Corpus (BNC)

Query **truth** 8,386 (74.64 per million)

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Spoken con... it's title is: Scientific Research, the Whole **Truth**, er and if you like I will draw the points out of

Spoken con... n't it? Erm. I think there's supposedly, a lot of **truth** in it, really is there. I suppose there are, odd

Spoken con... give that the evidence I shall give shall be the **truth** shall be the truth the whole truth the whole

Spoken con... I shall give shall be the truth shall be the **truth** the whole truth the whole truth and nothing but

Spoken con... shall be the truth shall be the truth the whole **truth** the whole truth and nothing but the truth and

Spoken con... shall be the truth the whole truth the whole **truth** and nothing but the truth and nothing but the

Spoken con... whole truth the whole truth and nothing but the **truth** and nothing but the truth thank you Mr take a seat

Spoken con... and nothing but the truth and nothing but the **truth** thank you Mr take a seat would you keep your voice

Written bo... of 1858 brought any serious social unrest. The **truth** is that the great economic boom provided

Written bo... observed that 'the belief in philosophic **truth** has cooled off to such an extent that neither the

Written bo... had its centre of gravity in Britain. The **truth** is that the social sciences reflected the

Written mi... persistence of an older and more fundamental **truth**. Data creation and data capture are at odds with

Written mi... ' and 'worst' scenario, acknowledging that the **truth** may often lie in-between. </p><p> At best, our record

Written bo... out of silence. Intruded in the syntax, **truth** interlards The structuring brain's concocted

Written bo... we miss sometimes the wit Only those who know the **truth** 's always Absconding can hit? The Bishop's face

Written bo... use for a generation, is faith In more than **truth**, for Jesting Pilate was inspired To ask the

Written bo... was inspired To ask the question of the Way, the **Truth** and the Life. The joke was on him, we presume. A

Written bo... have it off, though. No Innuendo - but doubtless **truth** in that. Two weeks later I'm taut on a clinical

Written bo... . Perhaps there was more than a grain of **truth** in the remark of one of his closest colleagues

Written bo... conclude that there may, after all, be a grain of **truth** in the mischievous quip attributed to Oscar

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Then we turned to MCC to look for the sentences containing the word 真理[zhēn lǐ], with 754 entries found from this corpus: Graph 6 (below)

ID	语句
1	因为，毕竟名人也就是“一招牌”罢，既不可能说句句 真理 ，著文字字珠玑，也不可能事事都有新闻价值，样样都是行家里手。 #语料来源 [样本名称]: N/A; [作者]: N/A; [写作时间]: N/A; [出版年份]: 1992-7-20; [书刊名称]: 中国青年报; [编者]: N/A; [出版社]: 中国青年报社
2	现代科学已充分证明了唯物辩证法物质可分性和不可穷尽性的伟大 真理 ，亦就是证实了内在矛盾是普遍存在的。 #语料来源 [样本名称]: 《论否定的否定规律》节录; [作者]: 葛春霖; [写作时间]: N/A; [出版年份]: 1964-2-20; [书刊名称]: 新建设; [编者]: N/A; [出版社]: 新建设杂志社
3	中国人之找到马克思列宁主义的普遍 真理 ，也是如此，是对从1840年以来反对帝国主义、封建主义的阶级斗争的实践经验的总结，是付过沉重的代价的。 #语料来源 [样本名称]: 《人的正确思想是从哪里来的?》节录; [作者]: 萧前; [写作时间]: N/A; [出版年份]: 1964-7-20; [书刊名称]: 新建设; [编者]: N/A; [出版社]: 新建设杂志社
4	只是在马克思列宁主义传入中国，建立了中国共产党，把马克思列宁主义的普遍 真理 与中国实际情况结合起来以后，中国的革命才得到真正蓬勃的发展，才得到今天的胜利。 #语料来源 [样本名称]: 《人的正确思想是从哪里来的?》节录; [作者]: 萧前; [写作时间]: N/A; [出版年份]: 1964-7-20; [书刊名称]: 新建设; [编者]: N/A; [出版社]: 新建设杂志社
5	一百年来革命斗争的实践经验，失败的经验，成功的经验教育了我们，使我们真正理解到只有马克思列宁主义，只有马克思列宁主义普遍 真理 与中国革命具体实践相结合的毛泽东思想才是唯一正确的思想。 #语料来源 [样本名称]: 《人的正确思想是从哪里来的?》节录; [作者]: 萧前; [写作时间]: N/A; [出版年份]: 1964-7-20; [书刊名称]: 新建设; [编者]: N/A; [出版社]: 新建设杂志社
6	我想，不外乎是 真理 可以常新，智慧的闪光并不是那么容易磨灭的缘故吧。 #语料来源 [样本名称]: 《思想家的智慧》节录; [作者]: 江霞; [写作时间]: N/A; [出版年份]: 1980-4-10; [书刊名称]: 读书; [编者]: N/A; [出版社]: 生活·读书·新知三联书店
7	“科学是 真理 的反映”。 #语料来源 [样本名称]: 《思想家的智慧》节录; [作者]: 江霞; [写作时间]: N/A; [出版年份]: 1980-4-10; [书刊名称]: 读书; [编者]: N/A; [出版社]: 生活·读书·新知三联书店
8	这是早经无产阶级革命导师反复阐明，并为国际共产主义运动和中国革命实践反复证明了的 真理 。 #语料来源 [样本名称]: 《党的领导是我们必须坚持的基本原则》节录; [作者]: 陈途; [写作时间]: N/A; [出版年份]: 1979-3-1; [书刊名称]: 红旗杂志; [编者]: N/A; [出版社]: 红旗杂志社
9	人民用朴素的语言表达了这一颠扑不破的 真理 。 #语料来源 [样本名称]: 《党的领导是我们必须坚持的基本原则》节录; [作者]: 陈途; [写作时间]: N/A; [出版年份]: 1979-3-1; [书刊名称]: 红旗杂志; [编者]: N/A; [出版社]: 红旗杂志社
10	马克思说的“人们的社会存在决定人们的意识”，就是经过实践证明了的 真理 。 #语料来源 [样本名称]: 《树立共产主义世界观走历史的必由之路》节录; [作者]: 马定; [写作时间]: N/A; [出版年份]: 1979-3-16; [书刊名称]: 红旗杂志; [编者]: N/A; [出版社]: 红旗杂志社

The concordances in Chinese provided us with the various contexts in which 真理[zhēn lǐ] was used. It can be seen from the examples that in some contexts, 真理[zhēn lǐ] means “truth,” while in a lot of other cases, it refers to the objective things and their law of existence that are reflected in people’s mind. In the opening remark, “*It is a truth universally acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife,*” “a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife” is a truth universally acknowledged, but is not necessarily 真理[zhēn lǐ] even though it is the choice of a dominant number of the translators. What Austen talks about is a social phenomenon that exists in societies of various cultures. In the concordances found in MCC, the word 真理[zhēn lǐ] is mostly associated with such words as “science,” “practice,” and “attest,” etc. The practice is the one, and the only one criterion by which 真理[zhēn lǐ] is attested. This expression is frequently used in Chinese discourses. Here 真理[zhēn lǐ] refers not only the fact or the real situation but also the law lying behind the fact or genuine concern.

From the above exploration of the corpora’s examples and context, the word “truth” here can be paraphrased as “an established idea” or a kind of concept or phenomenon that has been generally recognized. Based on such a judgment, it was assumed that the dominant 真理[zhēn lǐ] did not seem to be an appropriate equivalent of “truth.”

The equivalent of “must.”

Of the thirteen versions of the opening remark of the *Pride and Prejudice*, four translators rendered the word “must” as 总(zǒng), five for 必定(bì dìng), three for 一定(yí dìng), and the remaining one for 势必(shì bì) as listed above.

As an auxiliary verb, “must” means (1) to be obliged or bound to by an imperative requirement; (2) to be under the necessity to; (3) to be required or compelled to. As per the above equivalents, 总(zǒng) means the tendency or general trend, while 必定(bì dìng) and 一定(yí dìng) are very close in terms of meaning. By standard query of these words in Babel Parallel Corpus (cn->en), we got the concordances (with a few examples shown below), which provided us with some clues to determine the appropriate equivalent of “must.” Graph 7 (below)

Your query “必定” returned 3 matches in 1 text (in 275,361 words [1 texts]; frequency: 10.89 instances per million words) [0.696 seconds]	
<div> <div> <div>I < << >> > I</div> <div>Show Page: 1</div> <div>No KWIC view available</div> <div>Show in random order</div> <div>New query</div> <div>Go!</div> </div> </div>	
No	Filename
1	babel_c2e
2	babel_c2e
3	babel_c2e

Graph 8 (below)

68	babel_c2e	只要有一个零售商有我想要的鞋，我想我们双方 一定 都能满意而归。 Should the right retailer match me up with the right pair of shoes, the retailer and I will both go home happy.
----	-----------	--

Graph 9 (below)

Your query "势必" returned 2 matches in 1 text (in 275,361 words [1 texts]; frequency: 7.26 instances per million words) [0.545 seconds]			
<	<<	>>	>
Show Page:	1	No KWIC view available	Show in random order
New query	Go!		
No	Filename	Solution 1 to 2	Page 1 / 1
1	babel_c2e	他们 势必 尽一切可能来保全这种表面形象，却很少会去培养自己内在的价值和注重个人的成长。 Inevitably they will do everything they can to preserve this facade, but they will do very little to develop their inner value and personal growth.	
2	babel_c2e	我心想，如果隆格获胜，那 势必 给纳粹的“优等民族”（雅利安人优异）论调增加新的佐证。 I guessed that if Long won, it would add some new support to the Nazis' "master race" (Aryansuperiority) theory.	

From the concordances of 必定(bì dìng), we can see that it means something that would “surely” or necessarily happen. The query of 一定(yī dìng) returned 85 matches, but since most of them meant “to a certain extent,” so they were not exactly what we wanted. The context of 势必(shì bì) indicates the meaning of “something will happen inevitably” or would happen. In some sense, this corpus did not provide valuable information for differentiating the purpose of the translators’ several words, respectively. Creative thinking should be mobilized to determine which of the four renderings was the most appropriate. It is generally believed that a physically, psychologically, and mentally healthy man will want or need a wife, which is quite natural in Western and oriental cultures. In Chinese culture, a single man in possession of a good fortune is usually under more necessity to have a wife than a single man without much wealth. A good fortune could consist of a large house or villa, or several houses or villas, various assets for maintenance, many servants to be supervised, etc., all of which need a capable person to maintain the smooth operation of the whole family. From this sense, 一定(yī dìng) and 势必(shì bì) seem to be the better equivalents in such a context.

The equivalent of “be in want of”

From Figure 1 in section 4.3, we knew that, out of the thirteen Chinese versions, six translators rendered 想/想要 (xiǎng/xiǎng yào) as the equivalent of the phrase “be in want of.” Through back translation, 想/想要 (xiǎng/xiǎng yào) just meant “want” in Chinese, meaning “feel a need or a desire for” or “wish or crave for something.” Let us first have a look at the historical development of the usage of this phrase in COHA. Graph 10 (below)

Corpus of Historical American English			
SEARCH	FREQUENCY	CONTEXT	ACCOUNT
SEE CONTEXT: CLICK ON WORD (ALL SECTIONS), NUMBER (ONE SECTION), OR [CONTEXT] (SELECT) [HELP...]			
CONTEXT	ALL	1810	1820
1	BE IN WANT OF	39	1
4.703 seconds			

The above graph shows the frequency of “be in want of” in nearly two hundred years from 1810 to 2000. It can be seen that this phrase has a lower frequency of use in history, starting from ONE in 1810 and reaching the highest of SIX in 1840. After that, it has been decreasing ever since. A few examples shown below provide us with the time and context of this phrase (Graph 11 below).

SECTION: 1810 (1)

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT	SAVE LIST	CHOOSE LIST	CREATE NEW LIST	SHOW DUPLICATES
1 1817 FIC Accusation A B C	. Hubert But you must not keep me long. My master will be in want of me. Mar. Marcel Oh yes! Such an honest servant can't			

Graph 12 (below)

SECTION: 1840 (6)

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT	SAVE LIST	CHOOSE LIST	CREATE NEW LIST	SHOW DUPLICATES
1 1841 FIC JulianScenesIn A B C	one part of which it is carved out. If the omnipotent Tiberius be in want of money, let the Greeks of Csarea make a contribution of such pence as			
2 1841 NF TreatiseOnDomestic A B C	spirit, " and that he is supremely wretched. Another, may be in want of all things, and yet possess that living spring of benevolence, faith,			
3 1842 FIC GrandfathersChair A B C	allowed to keep possession of this beautiful country till the white men should be in want of it. " " Did the pious men of those days never try to			
4 1847 FIC Omoo A B C	to be lying in the harbour, wooding and watering, and to be in want of men. All things considered, I could not help looking upon Taloo as			
5 1847 FIC AroundTheTea-Table A B C	we do not see that any church in city or country need long be in want of poor preaching. CHAPTER XXIX. SHELVES A MAN'S INDEX. In Chelsea			
6 1848 FIC Stranger A B C	withdraw my request; but on condition, that if ever you shall be in want of anything, I may be the first and only person in the world to			

From the contexts provided here, it seems that the phrase means “feel a desire for,” while in other contexts, it means “need.” So it is necessary to resort to corpora to investigate its usage further.

Through the function of “Word Sketch” in Sketch Engine, we used “want” as the lemma and found the following results in BNC (Graph13, below).

British National Corpus (BNC)		
want (noun) Alternative PoS: <i>verb</i> (freq: 87,744) British National Corpus (BNC) freq = 735 (6.54 per million)		
modifiers of "want" 26.12	nouns and verbs modified by "want" 9.80	prepositional phrases
you 10 9.95	me 14 10.16	"want" of ... 158 21.50
you want	do n't you want me	... for "want" 74 10.07
really 3 8.83	anything 2 5.52	... of "want" 46 6.26
nobody 5 8.68	disease 5 4.50	... on "want" 18 2.45
n't 5 8.50	hour 2 3.02	... from "want" 13 1.77
just 3 8.49	thing 2 0.92	"want" To ... 9 1.22
we 4 8.48		... by "want" 7 0.95
did 2 8.13		"want" in ... 5 0.68
do 4 8.11		... in "want" 5 0.68
becky 2 8.00		... to "want" 5 0.68
i 37 7.42		... if "want" 5 0.68
i want to		"want" to ... 4 0.54
not 2 7.18		... about "want" 3 0.41
bodily 2 6.03		"want" for ... 2 0.27
chronic 2 5.28		"want" from ... 2 0.27
genuine 2 4.57		... between "want" 2 0.27
wonderful 2 4.45		... while "want" 2 0.27
sudden 2 4.24		
less 2 3.41		
human 5 3.37		
public 4 2.31		
economic 2 1.88		
most 2 1.76		
such 2 0.53		
many 2 0.06		
	verbs with "want" as object 11.84	
	satisfy 3 5.19	
	gonna 2 5.19	
	supply 4 4.82	
	regard 2 3.37	
	do 17 3.01	
	do n't want to	
	feel 2 2.35	
	know 4 2.00	
	think 2 1.76	
	show 2 1.39	
	"want" and/or ... 8.16	
	excess 2 8.46	
	wish 2 7.26	
	desire 5 7.15	
	preference 2 7.15	
	need 13 7.12	
	wants and needs	
	disease 5 6.25	
	possessors of "want" 2.04	
	beatles 2 10.60	
	consumer 2 8.11	
	customer 2 6.96	
	people 4 4.63	
	man 2 3.78	








In the Prepositional Phrases, 158 cases of “want of,” and some concordances are shown as follows (Graph 14, below):

British National Corpus (BNC)		
Query 158 (1.41 per million) ⓘ		
First Previous	Page 3 of 8	Go Next Last
Written bo...	and this again started the discussion" For the want of a bridge here at Halling" to quote Lambarde.	
Spoken con...	because the green and the erm er, this, th for want of a better colour , it's really red, it's a sort	
Spoken con...	the fact of erm s solidarity rip fr from want of a better word . Yeah. Erm was it in your opinion	
Spoken bo...	. I think if you let development rip for the want of a better word in North Yorkshire, as I suggest	
Written bo...	'exceptional talent, which is sterilised for want of educational opportunities '. The	
Spoken con...	erm, we called it the ticket book, that was for want of some other name I suppose. It was the record	
Spoken con...	. All those positions were going for want of an application , so I applied and because	
Written bo...	simplicity of their lines but not 'Cubist' for want of a better term ; easy on the eye and bottom; they	
Written bo...	, and certainly the police did not suffer for want of legal powers . Although some specific	
Written bo...	welfare of numbers are hazarded and ruined for want of an inclosure .' They certainly were a rough	
Written bo...	for Holland in Lincolnshire lamented 'the want of gentlemen here to inhabit.	
Written bo...	my eyes when it was dark and feeling a sudden want of air opened the window when to my astonishment	
Written bo...	her happy? She felt, in her new severity (for want of a better word) only half alive, she knew she	
Written bo...	: 'What an excellent horse do they lose for want of skill and courage to manage him!' Philip at	
Written bo...	do something now, because perhaps it was for want of normal company that Eleanor Thorne lay until	
Written bo...	complained that there was great disorder 'for want of a swanmote court '. James therefore ordained	
Written bo...	Eye Of Students in Physiognomy; Who read your want of Wit or Grace, Not from your Manners, but your	
Written mi...	the course of time, but they thereby show their want of ability to observe correctly. I dissolved a	
Written bo...	to the railway with its reliable timetable for want of proper information about road services. </p>	
Written bo...	restaurants. It found, high prices; a frequent want of authenticity in purportedly French cuisine	
First Previous	Page 3 of 8	Go Next Last

The concordances are indicators of the frequency of the phrase “for want of,” which means “for lack of” or “for lacking in.” A broader context is provided here as an example in graph 15 (below):

< previous horse was led away as wholly useless and intractable. Alexander, the King's son, who was at that time twelve years old, called out to his father: 'What an excellent horse do they lose for **want** of skill and courage to manage him!' Philip at first took no notice of what he said; but when he heard him repeat the same thing several times, and saw he was greatly upset by the **next** >

In the full sentence here, “What an excellent horse do they lose for **want** of skill and courage to manage him!” the word “want” means “lack or deficiency.” Then still in BNC, the search for collocates of “in want of” produced only one concordance. The phrase here actually means “be in need of,” which is one of the renderings of the thirteen Chinese versions of the opening remark in *Pride and Prejudice*. (see Graph 16 below)

British National Corpus (BYU-BNC)       

SEARCH FREQUENCY CONTEXT ACCOUNT

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT ☐ ☒ SAVE LIST CHOOSE LIST CREATE NEW LIST ☒ SHOW DUPLICATES

1 ADS W_fict_prose A B C Thinking of Miss Henrietta's children, sir, and them **being** soon perhaps **in want of** a true mother.' Mr Browning sighed and put his arms round his

To have more supportive information, we went back to *The Babel English-Chinese Parallel Corpus*, and through the query of “want,” we got 265 matches, as shown in Graph 17 (below):

Solutions include 8 types and 265 tokens for "[word="*,*want.*"%c]". (Your query "*want*" returned 265 matches in 1 text.)
Showing node as both words and annotation.


|< << >> >| New query Go! Download whole table


No.	Search result	No. of occurrences	Percent
1	want_VVQ	107	40.38%
2	want_VVI	57	21.51%
3	wanted_VVD	56	21.13%
4	wants_VVZ	24	9.06%
5	wanted_VVN	8	3.02%
6	wanting_VVG	7	2.64%
7	unwanted_JJ	4	1.51%
8	wanted_JJ	2	0.75%

This graph shows the number of occurrences of the word “want” used in different phrases. In *Wanting VVJ* structure, only one example was found, in which “wanting in” means 缺乏[quē fá] (be lack of, be deficient of) (see Graph 18 below).

3 babel_c2c **Wanting** in perseverance, such volatile natures are outstripped in the race of life by the diligent and even the dull.
缺乏了毅力, 那些反复无常的人就会在生存竞争中被勤奋甚至迟钝的人所超越。

Furthermore, we again searched for the full phrase “be in want of” in BNC, and got the same sentence as *Pride and Prejudice*. (Graph 19 below)

be in want of  British National Corpus (BNC), tagged by CLAWS

Query **be, in, want, of** 3 (0.03 per million) 

Imaginativ... a single man in possession of a good fortune must **be in want of** a wife.' Wexford smiled grimly to himself. </p>
Imaginativ... a single man in possession of a good fortune must **be in want of** a wife,' said James. </p><p> 'I'm not going to argue with
Arts a single man in possession of a good fortune must **be in want of** a wife.' She must have been thinking of Steven (

Sometimes, due to choice and coverage of materials, one corpus always has some limitations. As a complement, we resorted to COCA, and happily got more contexts of the phrase “be in want of” ranging from 1990 to 2017(see Graph 20 as follows).

Corpus of Contemporary American English

SEARCH

FREQUENCY

CONTEXT

ACCOUNT

CLICK FOR MORE CONTEXT

SAVE LIST

CHOOSE LIST

CREATE NEW LIST

SHOW DUPLICATES

1

2017

FIC

Bk:DutyToCrown

A

B

C

were inseparable for the three years that followed. # "You'll be in want of supplies if the fever spreads. We'll send you with all we have

2

2017

NEWS

The Seattle Times

A

B

C

, that a single man in possession of a good fortune, must be in want of a wife. "). And surely one of the greatest ever must

3

2016

ACAD

Chronicle of Higher Education

A

B

C

acknowledged, that a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife. " It is good to read your own work with good

4

2012

FIC

Bk:JaneAustenMarriage

A

B

C

a single woman of thirty-nine and in possession of a good complexion must be in want of a husband. And a baby. Unless you are me. " My

6

2009

FIC

Read

A

B

C

a truth universally acknowledged that a zombie in possession of brains must be in want of more brains. Narrator 2: Recently, an entire family was killed i

7

2009

ACAD

AfricanArts

A

B

C

suggested, an individual who honors his commitment to the dead will never be in want of a supportive community. wI noted that his own conjuration of

8

2006

FIC

Bk:Juv:OneDangerousLady

A

B

C

truth universally acknowledged that a widow in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a husband. Or so all my friends constantly tell me. Being

9

1995

FIC

Omni

A

B

C

that a single woman in possession of the gratitude of her nation must be in want of a husband. # Nelson, newly bandaged, having set guards about the

10

1991

ACAD

NaturalHist

A

B

C

be more suffering than there is now, for some people would always be in want of food if they multiplied greatly. That is why everything has an end.

11

1990

MAG

HistoryToday

A

B

C

other articles; and we to purchase of you all that we might be in want of. The inflated idea the French gathered of the nature of these contacts

12

1990

MAG

HistoryToday

A

B

C

things, you would lend him or sell him all that he might be in want of. # Scott wrote to the British Foreign Office Intermittently over the next few

13

1990

ACAD

Style

A

B

C

universally acknowledged that a single man in possession of a good fortune must be in want of a wife "), and after we see such actions as Charlotte Lucas

From these concordances above, we knew that “be in want of” mostly means “be in need of,” which can be rendered as 需要[xū yào] instead of 想要 (xiǎng/xiǎng yào) in Chinese, as four translators did in the translation of the opening remarks in *Pride and Prejudice*. Just as what has been analyzed in this paper, it is quite natural for any healthy man to be looking forward to a wife, whereas in real life, a man of a good fortune is usually considered to be under more necessity to find a wife at least this is the case in Chinese culture. In other words, this is just like the relationship between a dream and reality. So 需要[xū yào] is more appropriate than 想要 (xiǎng/xiǎng yào) in this context.

A new version of the translation

The search results from the comparable parallel corpus and the monolingual corpora have enabled us to have a very close look at the meaning of the keywords and phrases such as “truth,” “must,” and “be in want of” in the opening remark of *Pride and Prejudice* of Jane Austen. Therefore, we have had a thorough analysis of the equivalents’ appropriateness of these words and phrases in Chinese as rendered by the selected thirteen versions. However, we should by no means be saturated with the analysis and appreciation. By assuming critical and creative thinking, we would like to propose another version of the opening remark:

家财万贯，单身男子，一定得有位贤妻内助，这在哪里都毫不稀奇。

jiā cái wàn gu àn, dān shēn nán zǐ, yī dìng děi yǒu wèi xián qī nèi zhù, zhè zài nǎ lǐ dōu háo bù xī qí.

V. CONCLUSION

It can be concluded from the above discussion and analysis of the thirteen versions of the opening remark of *Pride and Prejudice* with the help of corpora that:

- (1) Corpora, with a large number of concordances providing many more examples and extended contexts, are useful and powerful tools and sources for translation practice as well as translation training;
- (2) It should be noted that each corpus has its limitations due to its size, representation, and coverage for its specific purposes of design;
- (3) Because of the nature of corpora, there are generally no explanations for particular words or phrases. Therefore, they should be used in combination with dictionaries, both of which can complement each other;
- (4) Some, at least from my judgment and analysis, inappropriate translations of the words and phrases investigated here, such as “truth,” “must,” and in particular, “be in want of,” are the result of the fact that these words and phrases seem too simple to be treated seriously. Therefore, some translators might take it for granted and produce the commonly matching equivalents from their minds quietly naturally;
- (5) Novice translators are mostly likely to make such mistakes, moving an entry from the dictionary into their translation without trying to think hard to find a more appropriate equivalent based on the entries in the dictionary;
- (6) Therefore, it is crucial in corpus-aided translation practice and translation teaching that translators or teachers should assume critical and creative thinking in corpora use. On the one hand, we can take advantage of the resources provided by various corpora, and on the other hand, we should not rely too much on corpora. Human judgment should be mobilized in the evaluation of the appropriateness of translation, especially those keywords and phrases;
- (7) Lastly, as translation teachers, we should also consider that enhancing student translators’ competence through constant practice is still the priority in teaching or training activities; otherwise, students are much likely to be confused in front of such powerful tools as corpora.

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Politeness in Making Requests and Responses in Computer-mediated Communication among Chinese College Students

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Abstract—This study aims to explore the politeness strategies used in making requests and responses in computer-mediated communication (CMC) among Chinese college students and the applicability of discursive approach to such analysis. Following the steps of previous studies using discursive approach, some extracts of chat history on WeChat concerning requests and responses are selected and showed to the interlocutors. Then the interlocutors were asked to judge the conversations from the perspective of politeness. By analyzing the data, this study found that various strategies were used in order to achieve politeness in CMC, which can be associated with Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness. This study also found that discursive approach can be applied in analyzing politeness in CMC well though it differs from face-to-face communication in some ways.

Index Terms—politeness, request, CMC, discursive approach

I. INTRODUCTION

In the so-called “information era”, communication seems to be facilitated by the internet. The popularization of the internet has changed the society so profoundly. The 21st century has witnessed the remarkable rise of the internet. People's lifestyles have been shaped by the internet in various ways. With connections to the internet, people can enjoy more convenience in many aspects of life. Many kinds of activities can be done on the internet, such as communicating with friends, searching for needed information, reading news or novels, playing games, learning new things, shopping and entertaining, etc. Countless deals are made on the internet, but among all the activities mentioned here, communicating with people on the internet ranks the first, according to *The 41st China Statistical Report on Internet Development* conducted by China Internet Network Information Center (CNNIC) in 2018.

Again, according to CNNIC's report, people aged from 20 to 29 are the largest group of internet users, which account for 30% of internet users of all age-groups. In terms of occupation, students are the majority, accounting for 25.4%. Combining the two characteristics of age and occupation, it is not difficult to find that college students are one of the most active groups of internet users.

The internet bridges the distance among people and makes communication easier and faster. A growing number of people are now using various social media platforms to connect with each other, especially after the outbreak of the pandemic COVID-19 when face-to-face communication increases the possibility of infection. Computer-mediated communication (CMC) is now an important mode of communication which, as a radical departure from the traditional communication process, changes the presentation of expressing oneself, the nature of nonverbal symbols, the construction of verbal codes and feedback patterns, and the development of closeness (Chen & Wang, 2013).

There are several forms of computer-mediated communication – instant messaging, email and bulletin board systems (BBS), etc. Among these forms, instant messaging, with its unique characteristics in style, whether it is on mobile phone or other devices, is the activity the absolute majority of all internet users do on their devices. Since CMC is different from what happens in face-to-face communication in natural environment, the style of the language used in CMC should also be different.

There are many social conventions that people observe when they communicate with each other in face-to-face communication, of which politeness is an important one. In order to achieve successful communication, being aware of politeness is required. But do people observe principles of politeness similarly in CMC? What kinds of strategies do they employ when they make requests? How do people respond to the requests made through CMC? Do they use language or strategies differently, compared with face-to-face communication?

This study aims to investigate requests and responses made in CMC by Chinese college students from the perspective of politeness. On the basis of the previous theories and approaches to politeness, this study will focus on how Chinese college students use politeness strategies when making requests and responses and discuss the applicability of discursive approach in examining politeness in CMC.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Computer-mediated Communication (CMC)

According to Yus (2011), CMC involves a lot of exchanges of message of a written, audio-visual and multimodal quality, and most of them with an oral connotation. Though the texts in CMC are typed, they are often seen as a mixture of written text and speech, because they appear to be stable and rigid like written texts on the one hand, and spontaneous and ephemeral on the other (Yus, 2011). This has precisely captured some characteristics of CMC, which facilitates human communication and interaction. On the internet, written texts still take up the majority of the all varieties of messages. In most cases, pictures, audios and videos are supplementary to the information conveyed through texts. Another kind of form frequently used by young people to convey information or to express their feelings when communicating on the internet is stickers or emojis.

Studies on CMC started very early since the internet began to be used for communicative purposes. Hiltz and Turoff (1978) are two of the earliest researchers who touched upon the field of CMC research. Baron (1984) was one of the first scholars who documented ways in which CMC influences the way ideas are expressed. Murray (1988) compares and contrasts the characteristics of CMC with normal written and oral communication and focuses on the salient features of CMC: the organization of conversation, surface discourse features and the choice of medium and medium-switching.

Herring (1996) edited a book which presents papers concerning CMC from linguistic, social and cultural perspectives. Collot and Belmore (1996) view CMC as a new variety of English and analyze the lexical and grammatical features of a corpus which includes a large number of computer-mediated messages on a BBS in Canada. Yates (1996) compares his corpus with computerized corpora of spoken and written English, showing that in terms of vocabulary use, CMC is more like written language, but in the use of personal pronouns, it is similar to spoken language and CMC makes greater use of modal auxiliaries than speech and writing. Werry (1996) analyzes Internet Relay Chat (IRC) from the perspectives of addressivity, abbreviation, paralinguistic and prosodic cues, actions and gestures, pointing out its distinctive and interactional features. Ma (1996) investigates the effects that synchronous relay chat exchanges could have on cross-cultural communication between East Asian and North American university students. With previous comparisons among CMC, written communication and oral interaction, Baron (1998) further points out that email, as a form of CMC, is a creole, a hybrid form of communication between spoken and written discourse.

Crystal is one of the leading scholars on CMC. His greatest contribution to this field is the publication of the book *Language and the Internet* in 2001. He believes that the internet is a technological and social revolution. Crystal (2001) thinks that language is central to the revolution of technology and society and he explores the role of language on the internet and the effect of the internet on language. Two chapters of the book are devoted to the explanation of “Netspeak”, looking at features common to most internet communications. He regards “Netspeak” as the “third medium”, different from speech and writing and a motivation for the expansion and enrichment of language. In his book, he describes the linguistic features of email, chatgroups, virtual worlds and the web in detail.

In China, online communication also attracted scholars' attention. *The Dictionary of Chinese Netspeak* edited by Yu (2001a) is one of the early studies of CMC. In his book *General Introduction to Netspeak*, Yu (2001b) investigates the stylistic characteristics, general qualities and lexical features of Chinese netspeak respectively. In the book, he compares the netspeak in mainland China and the netspeak in Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macau and also makes a comparison between the netspeak and the languages of traditional media. In addition, he analyzes people's attitudes toward netspeak and proposes some ideas on how to standardize and evaluate the Chinese netspeak. Dong and Liu (2001) employs stylistic theories to analyze the features of webchat English on the graphological, lexical, syntactic levels and investigates the reasons of the occurrence of such features by adopting the theories of register.

As CMC continues to develop, more and more researchers are turning their eyes on the language used in CMC due to its different characteristics. Scholars from various areas of study – pragmatics, stylistics, discourse analysis, etc. – can investigate the language used in CMC from diverse perspectives. The present paper mainly studies the language in CMC from the perspective of pragmatics, with the focus of how politeness strategies are used when making requests and responses in CMC.

B. Politeness

In face-to-face communication, language users always try to establish and maintain harmony with interlocutors in order to make the communication go smoothly as they wish. It is assumed that in CMC, people will do the same, though not many paralinguistic and extralinguistic cues can be provided and immediate responses are not always available. To build harmonious relationships, language users will need to employ linguistic strategies used in other modes of communication or use new strategies developed by themselves in CMC.

To achieve harmony in communication, politeness is an important factor. In pragmatics, politeness is an essential topic and there are a lot of definitions of politeness. Mills (2003:6) defines “politeness” as “the expression of the speakers' intention to mitigate face threats carried by certain face threatening acts toward another”. In this definition, the notion of “face” is derived from Goffman's (1955) article, which is defined as “the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself” (Goffman, 1955:213), namely, a person's feeling of his or her own worth and image.

One of the most influential theories about politeness was Brown and Levinson's (1978, 1987) theory. They proposed the concept of face as the explanatory framework for politeness phenomena based on Goffman's (1955) notion of face.

Brown and Levinson think that the concern for “face” is a universal phenomenon. According to their theory, face can be divided into two categories: positive face and negative face. Positive face refers to “the want of every ‘competent adult members’ that his actions be unimpeded by others”, whereas negative face is “the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others” (Brown & Levinson, 1987:67). In other words, positive face means people’s need to make themselves accepted and appreciated by others and the desire to make sure that there is certain common ground between them and the social group. Negative face, on the other hand, refers to the desire to feel free and independent and not imposed upon.

They also believe that in most situations, our face is put at risk. Therefore, redressive language is used to compensate the threat to the face in the face-threatening acts (FTA) that are supposedly omnipresent. The use of redressive language is considered as an illustration of politeness. They summarized five politeness strategies to remedy the possible damage to other people’s face: 1) do not do the FTA, 2) do it off record, 3) do it baldly on record, 4) adopt negative politeness, and 5) adopt positive politeness. As Brown & Levinson (1987) pointed out, positive politeness is oriented towards a person’s positive face by “treating the other as a member of an in-group, a friend, or a person whose wants and personality traits are known and liked”. By contrast, negative politeness is oriented to one’s negative face by recognizing and showing respect for the other’s freedom of action. Some speech acts are regarded as positive politeness strategies, such as praising, making a joke, seeking agreement, claiming reflexivity of goals, claiming reciprocity, and expressing sympathy, understanding and cooperation (Brown & Levinson, 1987), whereas some other acts are viewed as negative politeness strategies, for example, showing deference, apologizing, or employing hedges or mitigating devices to lessen the effect of imposition. In summary, politeness is regarded as a form of strategic behavior in which the speaker engages, carefully considering and measuring the possible threat to the hearer, the extent of closeness with the hearer, the power relationship between them, and modifying the utterance according to these considerations. This view is similar to Grundy’s (1995) idea, in which linguistic politeness is viewed as the function of language to imply the most appropriate relationship between the speaker and the addressee.

However, the above-mentioned studies are mainly concerned with face-to-face oral communication. Compared with spoken language, research on the language used in written form concerning politeness phenomena has been relatively rare. Studies on the politeness in CMC, the so-called “third medium”, is even less. Myers (1989) argues that Brown and Levinson’s (1978) framework of politeness can be extended to written texts. When analyzing scientific articles, Myers (1989) found that the use of “we” as a positive politeness strategy to indicate the discipline as a whole can achieve solidarity while personal attribution can be used as a hedge on one’s claims. Hiemstra’s (1982) study of politeness strategies in teleconferencing suggests that concerns for face was strongly evident in the language of conference although there was a shift to negative politeness and “bold on record” in CMC. These studies give support to Brown and Levinson’s theory; however, their theory was also criticized by some scholars.

C. Discursive Approach

Although Brown and Levinson’s theory is widely applicable, some weaknesses in their theory have been criticized. Among many critics, discursive approach serves both as a critique and as an alternative approach to the analysis of politeness.

For many scholars who study discursive politeness theories, Brown and Levinson’s conception of how “politeness” should be defined is far from enough to fully describe the complexity of the term (e.g., Eelen, 2001; Watts, 2003). More importantly, politeness can be seen as including a much greater range of behaviors, instead of only looking into the strategic use of politeness which aims to avoid face-threat (Mills, 2003).

Brown and Levinson’s approach is also weak because it ignores the importance of the hearer, and the hearer’s perspective, in determining what constitutes politeness, and it also fails to take into consideration the social and discursive context in which utterances are made and politeness is negotiated (Watts, 2003). A discursive approach attaches importance to the notion that meaning can be dynamically constructed by “multiple participants over the course of longer stretches of discourse” (Mills, 2003; 2011).

Further, discursive approaches to the analysis of politeness find that Brown and Levinson’s reliance on Speech Act Theory is problematic, as it involves a model of communication in which the speaker is the center and sentence is the focus, which forces them to presume that elements in a conversation are single-functioned and “are readily agreed upon by participants” (Van der Bom and Mills, 2015).

Many discursive theorists criticize Brown and Levinson for their excessive attention paid to the analyst’s perception of what politeness means, rather than on how individual speakers and hearers understand the term in authentic interaction (e.g., Eelen, 2001; Clark, 2011; Watts, 2003; Grainger *et al.*, 2015). According to Van der Bom and Mills (2015), there is a distinction between first order politeness (politeness1) and second order politeness (politeness2) made by discursive politeness theorists. Politeness1 emphasizes “participants’ judgements of what constitutes politeness in interaction”, politeness2 includes the more theoretical conception of what constitutes politeness (see Watts *et al.*, 1992; Eelen, 2001). Discursive approaches have forced theorists to critically evaluate the role of politeness and impoliteness and the origin of politeness as a system and ideology from the social perspective (Agha 2006).

According to Van der Bom and Mills (2015), in discursive approaches, the interaction between participants is taken into account; longer stretches of discourse are chosen for analysis, and the perceptions of the individuals involved are emphasized in regard to what they judge as polite and impolite, therefore discursive approaches are considered as a

more localized and interactive way of analysis and they focus more on the context (Van der Bom and Mills, 2015). With regard to politeness, discursive approaches are more concerned with “ideologies of politeness and impoliteness” (Van der Bom and Mills, 2015). Thus, a discursive approach focuses on judgement and interpretation that are more contextualized and localized and more socially-focused (Van der Bom and Mills, 2015).

Van der Bom and Mills (2015) provided a very detailed example analysis to explain the different aspects that a discursive approach might comprise, and thus how this approach can be applied when investigating politeness. They first discussed the methods of collecting data and the type of data they chose for their study before they try to get participants’ evaluations of the selected extract of communication. Then they analyzed the participants’ judgements and drew some conclusions concerning the way how politeness works in the interaction. What should be paid special attention to is that the texts for analysis consist of the interaction which is initially recorded and the recordings of how the participants evaluate and judge about their initial interaction. Finally, they addressed how the interplay of the original conversation, together with the participants’ evaluations and judgements of politeness in the interaction, and the analyst’s view, could possibly lead to “a second-order understanding of politeness and impoliteness” (Van der Bom and Mills, 2015). In their final section, ideologies of politeness and impoliteness are their particular focus.

D. Request and Response

There are many different ways to define request. As a speech act, a request is seen as a pre-event act which expresses the speaker’s expectation of the hearer in relation to some expected action required by the circumstances (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Bargiela-Chiappini & Harris, 1996). The main purpose of a request is to ask the hearer to “provide information or perform an action” for the speaker or the group that the speaker and hearer belong to (Ho, 2018).

According to Ho (2018), previous studies investigating requests in CMC context have paid so much attention to the interaction between EFL learners and faculty, which are especially concerned with the use of pragmatic politeness in students’ requests through emails sent to their faculty. These studies, according to Ho’s (2018) classification, mainly discuss (a) the pragmatic failure illustrated by the students (e.g., Chejnova, 2014; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011); (b) the way students’ use of politeness could influence faculty’s perception of the students’ personality (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2016) and of the (im)politeness and (in)appropriateness of the emails (Savic, 2018); and (c) the type and quantity of resources students used when they wrote polite emails, reinforcing the necessity to pedagogically intervene in the acquisition of pragmatic politeness (Biesenbach-Lucas, 2007).

A usual daily activity as it may seem, making a request should be taken seriously. Ho (2018) summarizes the reasons why making a request in the workplace is so important, which also hold true for college students’ communication. Specifically, the reasons are: (1) it is a high stake act because an appropriate request is more likely to be responded to satisfying answers so that the requestor’s task would then be completed; (2) the act of request could pose challenges and sometimes damages to the rapport between the two parties (Spencer-Oatey, 2008); and (3) a well-constructed request could not only fulfill the requestor’s needs by receiving the information or getting an action done but also bring extra benefits to the requestor, such as constructing “desirable personal identities” and establishing “stronger rapport with the requestee” (Ho, 2010, 2014). It is therefore important for college students to be knowledgeable about the linguistic resources that they can apply in making requests that are persuasive enough to achieve “request compliance” – the requestor’s needs are satisfied, and cause no harm to the harmony between the requestor and the requestee (Ho, 2018).

After making a request, the requestor may expect a response from the requestee. It is equally important for the requestee to make responses in a polite way, especially when he or she is unable or unwilling to do what the requestor wants him or her to do. Therefore, as a continuing step, both making requests and giving responses need to be investigated from the perspective of politeness in order to better understand what kind of strategies are used to achieve effective communication.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

The main purpose of this paper is to investigate requests and responses made in CMC by Chinese college students from the perspective of politeness. Two specific research questions are proposed:

1. How do Chinese college students use politeness strategies when making requests and responses in CMC?
2. Does discursive approach apply well in analyzing the politeness in CMC? How does it differ from face-to-face communication?

Based on the discursive approach, the first question will be answered by selecting some extracts of chat history on WeChat, a popular instant-messaging application in China, presenting the extracts to the interlocutors and asking them to judge the conversations from the perspective of politeness. Especially when they feel difficulties or encounter face-threatening acts in the conversation, politeness strategies can be elicited.

For question 2, this study itself can be a demonstration of using discursive approach in analyzing politeness in CMC. By comparing with previous studies using this approach in analyzing face-to-face conversation, the differences could be found.

B. Data Collection

As is shown in Table 1, the data used for this study consist of the chat history between the author (as “I” for convenience) and four classmates on WeChat from the beginning of the year 2018 till August 1st, 2018. Both the author and the four interlocutors are in their 20s. The pseudonyms for the four interlocutors are A, B, C and D. There are three males (including the author himself) and two females as the interlocutors involved in this study. All the participants are Chinese native-speakers, and they are all proficient in using English as a foreign language. The participants also share similar educational background, because they are classmates in the same university. Though all of them are classmates, they differ in their closeness with the author. To know about the closeness, the author asked the interlocutors to give a score from 1 to 7, from the least close to the most.

There are 895 messages in total, including texts, stickers, emojis, pictures, documents, voice messages, records of transfers and red packets. The data collected have been coded by 2 researchers according to the definition of requests. After coding, the two sets of results were statistically examined, which shows a high inter-rater reliability.

TABLE I.
BASIC INFORMATION ABOUT THE PARTICIPANTS AND CHAT HISTORY

Pairs of interlocutors	Genders of the interlocutor	Score of closeness	Total number of messages	Number of messages indicating requests
I & A	Female	6	330	81
I & B	Female	4	128	40
I & C	Male	6	259	35
I & D	Male	5	178	28

Following Van der Bom and Mills’ (2015) steps, apart from the chat history, the four interlocutors are asked to discuss which parts of the extract of conversations might be of interest for politeness analysis. The focus is on what the participants of these conversations considered to be moments of interactional difficulty or awkwardness, as these might be considered as the moments when politeness or impoliteness is likely to be employed. The discussion was conducted on WeChat by combing and forwarding the selected chat history to the participants and asking them to make judgements.

C. Procedures for Data Analysis

According to Van der Bom and Mills (2015), some extracts of the conversations were chosen because they seemed to constitute difficult moments in the interactions in which potential face-threatening acts are evident. Instead of starting the analysis with a focus on linguistic elements such as “sorry” or the use of “would you mind”, which can be separately seen as indicators of politeness, the focus of the present study is the moments in the interaction which appear to be difficult or having interactional problem from the participants’ perspective. That moment of difficulty was then tracked through, attempting to isolate the elements or strategies that the interlocutors in the interaction employed to avoid or resolve the difficulty. When difficult situations arise in interactions, politeness seems to become a key element which is drawn upon by the participants to make their communication go smoothly.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

The following figure is a screenshot of the chat history between the author (“I”) and interlocutor B.

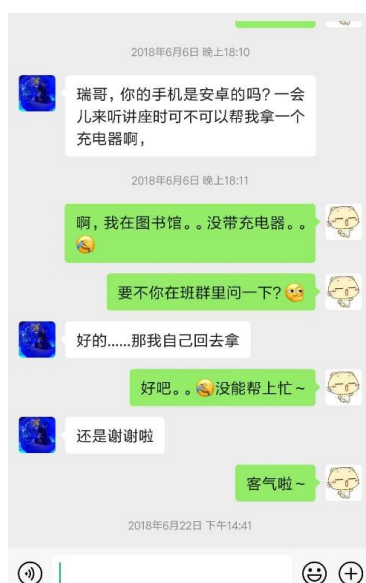





Figure 1. A screenshot of the chat history between “I” and B on WeChat.

The following is the transcription and translation of the chat history in Fig.1:

- [1] B: 瑞哥, 你的手机是安卓的吗? 一会儿来听讲座时可不可以帮我拿一个充电器啊,
Bro Rey, is your mobile phone with Android system? Could you help me to bring a charger when you come to the lecture a moment later,
- [2] I: 啊, 我在图书馆。。没带充电器。。
Ah, I am in the library... no charger with me... [Facepalm]
- [3] I: 要不你在微信群里问一下?
How about ask it in the WeChat group of our class? [Smart]
- [4] B: 好的.....那我自己回去拿
Okay.....then I myself will go back to bring it
- [5] I: 好吧。。 没能帮上忙~
Okay... [Facepalm] I cannot offer you help~
- [6] B: 还是谢谢啦
Anyway, thanks
- [7] I: 客气啦~
You're welcome~

After having this extract selected, this part of chat history was combined and forwarded to B and she is also asked to read the extract and give an evaluation of the situation. B commented:

I think we both were polite in that conversation. When I make the request, I used strategies to be polite and when you respond to me, you are also polite even though you didn't actually help me. The difficult moment in the situation might be that you tell me that you cannot help me. I think you must have experienced inner conflict when you reply me because you are always so helpful but this time you cannot help me.

She thought that she did not use any face-threatening acts. On the contrary, she used strategies to achieve politeness:

When I ask you to borrow the mobile phone charger, I didn't directly ask you about the charger in the first place, instead, I asked you whether your mobile phone is Android. The fact is, I knew your phone is Android before I ask you. So, this question is not simply a confirmation question but a device to achieve politeness, because I feel that directly asking about the charger is not so appropriate. By the way, the way I address you is also an illustration of politeness. I think it is rude to suddenly send you a message "Can you help me to bring a mobile phone charger?" without addressing you. I think using addressing term is more polite than not using it no matter how close the relationship is. And I said "thanks" to you although you cannot offer me help. That's another sign of politeness.

From B's point of view, the use of proper addressing terms, indirect speech and expressing gratitude are the strategies of politeness. When asking B about the author's politeness strategies, she said:

When you reply to my request, you said "Ah...", which seems to be hesitating. Then you tell me that you are in the library, which is also an indirect speech, suggesting that you cannot help me at the moment. Then you tell me that you didn't take a charger with you, which is the harsh reality and the real reason why you cannot help me this time. You didn't directly say "No" or "I can't help you" and you didn't tell me the harsh reason first. These are the signs of politeness. After telling me the reason, you added a possible solution for me by suggesting me to ask it in the class group, indicating that you still want to offer me some help. And I can read from your saying "Okay... I cannot offer you help~" that you feel somehow guilty for not able to fulfill my request. Your use of Facepalm emoji indicates that you want to mitigate the situation, making it less embarrassing.

But for the author, the difficult moment is different. When the author suggested B to ask the question of whether anyone has taken a charger with him/herself in the class WeChat group, B's response "Okay.....then I myself will go back to bring it" seems to be a little bit face-threatening. B did not directly respond to the author's suggestion and the utterance she made seems to suggest that B is helpless. The author even thought maybe his suggestion annoyed B. From the analysis of both the author and the interlocutor B, it can be seen that the requestor and the requestee may interpret the same language quite differently.

The cases with other interlocutors show similar results. In terms of politeness strategies, both positive politeness and negative politeness are used. For example, positive politeness includes using appropriate addressing terms that can indicate closeness, offering suggestions, and attending to the hearer's interests, needs, wants, etc. and negative politeness involves using indirect speech, hedges or questions, apologizing, etc.

After employing the discursive approach to the analysis of politeness in CMC, the results show similar patterns with previous studies and the politeness strategies used by the interlocutors can be associated with what Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory suggests. These indicate that discursive approach can be applied in analyzing politeness in CMC well. However, it is, to some extent, different from face-to-face communication. Compared with Van der Bom and

Mills' (2015) study, using discursive approach in analyzing the politeness in CMC has several differences: 1) the extract of conversation is shorter, since in CMC, the communication is basically achieved through typing messages. The messages are generally shorter than the language face-to-face communication could produce. 2) there are many non-linguistic ways to achieve politeness in CMC, such as sending stickers or emojis, red packets and pictures, etc. 3) in CMC, due to the invisibility of the interlocutor, misunderstanding may occur because it is hard to know the tones, moods, feelings and emotions behind the messages. 4) in CMC, collecting the conversation as research data is comparatively easier. The messages on instant messaging applications like WeChat can be easily saved and reposted. While in face-to-face communication, the conversation has to be recorded and replayed to the interlocutors.

V. CONCLUSION

This study employed discursive approach to the analysis of politeness in making requests and responses in CMC. By analyzing the data of the author and four interlocutors extracted from the chat history on WeChat, this study found that various strategies are used in order to achieve politeness in CMC, such as using appropriate addressing terms that can indicate closeness, offering suggestions, attending to the hearer's interests, using indirect speech, hedges or questions, etc. This study also found that discursive approach can be applied in analyzing politeness in CMC well.

However, this study also has a lot of limitations. First, to draw more general conclusions, the data needs to be expanded instead of having only four interlocutors. Second, the result may be influenced by the subjectivity of the author since the chat history adopted in this study is between his classmates and himself. For future studies, there should be more interlocutors involved and the data should exclude the author in order to avoid subjectivity.

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Effects of Different Types of Boredom on Foreign Language Learning

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Abstract—Although boredom is regarded as a unique emotion in foreign language learning (FLL), studies on the effect of different types of boredom on FLL have not been found. This study aimed to fill this gap by examining it in college students in China. Participants (N = 314) learned firstly and then took an immediate test and a delayed one after completing Boredom Tendency Scale (BPS) and the Multidimensional State Boredom Scale (MSBS) questionnaire. And the relationship between these two types of boredom (trait boredom; state boredom) and the numbers of words forgotten as the indicator of the effect of FLL was analyzed, the results showed that these two kinds of boredom had interacted, state boredom had main effect on foreign language learning, while trait boredom had no significant effect on it. This study provides initial support to understanding of the effect of different types of boredom on FLL and suggests that the influence of boredom should not be ignored in foreign language teaching.

Index Terms—trait boredom, state boredom, numbers of words forgotten, FLL, effect

I. INTRODUCTION

Boredom is a common emotion that affects all aspects of people's daily life. Boredom can be defined as a form of disgust which makes subjects be unable to engage in activities that satisfy them (Eastwood, Frischen, & Fenske 2012). In the field of education, boredom has been regarded as a meaningful psychological-physiological response to educational events, no longer an unnoticed "silence" (Pekrun 2010). The classification of boredom into state boredom and trait boredom based on time and context is the most widely accepted. State boredom is also called situational boredom, which is regarded as an environmental product. It is more determined by external situational factors (such as lack of stimulation). And it is manifested in the short boring experience of individuals in a particular situation (Belton, Priyadharshini 2007; Musharbash 2007). While trait boredom as a personality trait, is regarded as the individual's boring tendency or boredom proneness, more determined by the individual's internal psychological characteristics (such as cognition and motivation). It is considered to be an individual stable boring tendency in different time and different situations (Neu 1998; Farmer & Sundberg 1986).

Among the studies on the relationship between affective factors and foreign language learning (FLL), Krashen's affective filtering hypothesis (1982) assumes that affective filtering is a psychological barrier that prevents language learners from fully absorbing comprehensible inputs. It can be said that affective factors determine the proportion of input and reception of FLL learners. At present, a large number of studies have confirmed that there is a significant negative correlation between anxiety and second language learning (L2) and FLL (Shao, Yu, Ji 2013; Dewaele, Witney, & Saito et al. 2017). However, there are rich affective factors, such as happiness, envy, surprise, gratitude, jealousy, shame, boredom and so on in language environments (Swain & Merrill 2013). Specially, researches of boredom have gradually moved from the edge of emotional research to the mainstream among them. According to Pekrun's control-value theory (2010), boredom is generally described as a willingness to avoid because avoidance and intrinsic motivation are often negatively correlated. Importantly, boredom weakens individual participation and leads to lack of attention. Consequently, boredom reduces the use of cognitive and learning strategies in educational settings. As a negative emotion, can boredom predict the effect of FLL like anxiety? And, do different types of boredom have the same effect on FLL? What is the psychological mechanism of boredom affecting FLL? Studies on the above questions are still scarce. The aim of this study is to fill the gap by examining the effect of different types of boredom on FLL in college students in China. The current study can not only enrich the theoretical construction of L2/foreign language affective factors, but also provide reference in the practice of L2 /foreign language teaching. Therefore, we assume that: (a) the FLL effect of the subjects in low trait boredom will be better than that of those high in trait boredom. In other words, in this study the number of words forgotten of the subjects who are high-trait bored will be larger than that of those who are low-trait bored. In the same way, (b) compared with the subjects in high state boredom, the FLL effect of the subjects low in state boredom will be better. That is to say, in this study the number of words forgotten of the subjects who are high-state bored will be larger than that of those who are low-state bored. (c) And there is an interaction between trait boredom and state boredom on the effect of FLL. To investigate the effects of trait boredom

and state boredom on FLL, scales associated with boredom were used to investigate the degree of subjects' trait boredom and state boredom. And the number of words forgotten is looked as the indicator of FLL effect, because the effect of learning can be reflected in memory results (Shen Zheng et al. 2010). This study will start with foreign language vocabulary learning for the following reasons: first, direct vocabulary learning is an effective supplement to indirect learning (Sokmen 1997); second, the current teaching environment in China, most students do not agree to rote learning in the aspect of subjective consciousness, but which still accounts for a large component in practice (Wu Xia, Wang Qiang 1998).

II. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Experimental Design

2(high-trait boredom / low-trait boredom) × 2(high-state boredom / low-state boredom) was designed. The dependent variable is the number of words forgotten including Chinese words forgotten and non-words forgotten. And the effect of FLL is defined as the result of immediate score in immediate test minus delayed score in delayed test (the number of words forgotten = $\text{score}_{\text{immediate}} - \text{score}_{\text{delayed}}$). The bigger the number is, the worse the FLL effect will be; conversely, the smaller the number is, the better the learning effect will be. The purpose of using a delayed test as a retest is to get a relatively stable learning effect.

B. Subjects

314 valid questionnaires, 137 males and 177 females, Chinese college students who were healthy, with an average age of 20.03 ± 1.34 years. All subjects volunteered to participate in this experiment.

C. Experimental Materials

College Students' Boredom Tendency Questionnaire Boredom Tendency Scale (BPS) (Farmer & Sundberg 1986) is the most mature of trait boredom measurement tools, and Huang Shihua et al. (2010) supplemented and revised the BPS in combination with Chinese cultural background. The scale consists of 30 questions, for example, "I'm very impatient with waiting", "I often find myself with too much time on my hands and nothing to do", etc. It has two dimensions: external stimuli and internal stimuli. External stimuli consist of four factors: monotonicity, loneliness, nervousness, binding and internal stimuli include two factors: self-control and creativity. The 7-point Likert scale method (ranging from 1 = completely disagree to 5 = fully agree) is used. The higher the score, the higher the tendency of boredom. This scale has been considered that it has a stable structure validity and has good applicability in the context of Chinese culture. Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.85$ in this study.

The Multidimensional State Boredom Scale (MSBS) Using the Chinese version of Liu Yong et al. (2013) which was supplemented and revised according to the MSBS (Fahlman et al. 2013) in combination with Chinese cultural background. Total 24 items, for example, "Now I have no patience", "I want to do something interesting, but nothing attracts me". It includes five dimensions of inattention, time perception, low arousal, high arousal and disengagement. Using Likert 7 grade score, from "completely disagree" to "fully agree", in turn recorded as 1~7 points, the higher the total score represents the higher the current state of boredom. The overall α coefficient of the Cronbach of the questionnaire was 0.90 and in this study was 0.79.

Non-word List Non-words were used as learning materials in this study. The 16 non-words used mainly refer to the non-word materials designed by Gathercole et al. (1991). And the constitution of non-words is controlled according to wordlikeness and the number of syllables. Specific criteria for non-words compiling include: (1) eliminating the non-word that can cause association of real foreign words at sound likeness or morphological likeness etc.; (2) using non-words of monosyllables, disyllables and trisyllables, and keeping the number of vowels and consonants approximately equal. Each non-word is given a Chinese meaning without emotional color, forming 16 foreign-Chinese word pairs. In order to have a more comprehensive understanding of the subjects' knowledge of the two aspects of comprehension and output, the meaning and spelling of the learned non-words were tested. So, in the test stage, 16 pairs of words were divided into two groups on average, half of them were used to investigate the students' memory of Chinese word meaning, and the other half was used to investigate the memory of spelling of foreign language vocabulary. The non-words are as follows:

TABLE 1.
NON-WORD LIST

Non-word languages	Chinese	Non-word	Chinese	Non-word languages	Chinese	Non-word languages	Chinese
thicult	时间	bidt	坚硬	hond	早	jis	硬件
viulu	下午	deppelate	大的	glitow	飞船	bannow	孩子
blonter	变成	tuwhep	道路	soku	商店	bomme	储存
mef	经历	prindle	告诉	ganner	工作	glisterin	明白

D. Experimental Process

The specific experimental tasks are as follows:

(1) Questionnaire completion. The subjects completed the survey of Boredom Tendency Scale (BPS) and the Multidimensional State Boredom Scale (MSBS).

(2) Learning stage. After completing the questionnaires, the non-words were learned for 15 minutes.

(3) Testing phase. After the completion of the learning stage, the immediate test is carried out for 10 minutes. After the immediate test, the subjects were arranged to read freely for half an hour and then to carry out the delayed test. The measuring tool is cued recall, that is, the subjects are required to write the corresponding Chinese meaning or non-words as foreign language words form according to the given non-words form or Chinese meaning respectively. The subjects got 1 point for the one correct answer and there was a full score of 16 points.

E. Statistical Data Analysis Spss22.0 Statistical Software Was Used for Data Collation and Analysis

III. RESEARCH RESULTS

(1) Difference tests for additional variables

In order to control the influence of additional variables on dependent variables, one-way ANOVA was carried out for additional variables including anxiety, levels of foreign language before the experiment. There was no significant difference among the 4 groups ($p > 0.05$). Based on this, the above variables need not be considered as covariables in the data processing process.

(2) Groups of trait boredom and state boredom

The data were sorted according to the order of college students' Boredom Tendency Scale (BPQ) total scores from high to low, the top 27% was classified as high-trait boredom group (BPQ total score > 100), and the bottom 27% as low-trait boredom group (BPQ total score < 83). The average score of BPQ of high-trait boredom group was significantly higher than that of low-trait boredom group, $p < .001$. For this part of the subjects, according to their corresponding scores of state boredom, high and low state boredom groups were divided, the results showed that the average score of high-state boredom group (MSBS total score > 94) were significantly higher than that of low state boredom group (MSBS total score < 69), $p < .001$. A total of 170 subjects, including 85 subjects with low-trait boredom (40 males and 45 females) and 85 subjects with high-trait boredom (40 males and 45 females). Among them, there were 85 subjects in high-state boredom and 85 subjects in low-state boredom respectively as shown in Table 2 and Table 3 below.

TABLE 2.
THE DIFFERENCE TEST OF BPQ SCORE IN HIGH- AND LOW-TRAIT BOREDOM GROUPS

	Low-Trait Boredom Groups (n=85)		High -Trait Boredom Groups (n=85)		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
	M	SD	M	SD			
BPQ	74.177	7.753	108.118	7.328	-29.331	<.001	4.499

TABLE 3.
THE DIFFERENCE TEST OF MSBS SCORE IN HIGH- AND LOW- STATE BOREDOM GROUPS

	Low-State Boredom Groups (n=85)		High-State Boredom Groups (n=85)		<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>
	M	SD	M	SD			
MSBS	60.306	14.376	98.788	14.095	-17.622	<.001	2.703

(3) Effect of trait boredom and state boredom on the number of forgotten words

With trait boredom and state boredom as independent variables, the number of forgotten words was dependent variable, 2×2 ANOVA. It turned out that the number of forgotten words of high-trait group ($M = 2.88$, $SD = 2.27$), higher than that of low-trait group ($M = 2.85$, $SD = 2.44$). The main effect of trait boredom is not significant, $F(1, 166) = 0.138$, $p = 0.711$. The number of forgotten words of high-state group ($M = 3.62$, $SD = 2.53$) was higher than that of low-state group ($M = 2.11$, $SD = 1.88$). The main effect of state boredom is significant, $F(1, 166) = 20.067$, $p < .001$. The interaction between trait boredom group and state boredom group on FLL is significant, $F(1, 166) = 4.156$, $p < 0.05$. A further simple effect analysis found that the number of forgotten words of high-state group in low trait boredom ($M = 4.08$, $SD = 2.58$) was significantly higher than that of low-state group in low trait boredom ($M = 1.85$, $SD = 1.81$), $F(1, 166) = 21.244$, $p < .001$. And compared with the number of forgotten words of low-state group in high trait boredom ($M = 2.42$, $SD = 1.95$), that of forgotten words of high-state group with in high trait boredom ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 2.45$), there was no significant difference between them, $F(1, 166) = 2.979$, $p = 0.086$. The interaction between trait boredom and state boredom on the number of forgotten words is shown in Fig1.

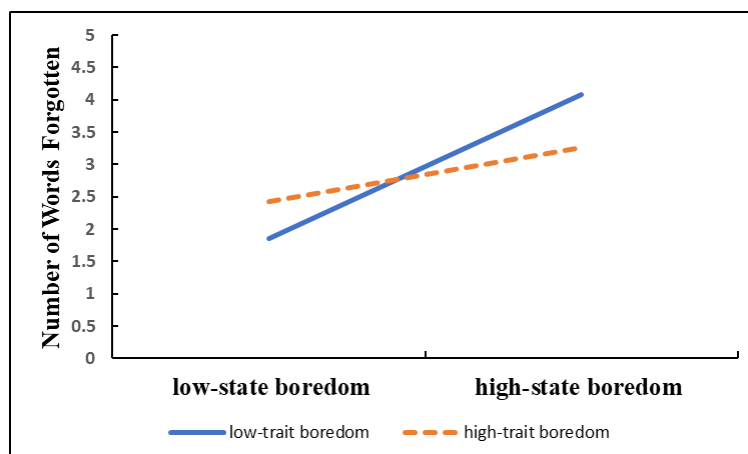


Fig. 1 Interaction between Trait Boredom and State Boredom on the Number of Forgotten Words

Note: Number of words forgotten means the results of subjects' immediate scores minus delayed scores, it was considered as the indicator reflecting the effect of FLL. (Explained in above.)

IV. DISCUSSION

(1) The effect of trait boredom on FLL

That there was no significant difference in words forgotten between high-trait group and low-trait boredom group in this study, which is not in line with the research hypothesis (a). The possible explanation is that as a personality trait, trait boredom describes the individual's boredom sensitivity in different situations rather than the individual's ability to cope with boredom (Mercer-Lynn, Bar, & Eastwood 2014). In other words, trait boredom reflects the ability of individuals to monitor themselves rather than regulate themselves. Individuals with high trait boredom have a high sensitivity to boredom, but they are not necessarily better at coping with boredom by regulating their own behavior. There may be no significant difference in the ability to regulate boredom between the high-trait boredom group and the low-trait boredom group, so high-trait boredom group and the low-trait boredom group did not show significant difference in foreign language learning effect.

(2) Effect of state boredom on FLL

Compared with subjects in low state boredom situations, those in high state boredom tended to forget more in this study. This is consistent with hypothesis (b). And it is also consistent with the results of previous studies. On the one hand, as a unique negative emotion, a typical feature of boredom is a repugnant sense of self (Eastwood, Frischen, Fenske, & Smilek 2012). And the negative emotions of learners hinder the effectiveness of FLL, because they are obstacles which interfere with learners' learning motivation and self-confidence. The higher the level of boredom, the more obvious the negative feelings of impatience, and then individual will take an evasive attitude in learning activities. Consequently, high-state boredom led to worse learning effects. Krashen's affective filtering hypothesis also supports this view. On the other hand, from the perspective of cognitive processing, attention control is an important component of executive function. And lack of attention is an important feature of state boredom, attention loss affects learners' conscious control of their own thoughts and actions. The higher the state boredom, the less attention. And cognitive failure occurs more frequently when individuals lack of attention management. In other words, state boredom affects learning strategies and self-regulation by reducing the use of cognitive and metacognitive learning strategies. Specifically, state boredom makes individuals reduce the use of deep learning strategies.

(3) The interaction between state boredom and trait boredom on foreign language learning

It was found that the number of forgotten words of high-state boredom group was significantly higher than that of low-state boredom group in low trait boredom group, while there was no significant difference between them in high trait boredom group. The results show that there was an interaction between state boredom and trait boredom on FLL, which is in accordance with hypothesis (c). In low trait boredom group, the number of words forgotten of the high-state boredom group significantly larger than that of high-state boredom group, this suggests that state boredom regulates the relationship between low-trait boredom and the amount of forgetting. While in high trait boredom group, the change of state boredom did not bring about a significant difference in the number of forgotten words. This indicates that state boredom does not regulate the relationship between high-trait boredom and learning effects. Boredom is an emotion characterized by a lack of meaning and challenge (Fahlman et al. 2009), and it has the function of self-regulation (Van, Igou, & Sedikides 2013). Van, Igou, & Sedikides (2013) think boredom is closely related to two self-regulating goals. One is that boredom makes individuals seek for stimulus. Second, boredom makes people maintain a sense of the meaning of their own behavior. From the relationship between boredom and self-regulation, different learning effects in different state boredom situations can be understood better. In low trait boredom group, individuals experience low frequency and low intensity of boredom, once you experience high levels of state boredom, it will inspire them to put more effort into self-regulation. And in this situation, learning can provide a sense of meaning. On the contrary, in high trait boredom group, high trait boredom is a recurring pattern, individuals are accustomed to high-intensity boredom.

Individuals are not willing to make more efforts to change their current meaningless state, even in high state boring situations. They will maintain the current situation without regulating themselves positively. This means that to high-trait boredom group, the ability of self-regulation is weak, even in high state boring situations. According to Pekrun's control-value theory, compared with those in high trait boredom group, the individuals in low trait boredom group, especially those with low-state boredom can seek the meaning of the current task and participate in it more actively. As a result, their cognitive and behavioral performance is better than that of any other group.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This paper focused on the influence of two different types of boredom, trait boredom and state boredom, on the effect of FLL. Compared with the number of the forgotten words of subjects which reflecting the effect of FLL as the indicator, it was found that the effect of trait boredom on FLL was not significant, while the effect of state boredom had the main effect on FLL. And there was an interaction between state boredom and trait boredom on FLL. The number of the forgotten words of those with low-state boredom in low trait boredom group was relatively lower than any other group. In short, the effect of FLL of this group was better than any other group. Like anxiety, boredom also has a negative effect on FLL. Therefore, boredom, specially, state boredom is also a negative affective factor that cannot be ignored in FLL. This study, the effect of boredom on FLL, can not only enrich the theoretical construction of foreign language affective factors, but also provide reference for foreign language teaching practice. We can not ignore the influence of boredom on the effect of FLL in educational settings. Teachers should actively improve teaching methods, set up meaningful and challenging learning tasks, awaken students' attention (Pekrun et al. 2010), and use boredom regulation mechanism (Sandi 2016) to stimulate students' interest and buffer the influence of negative emotion on academic achievement (Fritea 2013), so as to improve the effect of FLL. This study provides initial support to test effect of different types of boredom on FLL, the research in this area is still preliminary, which needs to be validated by more scientific research paradigms to explain the neural mechanisms underlying behavioral performance. In the future, it's necessary to understand cognition and behaviors elicited by boredom in a multi-modal way. For example, event-related potentials (ERP), functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI) and other techniques can be used to examine brain region activation patterns at different levels of boredom. Further, it is possible to clarify the cognitive characteristics at all stages of boredom formation and development, and to systematically elucidate the psychological and physiological mechanisms of the effect of boredom on FLL.

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A Survey on Needs for English Academic Course for Doctoral Candidates^{*}

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Abstract—Teaching of English for Academic Purpose (EAP) has caught great attention to developing the academic literacy of doctoral candidates. Therefore, it is a necessity to investigate their learning needs towards EAP courses. The paper did a survey on 105 doctoral candidates from 9 dimensions to investigate their overall situation of EAP learning needs. Teaching implications on EAP course concern teacher qualities, curriculum design and teaching practice.

Index Terms—needs analysis, English for Academic Purpose, doctoral candidates

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading volumes of international issues, presenting lectures in English and publishing articles in overseas magazines all pose a great challenge to the academic English literacy of non-English major doctoral candidates. According to the English Teaching Syllabus for the doctoral program (1992) issued by the Ministry of Education in China, English teaching aims to “help students to develop skillful reading competence, good writing and translating competence and sufficient listening and speaking competence; and students should be able to conduct research and make academic exchanges in their discipline in English.” Administrators, schools and teachers have to try their best to accomplish this goal.

Despite huge progress in doctoral candidates’ English teaching in most Chinese universities, many problems such as weak academic English pragmatic ability hinder doctors’ English academic literacy. Accordingly, most universities have already set up EAP course for doctoral candidates. Nevertheless, it is not enough in that course syllabus is designed mainly on the basis of education policy-makers and teaching faculty’s experience and command. The effect has proven that it can’t reflect massive students’ actual learning needs. In this sense, as the key role in learning, doctoral candidates’ learning needs should be considered firstly for the cultivation of their academic literacy.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Classification of Needs

Needs are the distance from a current state to a desired future state (Berwick, 1989) in terms of psychology. Widdowson (1987) claims that learning needs are goals of learners’ study such as the expectation for their learning ability after they finish the language program or course. With regard to language learning, Robinson (1991) holds that needs represent what the learners do not know or are not able to do in learning and using English. Language deficiency is defined as the difference between the current language ability and the expected language learning ability (Richards, 2001).

Classifications of needs are made from different orientations. For example, needs are divided into target needs and learning needs (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987). Target needs can be analyzed from learners’ necessities, such as necessities for learners’ language use; learners’ lacks in a language learning; and learners’ wants for language production.

B. Models of Needs Analysis

Needs analysis, first introduced to language teaching through the ESP movement from the 1960s (Richards, 2001), is conducted to collect information about learners’ needs through various methods such as questionnaires, interviews, observation.

Typical needs analysis models are Target Situation Analysis proposed by Munby (1978), and the model of Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998).

Target Situation Analysis model, oriented by learners’ future career prospects or academic situation, addresses the

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language requirements. Munby (1978) claims that analyzing learners' communicative needs serves as the cornerstone of determining learning contents. Curriculum designers must analyze learners' present language proficiency level in the target situation through questionnaire, interviews etc. before curriculum development. The model of Hutchinson and Waters (1987) initiates the learner-centered analysis. They argue that it is necessary to describe learners' learning needs and target needs before a lesson begins. The model of Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) consists of eight parts: learners' personal information, information about learners' profession, language proficiency, language learning, lack of learners, curriculum needs, learners' learning environment information and how to apply language and skill knowledge in the target situation.

The study is designed based on Hutchinson and Waters' model (1987), in which a framework for target situation analysis (1987) and a framework for analyzing learning needs are provided. The former covers why the language is needed, how the language will be used, what the content areas will be, where and when the language will be used; the latter includes why the learners are taking the course, how they learn, what resources are available, who the learners are, where the EAP course will take place and when the EAP course will take place. The framework shows the whole process of learning and introduces researchers how to construct a questionnaire to carry out needs analysis.

C. *Empirical Researches on Needs Analysis*

During the past 20 years, enormous contribution has been made to develop needs analysis research. In a comparative study of EAP programs conducted in universities in New Zealand and Vietnam, Oanh (2007) aims to find out whether needs analysis receives any attention in the program through both class observation and interviews. It shows both universities have somewhat considered learners' needs for the EAP program. Sultana (2018) argues that needs analysis is an invaluable step for learners to achieve successful autonomous English learning. In his study, 25 respondents at tertiary level in a Basic English course were invited to finish questionnaire-1 concerning learning needs before the course; questionnaire-2 relating to need assessment in the middle of the course and questionnaire-3 after the course. The results reveal, in autonomous class, a direct link can be drawn from learning needs to course design, fruitful classroom implementation and successful outcomes. Iizuka (2019) attaches great importance to implementing needs analysis for curriculum construction, and stresses the more frequent and systematic implementation of needs analysis in curriculum construction after exploring the communicative needs of studying abroad in Japan, adopting multiple sources including students and host families and multiple methods covering semi-structured interviews and questionnaires.

Other studies sought to dig out the needs of subjects. To find out what computer science students' needs are in ENG 101 and ENG 102 courses in terms of academic skills for the curriculum renewal project, Yürekli (2012) identified students' different needs with respect to 5 areas of academic skills (listening, reading, speaking, writing and research skills) and 2 linguistic competences (vocabulary and grammar). To investigate the efficiency of EAP courses and the extent to which these courses meet both academic and work-related needs of future pharmacists, Chowdhury and Haider (2012) adopted a structured questionnaire with questions about learners' current English learning needs and expectations. As a result, the study highlights writing and speaking skills in EAP course and the gap between academic and vocational language needs. To study the learning needs of English learners and their real needs of using English at the workplace, Chen, Chang and Chang (2016) administer a questionnaire to 30 senior college students and 30 employers. The results show college students and employers share different needs towards English; specifically, employees are required to be excellent at listening and speaking; however, the language in communication situations is less taught. The study points out the mismatch between English teaching in classroom courses and the real language needs in the workplace.

Nafissi, Rezaeipanah and Monsefi (2017) conducted a questionnaire survey about course evaluation among 20 undergraduates after they took the short and intensive ESP course. The results reveal most participants call for more EAP courses at universities. Mohammed (2016) explored the application of needs analysis in developing EAP materials for business students in two Sudanese universities. Two head departments of English language were interviewed. The qualitative outcomes concluded that most of the EAP materials in business administration are not relevant to students' learning and target needs for lack of needs analysis in designing a course.

Based on Hutchinson & Waters's (1987) framework of target needs, Uzun (2018) investigated the EAP needs of the research assistants of nursing in a public Turkish university through an open-ended questionnaire. The findings reveal that participants hold the need to improve their academic speaking and writing skills to write research articles and give presentations in international conferences. To explore how various stakeholders perceive task-based pragmatic needs in an EAP class, Youn (2018) interviewed administrators, teachers and students who also had to finish a questionnaire with a series of questions about real-life EAP language use situations. Different stakeholders expressed relatively strong pragmatic needs and lower-proficiency level students showed stronger pragmatic learning needs compared with higher ones. Menggo, Suastra, Budiarsa & Padmadedwi (2019) investigated 312 English majors to find out their target needs and learning needs toward academic English materials development with a questionnaire and in-depth interview. The result shows that learners' target needs cover necessities, lacks and wants; learning needs include input, procedure, setting and learners' role.

In order to examine why academics and graduate students cannot acquire the second language academic literacy, Köse, Yüksel, Öztürk, & Tömen (2019) conducted a large-scale survey to dig out the needs of academics and graduates across different disciplines in Turkey. The findings suggested that the subjects need most of the listed competencies

including reading, writing and listening; and their needs are language-skill specific, which is helpful to EAP teaching in various dimensions in Turkey.

From the above, most of the research aimed at the needs analysis of learners when designing the EAP course, few of which investigated the students of doctoral stage. In this background, the study explores the learning needs of doctoral candidates in universities of Jiangxi Province towards EAP course from nine dimensions, in the hope of providing some implications to better EAP curriculum and EAP teaching for tertiary universities.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions

In order to get a clear picture of doctor candidates' learning needs toward EAP course, this study is going to address the following question: What are the specific needs for doctoral candidates' EAP learning?

B. Participants

The study randomly selected 105 subjects who are pursuing doctoral degrees of different majors other than English in three universities in Jiangxi Province. Among them, 46 students are male and 59 are female, who are supposed to get 4 course credits after taking two English courses of listening and speaking, reading and writing for a whole school year in their doctoral programs. Most of the subjects have average English literacy, but with poor oral communicative competence. They are liable to lose their interest in training general English skills for lack of specific requirement on English use in their daily research or work. The courses were originally designed to further develop their general English competence, instead of the academic literacy, which may be a hindrance for the candidates to attend international academic symposium or publish academic papers in international journals, which can ensure their smooth graduation or career promotion on account of higher requirements on academic achievements of doctoral candidates in their universities.

C. Research Instruments

The needs analysis questionnaire of academic English learning for Phd. candidates is adopted and revised according to Shu Dingfang's (2004) classification of needs and Chen Bingbing's (2010) model of needs analysis. The questionnaire on a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) is composed of two parts. The first part is about the personal information covering gender, age, major, grade, the English level of entering doctoral stage and the time of postgraduate graduation. The second part consists of 39 items with nine dimensions of needs listed as follows: (1) learners' individual wants (Item 1, 12, 22, 32, 35); (2) learner' learning motivation (Item 2, 13, 23, 28, 33); (3) learners' learning strategy (Item 3, 14, 36); (4) teachers' quality (Item 4, 15, 25, 39); (5) curriculum design (Item 5, 6, 16, 26); (6) classroom teaching (Item 7, 17, 27, 37); (7) learning resources (Item 8, 10, 18, 20, 30); (8) teaching materials (Item 9, 19, 24, 29, 34, 38); (9) assessment method (Item 11, 21, 31).

D. Data Collection

The questionnaire was delivered to 105 non-English doctoral candidates in December, 2019 with the help of their English teachers. All items are presented in Chinese to avoid language barriers. Every subject was informed of the general purposes and instructions for filling in the questionnaire. It took every student 15 minutes to finish all the questionnaire items carefully. For some reasons, 5 students didn't finish the questionnaire effectively; hence, only 100 participants' test results were valid in this study.

E. Data Analysis

All the data collected were input into the computer and analyzed by the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS, version 22.0). The reliability test of the questionnaire, descriptive analysis, and independent sample T-test were adopted to find out the overall situation of doctor candidates' learning needs in EAP class. The results are displayed through mean value and other indicators as follows.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Firstly, the reliability result shows the Cronbach coefficient of the questionnaire is .938 that is largely higher than .70. Thus, the questionnaire is proved to be of high reliability and validity.

Overall Situation of Doctoral Candidates' EAP Learning Needs

The results in Table 1 reveal the general situation of EAP learning needs in detail. The mean value of the whole questionnaire is 4.03 (SD=.9228), which indicates that the doctoral candidates in three universities have high demand for academic English courses. As for the 9 dimensions of EAP learning needs, the mean values varied - 4.29 (SD=.59) for learning resource, followed by 4.26 (SD=.63) for learners' individual wants, 4.22 (SD=.62) for learners' learning strategy, 4.1 (SD=.61) for classroom teaching, 4.08 (SD=.66) for teaching material, 4.06 (SD=.74)- for assessment method, 3.90 (SD=1.27) for teachers' quality, 3.83 (SD=.91) for curriculum design, and 3.57 (SD=1.02) for learners' learning motivation.

TABLE 1
GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF EAP LEARNING NEEDS OF DOCTORAL CANDIDATES

Dimensions	Mean	Standard Deviation
Learners' individual wants	4.26	.63
Learners' learning motivation	3.57	1.02
Learners' learning strategy	4.22	.62
Teachers' quality	3.90	1.27
Curriculum design	3.83	.91
Classroom teaching	4.15	.61
Learning resource	4.29	.59
Teaching material	4.08	.67
Assessment method	4.06	.74
The Whole Questionnaire	4.04	.92

All mean values of the whole questionnaire and nine dimensions are above 3.5, which is a sign of relatively strong EAP learning needs of doctoral candidates generally.

Specifically speaking, both the mean value of learning resource and learners' individual wants are higher than 4.00, indicating that the doctoral candidates are unsatisfied with the resources they can access from school and they truly need to improve their EAP competence in listening, reading, speaking, writing and translation. In addition, the participants' needs toward the strategies they adopted, the way their teachers impart the knowledge, what materials to be covered and the method to assess their learning results when learning EAP course are slightly strong. Lastly, the teaching staff at school proves to be very strong and curriculum in EAP course is quite appropriate for the candidates. Learning motivation, being the lowest mean, suggests as a doctoral candidate, participants really want to learn the course well. The detailed analysis of these dimensions is shown below.

1. Situation of Learners' Individual Wants

Table 2 presents the frequencies and occurrence rates of responses for the five items of the subjects' EAP wants in the questionnaire, and the mean and standard deviation of each item are displayed respectively as well.

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF LEARNERS' INDIVIDUAL WANTS

Component	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Learners' individual wants	Listening	4.39	.92
	Reading	4.36	1.00
	Speaking	4.21	.98
	Writing	4.26	.98
	Translation	4.10	1.04

As is shown in Table 2, the mean of all the items including listening, reading, speaking, writing and translation in EAP course are higher than 4.0 with listening ($M=4.39$, $SD=.92$) being the highest, which indicates learners' desires to improve EAP skills are at a strongly high level and they especially desire to improve their listening proficiency. Moreover, the rank of means is in accordance with the rank of agree and strongly agree percentage. 86% students hold that they want to improve their EAP listening skills most, 87% students for the reading skills most, 81% students for speaking skills most, 82% students for writing skills most, and 77% students want to improve their translation skills most. It is clear that over 70% of doctoral candidates' desire to make progress in every aspect of EAP skills.

The result shows doctoral candidates' real situation towards EAP course. It reflects their English proficiency level. That means most of the students are rather weak in English and it is sensible that they feel urgent to improve all the EAP skills. A doctoral student often has to read lots of books and articles, take exams and write thesis, so they are anxious to make progress in reading and writing to cope with the books and exams. Listening skills help them to understand better in the classroom and to fully understand the lectures given in the international conference. English is not learned for communication, but from communication (Jeremy, 2000). The enhancement of speaking abilities will prepare them better performance in communication and in the future interview.

In summary, EAP course should focus more on doctor candidates' input ability to lay a solid foundation for the future output ability in the academic field.

2. Situation of Learners' Learning Strategy

TABLE 3
DATA OF LEARNERS' LEARNING STRATEGY

Component	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Learners' learning strategy	English-native scholars	4.26	.82
	Cooperative learning	4.04	1.03
	Ask teachers for help	4.37	.83

Table 3 shows the results of learners' expectation of learning strategies. The mean values are all above 4.0 which indicate learners' strong desire to use all the 3 strategies when learning EAP course and their clear consciousness to adopt learning strategy in the process of learning EAP. The mean values show participants tend to ask their teachers for help when they have problems ($M=4.37$, $SD=.83$). Among three items, the percentage in cooperative learning with members in study group shows the most uncertainty, probably suggesting some of the students prefer to study alone. Participants' likeliness to communicate with English-native scholars may be largely due to the desire to enhance all aspects of capacity in EAP skills. The competence of English learning strategy is nurtured (Cheng Xiaotang & Zheng Min, 2002). Therefore, teacher's guidance is of necessity in the learning process. In short, more attention should be paid to the training of cooperative learning strategy.

3. Situation of Learners' Expectation on Classroom Teaching

TABLE 4
DATA OF CLASSROOM TEACHING

Component	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Classroom teaching	Diversified classroom activities	4.01	1.08
	Communicate more about thesis	3.33	.97
	Multiple teaching modes	3.99	.92
	Authentic simulated exercise	4.26	.91

As Table 4 presents, the means of the four items are above 3.0, which imply that the participants' EAP learning needs for classroom teaching are at a relatively high level. As to the specific ones, the highest mean value is that of authentic simulated exercise, reaching 4.26 ($SD=.91$), followed by that of diversified classroom activities ($M=4.01$, $SD=1.08$), and ($M=3.33$, $SD=.97$) on communicating more about thesis being the last. In classroom teaching, students' expectation towards teacher and classmates is similar to that of learning strategy. More students (84%) want to communicate more with teachers compared with joining in communicative classroom activities such as group-discussion (72%). In other words, doctoral candidates trust their teacher more. Additionally, 72% of the students expect for multiple teaching modes and methods, which echoes the rather high demand in teachers' quality. As for the authentic simulated exercise, a great majority of students (85%) consider it as a helper in their international academic exchange, which coincides with their strong motivation to be excellent in academic study.

Therefore, an EAP learning environment accompanied by various classroom activities and authentic academic exchange context are what students need; besides, a ready-guide teacher who can apply diversified teaching modes and methods is welcomed in EAP lesson.

4. Situation of Learners' Expectation on Learning Resource

TABLE 5
DATA OF LEARNING RESOURCE

Component	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Learning resource	Regular English activities	3.84	1.11
	Cooperate with distinguished universities	4.26	.97
	Subsidy	4.68	.51
	Enlarge English electronic resources	4.50	.84
	Self-learning platform	4.15	1.05

This table draws a clear picture about doctoral candidates' needs on learning resources. Almost everyone (98%) hopes that their universities can provide academic activities such as international academy exchange conference according to the data of subsidy column with the mean value being the highest among all the items ($M=4.68$, $SD=.51$). However, fewer students (67%) call for necessity to hold regular English activities, since more students want to develop their input ability such as listening and reading skill showed by Table 4-3 and they want to focus more on academic study according to Table 4. More than half of students shows very strong desire to access sorts of learning resource.

All in all, most doctor candidates are thirsty for EAP learning. Hence, corresponding learning resources in the university should keep pace with students' needs.

5. Situation of Learners' Expectation on Teaching Material

TABLE 6
DATA OF NEEDS FOR TEACHING MATERIAL

Component	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Needs for Teaching material	EAP knowledge	4.08	.98
	scientific research	4.39	.96
	practicable extracurricular readings	4.06	.96
	research communicative competence	4.30	.96
	professional English competence	4.00	1.00
	Job application	3.64	1.15

According to Table 6, of all the contents, the mean of scientific research is the highest, up to 4.39 (SD=.96) conversely, that of job application comes in last with 3.64 (SD=1.15); and other contents all get a mean above 4.0. On the whole, the means are all above 3.0, which imply that the participants' EAP learning needs for teaching materials are at a relatively high level. Both Harmer (1983) and Cunningsworth (1995) deem that the best teaching material is the one that satisfy the needs of learners. Seeing from the description, all the items are related to participants' attitude toward the EAP teaching material they are adopting currently, which reflects the EAP teaching material they want. From the data of professional English competence (M=4.00, SD=1.00) and job application (M=3.64, SD=1.15), students are really less concerned about applying for a job and 81% of the participants expect teaching materials to be helpful for improving their capacity for scientific research in English, in conformity with their less-strong motivation for a job and stronger motivation for academic study again.

To sum up, the research results above reveal students' very strong desire to use the teaching material to build their academic knowledge and cultivate their academic ability.

6. Situation of Learners' Expectation on Assessment

TABLE 7
DATA OF ASSESSMENT

Component	Items	Mean	Standard Deviation
Assessment method	summative assessment	3.59	1.14
	formative assessment	4.40	.87
	the combination	4.18	.96

In Table 7, each item in the dimension of assessment has a mean above 3.0, ranging from 3.59 (SD=1.14) (summative assessment) 4.40 (SD=.87) (formative assessment). The mean of formative assessment is the highest, followed by the combination of summative assessment and formative assessment (M=4.18, SD=.96) and summative assessment. The result is consistent to the frequencies of agreement responses of each item. Most of participants (87%) in formative assessment, which shows doctoral candidates prefer formative assessment than summative assessment and combination of them. Besides, 84% of the participants agree on the combination of summative and formative assessment on EAP class. Altogether, majority of participants tend to choose both forms of assessment. The result is consistent with Zhao's (2011) and Meng's (2012) findings: students' scholar performance should be judged by various way such as the combination of oral report, group presentation and course paper.

In brief, the combination of formative and summative assessments can reflect the whole process of EAP learning, which ought to be adopted on course assessment.

V. IMPLICATIONS FOR EAP COURSE

Based on the results above, some suggestions are made for the present EAP teaching, EAP Curriculum Design and EAP Teachers based on the findings.

First, doctoral candidates' EAP learning proficiency directly relates to EAP teachers' quality and personal competence. Teachers have to focus on self-cultivation of every aspect of EAP skills to set the best example to the students. Then, it's teachers' duty to help students to form stable learning motivation, like developing intrinsic motivation on academic study. What's more, teachers had better train students to apply efficient learning strategies which can directly enhance the efficiency of learning.

With respect to EAP curriculum design, the pinpoint is to design syllabus for different majors which pose a different requirement for English. It is better for them to learn English connected to their own major. Besides, courses of academic writing are urgently needed. Theories like research method and academic writing patterns integrating with practical English academic writing including writing standards and writing strategies ought to be taught to doctoral students.

With regard to EAP teaching, each aspect of EAP teaching impact students as well as other factors. First of all, diversified activities ought to be arranged to improve learners' academic ability. For example, topic debate on certain academic topic, presenting international articles, personal opinion statement of academic issues in English can be employed. Secondly, it is of great urgency to enrich EAP learning resources. Establishing EAP self-learning platform, cooperating with other universities and extending the electronic resources are good ways. In addition, teaching materials may be practical extracurricular readings, concerning about how to guide students to conduct scientific research and make an academic exchange. Furthermore, the combination of formative assessment and summative assessment will contribute a lot to doctoral candidates.

VI. CONCLUSION

The study aims to find out the overall situation of doctoral candidates' EAP needs. They harbor a very strong expectation toward EAP course. In addition, of all the nine dimensions, learning resources is what students expect most. Followed by individual wants and learning strategy, reflecting that students' desire to learn EAP and their learning

self-consciousness is high. Besides, doctoral candidates show relatively high expectations of assessment method, teaching material and classroom teaching.

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A Cognitive Study of the NP+*de*(的)+VP Structure in Mandarin*

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Abstract—The article presents a cognitive account of the NP+*de*(的)¹+VP structure in Mandarin. By making its syntactic functions and cognitive motivations explicit, it shows that the relationship between the constituents of the structure is subject-predicate rather than modifier-head as claimed by previous studies. Based on the new proposals that the structure is exocentric and the particle *de* is a nominalizing infix, the article offers a possible solution for the long-debated contradiction between the overall nominal functions of the structure and its constituents' verbal part of speech. We conclude that a cognitive linguistic approach to analyzing structures in Mandarin can be useful in producing a picture of the formation of the structures and revealing how they are cognitively motivated. This study contributes to the development of cognitive studies on Chinese grammar and sheds light on Chinese language instruction in the long run.

Index Terms—NP+*de*+VP structure, Endocentric Construction Theory, nominalization affix, cognitive motivation

I. INTRODUCTION

Bloomfield (1933) proposed the *Endocentric Construction Theory* (ECT) in language and defined endocentric constructions as syntactic constructions, which were formed by the combination of two or sometimes more free forms, belonged to the same form-class as one or more of their constituents, while those which did not belong to the form-class of any immediate constituent as exocentric constructions. The application of this theory to the analysis of structures in Mandarin met with some challenges, among which were the most frequently discussed structures being exemplified as follows.

- (1) zhe ben shu de chuban.
This CLAS book NOM publish.
This book's publishing. /The publication of this book.
- (2) ta de lai.
3SG NOM come.
His coming.
- (3) qiaoliang de pohuai.
bridge NOM destroy.
The destruction of the bridge. /The bridge's destruction.
- (4) pingguo de suan.
apple NOM sour.
The sourness of the apple.

Despite of minor heterogeneity, these structures can be subsumed under a superordinate category named as the NP+*de*+VP structure². Ever since the 1950s, extensive studies (Shi, 1981, 1988; Zhu, 1984; Xiang, 1991; Zhang, 1993; Cheng 1999a, 1999b; Si, 2002, 2004; Lu, 2003; Shi, 2004; Wu, 2006, Yang, 2019, etc.) have been focusing on the conflicts among the overall nominal syntactic functions of the structures, their verbal head VP, and the claims of ECT. Researches following varying approaches and perspectives have shown different, sometimes contradictory, conclusions. From a cognitive perspective, especially with the conceptual metaphor and metonymy theory formulated by Lakoff & Johnson (1980), Panther & Thornburg (1999, 2000), Ruiz de Mendoza & Perez (2001) and Ruiz de Mendoza & Diez (2004), we explore the ways such theories allow us to capture and systematize the analysis of this structure, and also the similarities and differences among similar structures. The study confirms the applicability of Bloomfield's theory to the analysis of the structures in Mandarin, even though some of them are seemingly disparate phenomena. The cognitive linguistic approach is capable of providing a unified explanatory framework for the *de* nominalization, be it as a suffix

* Abbreviations: N, noun; NP, noun phrase; Vi., Intransitive verb; Vt., transitive verb; ASP, aspect markers; NEG, negative morpheme; NOM, nominalizer; CLAS, classifier; 3SG, 3rd person singular; 2SG, 2nd person singular; 1PL, 1st person plural; 1SG, 1st person singular; BEI, coverb *bei*(被) in the *bei* construction; BA, coverb *ba*(把) in the *ba* construction.

¹ *de* (的) will be noted as *de* for short hereafter.

² The VP in the structure is taken as a covering term for all possible components, i.e. verbs, verb phrases, adjectives, and even "verb + object" structures.

or an infix. By doing so, the current study provides a desirable degree of explanatory adequacy on the half-century long debate on the issue.

The structure of the article is as follows. Section 2 is a literature review of previous studies on the structure and commentaries are provided afterwards. The section is followed by an elaboration of our proposal of taking *de* in the structure and similar structures as a nominalizing infix. The analysis of *de* as an infix shows possibilities of a systemic and unified explanation for structures of their kind. Contrastive studies among NP+*de*+VP structure, NP+VP+*de* structure and VP+NP+*de* structure are carried out in Section 4, in which the similarities and differences in the composing constituents, syntactic functions and discourse distributions of the structures are successively examined. Section 5 focuses on the conceptual and cognitive basis for the new proposals. The cognitive motivations for the structures are explored and discussed in detail. The conclusions are presented in Section 6.

II. PREVIOUS STUDIES ON NP+DE+VP STRUCTURE

Ever since the 1950s, continuous discussions have been focusing on the NP+*de*+VP structure. The studies can be categorized into four types, which are examined successively in this section and commentaries are provided afterwards.

A. Nominalization of the VP

Shi (1981, 1988) and Hu & Fan (1994) hold that the verb in the NP+*de*+VP³ structure has been nominalized. Their claims are based on the assumption that this construction is a modifier-head structure and, according to ECT, it is an endocentric construction. Because of the unanimous agreement on the nominal syntactic functions of the structure and the claim of ECT that the form-class of one or more of its constituents is in line with that of the resultant structure, it seems true that the verbs in the structures must have been nominalized. The evidence they provide for the nominalization of the so-called nominalized head of the structure lies in the fact that they cannot be modified by particles of aspect or tense, nor taking objects or complements, which indicates the weakening of predication. Therefore, all the verbs and adjectives in the structures in examples (1) to (4) are nominalized.

However, the usage of verbs in sentences does not necessarily mean the realization of all of their syntactic functions, e.g. taking on particles or markers of aspect and tense, having their objects or complements. More often than not, the realization of one of the above-mentioned functions excludes the occurrence of the others. Therefore, the partial realization of the verbal functions does not necessarily indicate the weakening of predication on the one hand and the gain of the function of reference on the other. Close examinations reveal that a large number of examples can falsify this assumption.

- (5) ta de bu lai.
 3SG NOM not come.
 His not coming.

Example (5) is the negation form of (2). According to the nominalization view, *lai* (come) in (2) is nominalized and, of course, functions as a noun. However, the fact that it can be modified by *bu* (not), which is usually considered as a negating word for verbs, shows that *lai* (come) in (2) and (5) are not nominalized at all.

Furthermore, the nominalization proposal fails in covering the cases where the verbs take with them adverbials, complements or objects as we will see in Section 4. Also, the view is squarely against native speakers' language intuition that the verbs are nominalized on the one hand while keep some of their verbal functions on the other.

B. Modification of ECT

The second type of studies claims that the verbs and adjectives in the structure undergo no trans-categorical change and postulates that the conflicts between the overall nominal features of the structure and the adjectival or verbal head necessitates the modification of Bloomfield's ECT. Zhu (1984) redefines endocentric constructions as syntactic constructions whose grammatical functions are in line with and subject to the same semantic choice of at least one of its constituents.

However, the modification fails in covering all cases of the structure. Even Zhu (1984:403) himself admits that "in a strict sense, the structures are not consistent with the new definition because the grammatical functions of the head are different from those of the structure". Therefore, the modified definition cannot account for the structure either and eventually being considered as an ineffective move (Wu, 2006).

Zhou (2007) makes another attempt to redefine endocentric construction as a syntactic structure marked as *S*, which consists of two constituents, *a* and *b*. If the expressional function of *a* and/or *b* is the same with that of *S* and both are subject to the same constraints of semantic choice, then *a* and/or *b* is the head of *S*. The modification can be exemplified as follows.

- (6) ta de si hen beican.
 3SG NOM die very miserable.

³ It should be noted that in Shi (1981, 1988) and Hu & Fan (1994), they are focusing on the cases where there is only one verb in the structure with no preceding adverbials nor following complements or objects. Therefore, the structure they addressed can be abbreviated as noun-*de*(的)-verb, which covers only a small portion of the NP+*de*+VP structure.

His death is very miserable.

According to Zhou's definition, the head of the structure "ta *de* si" is *si* (die). The reason why the verb acts as the head of the nominal structure is that it has been referentialized, i.e. its verbal syntactic functions have changed to nominal ones.

In actuality, his study can be classified into the nominalization proposal as reviewed in Section 2.1. The claim is similar to Guo's (2010) differentiation of Chinese words' part of speech on the morphological level and the syntactical level, where the latter is called as nominalization on the syntactic level or syntactic referentialization.

Studies which try to modify or polish ECT are not well accepted due to two reasons. At the first place, the modifications fail in solving the puzzling problems about the structures as shown in this part. The redefinition of the theory cannot embed the peculiarities and, therefore, is easily proved to be weak in explanative adequacy. Secondly, ECT has been proved to be efficient in explaining language phenomena in general and, therefore, modification of the theory because of one single structure in Mandarin is a risky step which may weaken the explanative strength of the theory in general and cause even more problems.

C. Multi-function of Chinese Words

Scholars (e.g. Xiang, 1991; Zhu, 1983) hold that Chinese words are multifunctional, thereby taking different syntactic roles without any morphological change is but one of their unique features. In Indo-European languages, verbs and adjectives have to be nominalized, usually by adding affixes, before they take the syntactic roles of subject and object, while in Mandarin, they can take these syntactic roles without any extra process. Accordingly, it is natural to infer that the verbs and adjectives in the NP+*de*+VP structure are still verbs and adjectives and ECT needs no modification at all. The difference lies in the way of correspondence between word categories and syntactic roles.

In Indo-European languages, there are neat correspondences between words and their syntactic roles. To take different syntactic roles, a change of form and, correspondingly, a change in the part of speech are usually needed. Because of the lack of inflection, Chinese verbs and adjectives functioning as subjects and objects are morphologically the same as those when they are acting as predicates. Scholars (e.g. Zhu, Lu & Ma, 1961; Zhu, 1983) noticed this difference and claimed that, as a special feature being radically different from that of Indo-European languages, Chinese verbs and adjectives could function as subjects and objects without any morphological change.

The challenge of this proposal exists in the fact that these verbs and adjectives in the NP+*de*+VP structure can take with them adverbials, complements or objects, which are typical syntactic features of predicate words. This is in obvious conflict with ECT. In a language without inflections, the words' part of speech can only be confirmed with reference to their usage and syntactic collocation. Therefore, the multifunctional proposal of Chinese words cannot solve the problems either.

D. X-bar Theory and More

Recent years witnessed a debate on the possibility of applying the *X-bar Theory* and *Head Word Theory* to the analysis of the structure. From a generative grammar perspective, Lu (2003), Si (2002, 2004, 2006) and Xiong (2005) argue that the heads of the structures are the particle *de* and the nominal function of the whole structure is endowed by this particle. According to the *X-bar Theory*, the structure can be analyzed as follows.

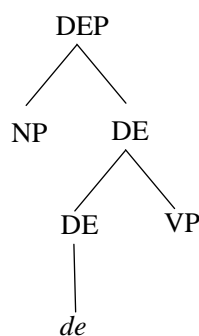


Figure 1: The X-bar Analysis of NP+*de*+VP Structure

It is claimed that the particle *de* in the structure has a nominal form-class (marked as [+N] hereafter) and this form-class can be projected onto the whole structure, and, as a result, the whole structure becomes nominal. Therefore, the particle *de* is considered as the head of the structure, thereby it functions as the determining factor of the structure's form-class.

Zhou (2005, 2007a, 2007b) and Wu (2006) enumerate the deficiencies of applying the *X-bar Theory* and *Head Word Theory* to Chinese grammar studies, especially to the NP+*de*+VP structure, by claiming that the grouping of the structure as NP+(*de*+VP) goes strongly against the language intuition of native speakers. Mostly importantly, there is no

convincible evidence for the source of the nominal [+N] nature of *de* in the structure. Their ideas can be illustrated as follows.

- (7) a. feichang de tongkuai
 very NOM delighted
 Very delighted.
 b. feichang de shiqi
 very NOM period
 Special period.
 c. feichang de xianmu
 Very NOM envy
 Envy ...very much.

In line with the analysis of *X-bar Theory* and *Head Word Theory*, the three *de* in (7) differ from each other in that the *de* in (7)a is adjectival, (7)b nominal and (7)c adverbial. The modifying words in the three examples are the same, i.e. *feichang* (very). Obviously, the differences of the structures in (7) exist in the words following the particle, with *Tongkuai* (delighted) in (7)a being an adjective, *shiqi* (period) in (7)b a noun and *xianmu* (envy) in (7)c a verb. In this regard, it seems to be more reasonable to claim that the words following the particle determine the form-classes of the structures rather than the particle itself⁴.

III. A REANALYSIS OF THE STRUCTURE

To tackle the challenges that scholars face in the analysis of the NP+*de*+VP structure, the present study proposes that (1) instead of taking it as an endocentric modifier-head structure, it is postulated that it is exocentric and, consequently, the VP is not the head of the structure; (2) the overall nominal functions of the structure is but a natural consequence of the usage of the particle *de*, which is a nominalizing infix.

A. NP+*de*+VP Structure as an Exocentric Construction

As reviewed in Section 2, scholars tend to take the structure as an endocentric construction and make great efforts to explain the conflict between the nominal structure and its verbal/adjectival head. Close examinations reveal that the NP and VP in the structure have a subject-predicate relation. Zhu (1984) first noticed this relationship but he did not further elaborate his discovery. Wang (2002) analyzes the constraints for verbs to enter this structure and her analysis consists of two parts, one with NP as the agent of the verb and the other with NP as the patient. The study is based on the precondition that the syntactic relationship between the NP and VP is subject-predicate.

Our argument for the subject-predicate relationship of the components of the structure is semantically based. For example:

- (8) a. ta diedao le. → ta de diedao.
 3SG fall-down ASP. → 3SG NOM fall-down.
 He fell down. → His falling down.
 b. ta aiguo. → ta de aiguo.
 3SG love-country. → 3SG NOM love-country.
 He loves the country. → His love of the country.
 c. qiaoliang bei huihuai le. → qiaoliang de huihuai.
 Bridge BEI destroy ASP. → bridge NOM destroy.
 The bridge was destroyed. → The destruction of the bridge.
 d. women gaijin le fangfa. → fangfa de gaijin. → women de gaijin.
 1PL improve ASP measure. → measure NOM improve. → 1PL NOM improve.
 We improved the measures. → The improvement of measures. → Our improvement.

The four examples in (8) instantiate the nominalization of different structures. (8)a is a declarative sentence with past tense and an intransitive verb. It is known that intransitive verbs are easy to occur in the NP+*de*+VP structure. (8)b could be taken as either an SVO sentence or an SV sentence because *aiguo* (love-country) resides somewhere between an intransitive verb and a verb-object structure. The intermediate state of *aiguo* does not affect the nominalization of the whole structure since, as an infix, *de* can be used in both sentences and phrases. As a sentence with passive voice, (8)c can be converted into the NP+*de*+VP structure with the NP acting as patient. Similar to (8)c, *fangfa* (measures) in (8)d could be used as the NP in the nominalized structure. With a possessor-for-possession metonymy (“we” for “our measures”), the second conversion *women de gaijin* (our improvement) is also acceptable. The four examples, together with ubiquitous real life utterances, reveal the fact that the NP and VP in the converted structures have a subject-predicate relation.

This observation is of great significance in two ways. At the first place, it differentiates the NP+*de*+VP structure from modifier-head structures and possessor-possession structures, which conform to ECT with the nouns and possessions

⁴ In actuality, all the three examples in (7) are endocentric constructions, and, consequently, their head words determine the form-class of the structures according to ECT.

acting as the heads of the structures and having the same form-class with the structures. Our observation presumes that the NP+*de*+VP structure belongs to one of the three kinds of exocentric constructions listed by Bloomfield (1933). Secondly, the new observation and analysis are free of the troubles that have been challenging scholars who hold that the verbs or adjectives are nominalized as reviewed in Section 2.1. It explains why the so-called nominalized verbs can take adverbials or objects as claimed by the nominalization approach.

B. *de* as a Nominalization Infix

The second proposal is that *de* in the structure is a nominalizing infix. It has been widely accepted that *de* is a nominalizing suffix, and the nominalized structures can be self-designating or trans-designating (c.f. Zhu, 1983; Lu, 2003). The nominalized structures can take different syntactic roles, e.g. subject, object, attribute, and predicate. As a nominalizer, *de* can be used at the end of the structure (as a suffix) and, more importantly, inserted in the middle of a structure (as an infix) too. The proposal is also consistent with our first proposal that the relation between the NP and the VP is subject-predicate instead of modifier-head.

The claim that *de* is a nominalizing infix is reasonable and rewarding in three aspects. At the first place, as a grammatical word, it is consistent with its function as a suffix. As a nominalizer, *de* can be used both at the end and in the middle of the structures. Secondly, the claim covers NP+*de*+VP, NP+VP+*de* and VP+NP+*de* structures in a unified way. Previous studies focusing on the nominalization of the verbs or adjectives in the structures cannot explain the cases where verbs, after their nominalization, can still take modifiers and objects with them. The new proposal holds that the nominal syntactic function of all the structures is endowed by the nominalizer *de* while all constituents of the structures keep their original part of speech, which, in turn, is in line with the subject-predicate relation of the components of the structures.

In this section, we propose that the constituents of the NP+*de*+VP structure bear a subject-predicate relation and that the particle *de* is a nominalizing infix. The proposals provide a possible solution for the challenges that scholars face in the analysis of the structures in a systemic and unified manner.

IV. NP + DE + VP STRUCTURE AND MORE

Contrastive studies between the NP+*de*+VP structure, where *de* functions as a nominalizing infix, and NP+VP+*de* and VP+NP+*de*, where *de* is considered as a nominalizing suffix are carried out in this section. The structural constituents, semantic features, syntactic features and discourse distributions of the structures are addressed in a successive manner.

A. Structural Constituents

Based on Hopper and Thompson's (1980) measuring scales of transitivity, Wang (2002) surveys the transitivity of the verbs in the NP+*de*+VP structure and finds that they rank quite low according to the scales. Her study shows that the higher the transitivity of the verb, the lower their possibility of occurring in the structure. The possibility of converting SVO sentences into NP+*de*+VP structure is tested and it turns out that in some cases the subjects of sentences can be converted to be the NP of the structure while in other cases the objects can be used as the NP of the structures. Still, there are cases in which both subjects and objects can be used as the NP of the structures. The findings pose as another evidence for our proposal that the overall nominal features of the structures come from the nominalizer *de*.

The VPs in the structures are usually compound disyllabic verbs. The semantic relations of the compound verbs can be categorized into verb-object, verb-complement and modifier-verb as follows.

- (9) a. ta de tigan.
3SG NOM promote-leader.
His promotion.
b. haizi de zhangda.
Child NOM grow-big.
The growth of the child.
c. ta de buman.
3SG NOM not-satisfied.
His dissatisfaction.

In (9)a, *tigan* is composed of *ti* (promote) and *gan* (leadership). As a compound verb, it means promotion. Semantically, the components of the word have a verb-object relation. In (9)b, the verb *zhangda* consists of *zhang* (grow) and *da* (big). *da* (big) is the resultant state because of the action indicated by the verb (grow). While in (9)c, *bu* (not) is a negating adverbial for the monosyllabic verb *man*(satisfied)⁵.

On a higher level, *de* can also act as the nominalizing infix of sentences like S+*de* +V+O. For example:

- (10) ta de zaici dapo jilu jingdai le suoyou ren.
3SG NOM again beat-break record surprise-dumb ASP every people.
His breaking of the record again surprised everyone.

⁵ The issue of the negation of the structure will be addressed in detail later in this section.

Without *de*, the underlined part in (10) is a well-formed SVO sentence in the regard of both syntax and semantics. Conceptually, a sentence can be considered as a semantic entirety and take a syntactic role in a complex sentence. The nominalizing infix *de* functions like a packaging word that emphasizes the conceptual holisty of the sentences, which, as an entirety, act as a sentence component as shown in (10).

With regard to the constraints for the constituents of NP+VP+*de* structures, it is found that both transitive and intransitive verbs can occur in the structure. Highly transitive verbs like *mai* (buy), *sha* (kill), *xi* (wash) as well as intransitive verbs⁶ like *suan* (soar), *tong* (painful) can be used in the structures as shown below.

- (11) a. mama mai de shi bai chengyi.
Mather buy NOM is white shirt.
 What (my) mother bought is a white shirt.
- b. qing ni ba weidao suan de rengdiao.
 Please 2SG BA taste soar NOM throw-away.
 Please throw away those taste soar.

The constraints for the well-formedness of the structures are mainly on the NPs. We find that the patients of actions can hardly act as the NP of the structure. The NP and VP can take their own modifiers, i.e. attributes for NP and adverbials for VP.

- (12) a. ta zhunshi daolai le. → ta de hunshi daolai.
 3SG on time arrive ASP. → 3SG NOM on time arrive.
 He arrived on time. → His arrival on time.
- b. meili de jinyu si le. → meili de jinyu de si.
 Beautiful NOM goldfish die ASP. → Beautiful NOM goldfish NOM die.
 The beautiful goldfish died. → The death of the beautiful goldfish.

In (12)a, the verb *daolai* (arrive) takes with it an adverbial *zhunshi* (on time) and the adverbial adheres to it in the nominalized structure. In (12)b, the presence of an attribute of the NP, *meili de* (beautiful), in the nominalized structure does not affect its well-formedness.

As for the VP+NP+*de* structures, the NP closely follows the VP and the semantic relation between the two is usually action-patient. Therefore, it is safe to infer that the VP in the structure is transitive and the NP is likely to be the patient of VP. Because of frequent usage, the action-patient combination in this structure tends to become compound words. For example:

- (13) a. kaiche de hai meiyou lai.
drive-car NOM yet not have come.
 The driver has not come yet.
- b. changge de jintian meiyou chuchang.
sing-song NOM today not present.
 The singer is not present today.

Both *kaiche* and *changge* could be considered as residing in an intermediate position between a phrase and a word. Beside these action-patient compound words, words of the same semantic relationship are found to be easy to occur in this structure.

B. Syntactic Functions

Lu (2003) contrasts the syntactic roles that NP+*de*+VP and NP+VP+*de* can take and concludes that the former can be used only as subjects and objects while the latter can take far more syntactic roles, i.e. subject, object, complement, attribute, etc.

- (14) a. ta de nuoruo rang qizi hen shiwang.
3SG NOM cowardice make wife very disappoint.
His cowardice disappointed his wife.
- b. women xiguan le ta de chidao.
 1PL accustom ASP 3SG MON late.
 We are accustomed to his being late.

The structures with infix *de* can take the syntactic slots which are usually for nouns. In (14)a, *ta de nuoruo* (his cowardice) functions as the subject of the sentence while in (14)b, the structure *ta de chidao* (his being late) acts as the object.

With regard to the NP+VP+*de* structure, it can take more syntactic roles, such as subject, object, complement and attribute. For example,

- (15) a. chengyi, wo xihuan mama mai de.
 Shirt, 1SG like mother bought NOM.
 As for shirt, I like those bought by my mother.
- b. mama mai de shi shuigu.
Mother buy NOM is fruit.

⁶ Some scholars include adjectives as part of the intransitive verbs. We are in line with this claim.

- What my mother bought are fruits.
- c. mama mai de chengyi haokan.
Mother buy NOM shirt good-looking.
The shirt bought by my mother looks good.
- d. na chengyi, mama mai de.
That shirt, mother buy NOM.
That shirt is bought by my mother.

The nominalized structures function as an object in (15)a, a subject in (15)b, an attribute in (15)c and a predicate in (15)d. Their syntactic functions are more diversified than the NP+*de*+VP structure and the VP+NP+*de* structure, which mainly function as subjects or objects.

C. Expression Functions

Nominalized structures can be classified into two categories based on the way of designation: self-designation and trans-designation. The former includes nominalized structures which refer to themselves, like *kindness* in English. The reference of the nominalized word is the same with that of its adjectival counterpart and, therefore, there is no need for a separate index in dictionaries for the two words. While trans-designation refers to nominalizations where the resultant structures refer to something related to the original stem, like *write-writer*. The resultant word *writer* refers to the agent that carries out the action of writing, instead of the action of *writing* itself. The nominalized structures as addressed in this study can also be classified accordingly.

Because of the verbs' low transitivity, the NP+*de*+VP structure tends to be self-designating, i.e. the nominalized structure refers to the event itself.

- (16) a. ta taopao le. → ta de taopao.
3SG escape ASP. → He NOM escape.
He escaped. → His escape.
- b. gangbi diushi le. → gangbi de diushi.
Pen lose ASP. → Pen NOM lose.
The pen was lost. → The loss of the pen.

In the examples above, the nominalized structures refer to the events themselves and, as a whole, they function as a nominal entirety syntactically.

Things are quite different with the NP+VP+*de* structures because the structures can be both self-designating and trans-designating. Lu's (2003) examples are quoted as follows.

- (17) a. mama mai de shi bai chengyi.
Mom buy NOM is white shirt.
What mom bought is a white shirt.
- b. yezi kuan de shi jiucai.
Leaf wide NOM is chives.
Those whose leaves are wide are chives.
- c. mama mai de qingjing
Mom buy NOM scene.
The scene of mom buying things.
- d. yezi kuan de shihou.
Leaf wide NOM time.
The time when the leaves are wide.

In (17)a and (17)b, the NP+VP+*de* structures are trans-designating, with *mama mai de* (mother buys) in (17)a referring to the thing that the mother actually purchased and *yezi kuan de* (leaves are wide) in (17)b designating the vegetable which features wide leaves. In these two examples, the nominalized structures refer to something related to them rather than themselves. Different from the two examples above, the two *de* structures in (17)c and (17)d refer to themselves, with (17)c designating the event of purchasing things and (17)d the vegetable with wide leaves.

Because of the verb-patient relation between the VP and NP in the VP+NP+*de* structure as analyzed in Section 4.1, the references of the structure are always the agents of the actions. For example:

- (18) a. kaiche de meiyou chifan.
Drive-car NOM not have-meal.
The driver has not had meal yet.
- b. fan le cuo de yinggai shoudao chengfa.
make ASP mistake NOM should receive punishment.
Those who made the mistake should be punished.
- c. shou guo jiaoyu de buhui shuo zhezhong hua.
Receive ASP education NOM not speak this-kind words.
People who were educated would not speak like that.

In (18)a, *kaiche de* (drive-car) trans-designates the people who drive cars, i.e. the drivers. *fan le cuo de* (made mistakes) in (18)b refers to the people who made mistakes and, in (18)c, the underlined *de* structure refers to a kind

people who are educated. All the three nominalized structures refer to the agents of the actions.

D. Discourse Distribution

NP+*de*+VP structure is usually used in formal styles and is rarely found in oral utterances (Zhang, 1993; Lu, 2003). The reasons of its distributions lie in three aspects. At the first place, the structure is usually the condensed form of a sentence and is conceptually treated as an entirety. Its high information density goes against the requirements of utterances and posts as a hurdle for oral communications. Secondly, the removal of tense markers, default past tense and the completion of state indicate high objectivity, which makes the structure be more appropriate in formal styles. Thirdly, the self-designation of the structures connotes high certainty, and this further increases its usage in formal genres.

However, the NP+VP+*de* structure and VP+NP+*de* structure are mostly used colloquially and in other informal situations, like opera, drama, etc. The main reason lies in the fact that the structures usually trans-designate related entities or people, thereby their successful understanding depends on necessary inference.

E. Negation

The issue of negation is mentioned in Section 4.1 when we are discussing the components of the structure. With close examination, it is found that all the structures have negative forms. The most commonly used negative words are *bu* (not) and *mei* (not).

- (19) a. Ta de bu peihe.
3SG NOM not cooperate.
His being not cooperative.
- b. Ta de bu lai.
3SG NOM not come.
His not coming.
- c. yezi bu kuan de shi jiucai.
Leaves not wide NOM is chives.
Those with narrow leaves are chives.
- d. mei hejiu de kaiche.
Not drive-wine NOM drive-car.
Those who didn't drink should drive the car.

mei (not) and *bu* (not) are negative adverbials for verbs and adjectives and, as examples show, they can occur in the nominal structures. The usage of *mei* (not), especially *bu* (not), further backs up the proposal that the NP+*de*+VP structure is an exocentric construction, with verbs in the structures being not nominalized at all.

V. METAPHOR AND METONYMY: TWO MOTIVATING FACTORS

The publication of the seminal work *Metaphors We Live By* by Lakoff & Johnson (1980) ushered in decades of heated researches on metaphor and metonymy in cognitive semantics. Although both are considered as processes of thought rather than merely language, metaphor receives far more significant attention than metonymy does. The situation begins to change with joint efforts by Croft (1993), Kövecses & Radden (1998), Panther & Radden (1999), Barcelona (2000), Ruiz de Mendoza & Pérez (2001), to name but just a few. A more balanced opinion of metaphor and metonymy's centrality in language and thought has been gradually accepted. As basic cognitive tools which people frequently employ to recognize and conceptualize the world, metaphor and metonymy have obvious consequences on linguistic expressions.

In this section we will address their crucial roles in trans-categorical conversions and, more specifically, their defining importance as motivating factors for our analysis of the NP+*de*+VP and related structures.

A. Metaphor and Self-designation

As opposed to the traditional understanding of metaphor ONLY as a rhetorical usage of language, Lakoff & Johnson (1980) argue that it is primarily a matter of cognition and concept, a tool that people use to talk and reason about the world. It is described as a conceptual mapping from a source domain (usually concrete and familiar) to a target domain (abstract and elusive). Its operation on the mental level is manifested by systematic linguistic expressions, among which, the self-designating NP+*de*+VP and NP+VP+*de* structures are but two instances of the metaphoric domain-to-domain mappings. The nominalization of the whole structure reveals the underlying metaphoric manipulation of comprehending the verbal event, together with its components, in its entirety.

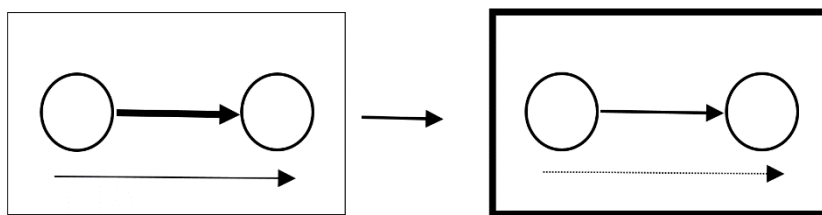


Figure 2: The Process of Nominalization

The two rectangles in Figure 2 show the nominalization process of self-designating structures. The rectangles stand for the ICM or frame of actions. The bold arrow in the left rectangle linking the two circles stands for the action, which is a dependent concept in that it cannot be conceptualized without reliance to the participants which are symbolized by the circles. The arrow is thickened for the purpose of emphasizing that verbs consist of the change and transfer of energy between entities. The arrow under the circles stands for time since all events reside in time and are temporally bounded. Verbs profile relationship with the flow of time.

With the nominalization of the events as symbolized by the short arrow between the two rectangles, emphasis is moved from the action to the whole frame or event in the right rectangle. The arrow which stands for time also becomes dotted because of the detemporalization in the nominalization process. The thickened rectangle, as a whole, metaphorically stands for an entity and consequently gains its nominal functions, thereby it may act as a constituent in another event and be symbolized as a circle. The metaphorical mapping from the domain of relationship to that of entity underlies the nominalization process of the self-designating structures⁷.

B. Metonymy and Trans-designation

Metonymy has been defined as the conceptual mapping (or a “stands for” relationship) within a single domain⁸, or a reference point relationship in which the entity first perceived or sensed provides mental connection with another related entity (Langacker, 1993), or a “conceptual mapping where the target domain is either the result of an expansion or of a reduction of the conceptual material in the source domain” within a superordinate domain (cf. Ruiz de Mendoza, 2000; Dirven, 2005; Geeraerts & Peirsman, 2011, etc.). It is true that the definitions of metonymy differ from each other, but it is quite safe to conclude that metonymy could be simply defined as a domain-internal operation where the source offers mental access to the target.

Different from metaphor, metonymy provides highlight to an implicit but relevant part or entirety of the expression, which is also the conceptual basis for the subdivision of the source-in-target metonymies and target-in-source metonymies by Reiz de Mendoza & Otal (2002). The trans-designating NP+VP+*de* and NP+VP+*de* structures fall in the category of target-in-source metonymies as shown by Figure 3, where a nominalized structure refers to an implicit but indispensable part in the ICM of relation.

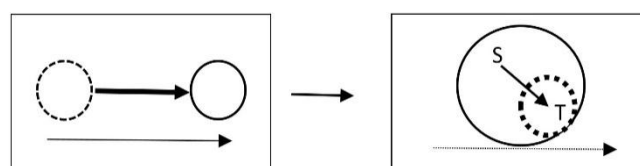


Figure 3: Target-in-source Metonymy

Different from the frequently used examples like *She's learning to tie her shoes* where “shoes” stands for “shoelaces”, the source of the trans-designating *de* structure metonymy is the *event* or *relation* as termed by Langacker (2008). In Figure 3, the left rectangle stands for the event or action in its normal state. The circles symbolize the participants while the arrow in-between is the action. The frame includes the interaction of entities, the transfer of energy and is temporarily located. In the trans-designating nominalization frame as shown by the rectangle on the right side, *S* stands for the whole event except the target *T*, which is an implicit but necessary component in the relation, e.g. agent, patient,

⁷ In line with Ruiz de Mendoza & Otal's (2002) study, the nominalization of the self-designating structures could also be accounted by Halliday's (1994) theory of *grammatical metaphor*, which refers to the non-congruent uses of linguistic forms, where, for instance, the processes which are congruently expressed by verbs and the properties which are congruently expressed by adjectives are linguistically and, most importantly, non-congruently realized with nouns. Mendoza & Otal (2002) noticed the syntactic consequences of grammatical metaphors. In line with their postulation, the nominalization of the structures, which are self-designating, from relationships (cf. Langacker, 2008) to nominal entireties are grammatical metaphors. Therefore, it is safe to claim that the underlying metaphorical manipulation is the motivating factor for conceptualizing events or properties in their entirety, i.e. as entities.

⁸ Domain is used in a similar sense to that of frame (cf. Taylor, 1995) and realm of experience (cf. Langacker, 2008).

instrument, which is represented by the thickened and dotted circle. The arrow going from *S* to *T* symbolizes the metonymic mapping or the route of mental access to the target. These practices are so common in our daily lives that people can hardly be aware of them. For example, both of the following instances of the VP+NP+*de* structure refer to the agents of the actions.

- (21) a. chuan bai dagua de
wear big gown NOM
doctor
b. kai che de
drive car NOM
driver

Our examples in (17) and (18) provide more instances where the nominalized structures provide mental access to the missing or implicit part of the actions or events.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present study explores the ways in which cognitive linguistics, especially the conceptual metaphor and metonymy theories, can be used effectively to deal with the analysis of the NP+*de*+VP structure and related structures in a systematic and unified way. Central to our analysis are the assumptions that the NP and VP in the structure have a subject-predicate relation and the particle *de* is a nominalizing infix. We have shown that the NP+*de*+VP structure, with the particle *de* functioning as a nominalizing infix, is an exocentric construction whose constituents keep their original part of speech.

The structures are cognitively motivated. The differences in the way of designation among similar structures are manifestations of different cognitive mechanisms. The self-designating NP+*de*+VP and NP+VP+*de* structures are results of metaphoric domain-to-domain mappings, while trans-designating NP+VP+*de* and NP+VP+*de* structures are instantiations of target-in-source metonymy.

Ultimately, the new proposals are validated by empirical means and proved to be more promising in accounting for all the above-mentioned structures in a systemic and unified way. The significance of the present study lies in the possibility of ending the long-debated conflicts between the overall nominal functions of the structures and their constituents' part of speech and, by doing so, sheds light on cognitive studies on Chinese grammar and Chinese language instruction.

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Investigation into Improvement of Teacher Autonomy and Student Autonomy through Collaborative Action Research^{*}

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Abstract—Teacher autonomy and student autonomy are interrelated and can't be divided. Collaborative action research can improve EFL teachers' professional development; renew their conception about the collaboration and change their fixed conception about teaching and learning.

Index Terms—collaborative action research, teacher autonomy, student autonomy

I. COLLABORATIVE ACTION RESEARCH

Kemmis & McTaggart(1990) put forward that combination of action and research showed the basic characteristics of action research, which meant people could verify their ideas in practice in order to increase teaching knowledge and improve themselves and people could improve classroom teaching and have a better understanding of teaching philosophy. Mckernan(1998) believed that action research was the self-reflection inquiry to use the scientific methods to solve course problems and participants were the masters of this critical reflective inquiry process and reflective inquiry outcome. Action research itself is not a theoretical system, but a method to study and solve problems. It should be a tool for practitioners to study and solve problems. If language teachers want to become the active participants and central actors in curriculum implementation and development and want to truly master a set of skills in curriculum design, curriculum monitoring and curriculum evaluation, the first prerequisite is to learn to reflect on their professional activities, and on this issue, action research is indispensable. Action research can turn teachers into researchers and EFL teachers can use it to combine theory with practice. Doing action research should be based on specific situation and specific context and should attach importance to cooperative observation and research activities. It means participating in teaching practice activities and carrying out self-assessment on teaching practice activities. The basic procedures for selecting and developing action research subjects are the following: research objectives; research subjects; research focus; research results; research methods; time arrangement; research sources of information and fine-tuning. The following methods can be used in teacher action research: written reports, observation, interview, questionnaires, case study and evaluation, etc.

II. TEACHER AUTONOMY AND STUDENT AUTONOMY

Teacher autonomy means that teachers have the ability to teach independently, or have the ability, freedom or responsibility to choose the teaching issues related to themselves. Little (1995) believes that teacher autonomy is a kind of ability to conduct independent professional teaching behavior. Teachers have a strong sense of personal responsibility for teaching practice through reflection and analysis, and control the teaching process emotionally and cognitively. Tort-moloney (1997) holds that teacher autonomy is a kind of ability for independent professional development and Anderson(1987) believes that teacher autonomy is a kind of ability to get rid of the constraints on professional behavior and professional development. Student autonomy means that students should be aware of their own responsibility for their learning, and implement this responsibility in all aspects of the learning process through participation, planning, evaluation, etc. An autonomous learner is a successful learner, and theoretically learner autonomy can be developed in any plan organized. Teacher autonomy and student autonomy are interrelated and interdependent, just like two sides of the same coin. For students, teachers are no longer the authoritative ones, but the helpers, consultants and managers of learning resources. Student autonomy depends on teacher autonomy, and when students develop the autonomous studying ability, teaching has become the research and research has become the teaching. The teachers themselves turn into earners, and also are working on autonomous learning. Teachers feel to be given more rights to manage and control their teaching behavior and teachers also get self-development.

La Ganza (2009) put forward the Dynamic Interrelation Space Theory (DIS Theory) between teacher autonomy and student autonomy in 2009. Dynamic Interrelation Space Theory includes teacher dynamic development mode, which

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contains T+ and T- development modes, and student dynamic development mode, which contains L+ and L- development modes. T+ means the stage in which the teacher seeks to influence students' learning and learning experiences in an active way, while T- means the cognitive and emotional stage in which the teacher influences students' learning and learning experiences in a negative or passive way. L+ refers to the stage in which learners actively seek and hope for the teacher's influence and help on their learning and learning experiences. L- represents the stage of cognitive emotion in which learners refuse to seek and obtain the teacher's influence on their learning and learning experiences. This continuous interaction constitutes a dynamic system and produces four dynamic patterns: Q1: T+L+; Q2: T - L +; Q3: T - L -; Q4: T + L -. Q1 model shows that the teacher influences learners' learning and learning experiences in a positive and active way, while students actively accept the teacher's help and influence. Q2 model shows that teacher helps learners in a passive way, while learners want to get the teacher's help and guidance. Q3 mode indicates that teacher gives learners the passive help, while learners want to complete their study independently and have more rights of autonomy. Q4 mode indicates that teacher wants to help students actively, while students want to finish their study independently. DIS Theory indicates that this interactive mode of autonomous learning will be more likely to produce between the student and a certain teacher, and will not be likely to produce between the student and the other teachers. Only when the teacher and the student actively interact with each other, the teacher's teaching and student's learning can become meaningful and teacher's independent teaching and student's autonomous learning can be achieved. In fact, learner autonomy includes two aspects: one is the autonomy gained by the students who have the helpful and beneficial interaction with the teacher, and the other is the autonomy gained by the students after completing their own learning independently.

III. RESEARCH PROCEDURES AND RESEARCH METHODS

A. Research Purpose

1. How does cooperative action research affect the professional development and competence of in-service teachers?
2. How does cooperative action research affect the teaching concept and teaching ability of student teachers?

B. Objects of Research

The objects of this research are five EFL in-service teachers and five student teachers who are from Sichuan University of Arts and Sciences in Sichuan province in China. Among five in-service teachers there are three females and two males. Five in-service teachers have taught English for more than ten years and have got master degrees of English major. Among them two teachers teach English listening course and two teachers teach spoken English course and one teacher teaches English writing course. Five in-service teachers are classified as in-service teacher A, in-service teacher B, in-service teacher C, in-service teacher D and in-service teacher E. Five student teachers are senior undergraduate students of English major from Sichuan University of Arts and Sciences and they intern in the same middle school. These five student teachers volunteer for the research and participate in the cooperative classroom action research with five in-service teachers and they are classified as student teacher F, student teacher G, student teacher H, student teacher I and student teacher J.

C. Research Methods

The cooperative action research lasted one semester. In the first week of the semester, five in-service teachers would learn about action research theory and research methods and shared the information with five student teachers. Then they discussed the steps of doing research together, which included problem-finding, data collection, data analysis and tools for data collection, etc. One in-service teacher and one student teacher formed a research group on a voluntary basis. In-service teachers would share the research tasks with student teachers, and in-service teachers would undertake the research tasks of data analysis. They discussed their roles and responsibilities in the action research in a cooperative way. They initially decided that in-service teachers should find the research topics, and then designed the research plans together with the student teachers. The student teachers were responsible for collecting data and preparing for research reports. After careful discussion, five research groups identified the following classroom research topics: Research Group 1 (in-service teacher A and student teacher F): How to increase students' interest in English writing class? Research Group 2 (in-service teacher B and student teacher G): How to increase the chances of oral English communication in and out of class? Research Group 3 (in-service teacher C and student teacher H) : How to use English drama to help English learners learn English? Research Group 4 (in-service teacher D and student teacher I) : How to make full use of students' anxiety in English listening class? Study Group 5 (in-service teacher E and student teacher J) : How does motivation affect students' learning for English?

Research data collection mainly comes from two aspects, one is the interviews with the in-service teachers, the other is the research diaries written by the student teachers. Since the in-service teachers were willing to share their feelings, the author and the in-service teachers met in groups or individuals every two weeks to get to know the progress of cooperative action research through interviews, discussion or emails. Student teachers were required to keep the detailed records of the whole process of conducting cooperative action research with in-service teachers. They should write at least one research journal every week, in which they should elaborate on their thoughts and feelings about

participating in classroom action research and how they cooperated with in-service teachers. The author made a detailed record of each meeting.

IV. RESEARCH RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

A. Action Research Promotes the Professional Self-development of In-service Teachers and Student Teachers

Teachers' self-monitoring ability is regarded as one of the ways in which teachers can develop and strengthen their teaching practice, and it plays an important role in the process of self-leadership in their teaching. In-service teachers generally believe that teachers' self-monitoring ability improves during the study of cooperative action research. For example, in-service teacher A said: "In order to adjust the content of the class, I must maintain the sensitivity to students' reaction and answer. In my spoken English class, it's almost impossible to carry out teaching in accordance with the original teaching plan, because I must increase, cut and adjust my teaching content according to students' reaction and answer in the class. After discussing with student teacher F, we changed some of the original material contents and made it more suitable for students' current learning level." In-service teacher E said: "Now I look for appropriate classroom teaching activities every day. I can find problems, collect relevant information, find solutions and practice them again. I feel teaching is much more interesting than before".

Teachers' professional development is a continuous process of learning, discovering and using their own potentials in their teaching behaviors. This process requires teachers to find good teaching methods based on their own teaching experiences, teaching concepts and understanding of the classroom. In-service teachers generally believe that their professional abilities have been developed and improved by changing their usual teaching practices and taking risks to do different things or trying new ideas and teaching methods. In-service teacher B said: "When I discussed with the student teacher G about using drama to enhance students' interest and improve their English levels, I was not completely sure about the teaching result, because time was limited, but the teaching result was beyond my expectation. The students were very active in participating, and the original play was adapted quite well by them. Students' performance was very good in two hours of performing. Some students who were quite shy in the class could actively participate in it boldly and classroom atmosphere was very warm. The teaching skill that teachers will learn about is to depend on their immediate performance in the class according to the students' responses, and students in the English drama performance made good use of this chance given by the teacher and the effect was quite good."

The research reports of the student teachers also reveal that participating in the research has enriched their knowledge and ability. The reports of three student teachers all showed that participating in the research had improved their current knowledge levels. Student teacher F said: "In the process of teaching, I read many articles about writing, and it gave me a chance to focus on a certain research topic. Writing a research report also had greatly improved my writing skills and level in English and I could use the writing skills learned in class. I also understood many difficulties the teachers were facing. If students and teachers can communicate with one another so often, it can improve the bilateral activities of teaching and learning". Almost all the student teachers have showed that the knowledge gained from participating in the action research will be of great help to their future teaching careers. Student teacher H said: "I had thought that doing research was a very complicated thing, as a student I couldn't do it, but the fact had proved that this was not what I used to think. The cooperative action research with my teacher has helped me complete my graduation thesis better and let me have confidence for the future career. I like studying with the teachers because we are ready to help one another".

B. Cooperative Action Research Promotes the Cooperative Development of In-service Teachers and Student Teachers

Usually the professional isolation exists among college teachers. When teachers do the research, it is easy to be limited in the reflection of their own teaching processes and teachers cannot see the reflection or research results of others. Professional isolation is a major obstacle to teachers' professional development, and there is little cooperation and communication between foreign language teachers. The relative isolation of foreign language teachers from professional literature also affects their sustainable professional development to some extent. Teachers' development involves understanding their own teaching, analyzing teaching behaviors, concepts and principles, and sharing teaching experiences and results with colleagues, i.e. participating in cooperation. In-service teachers and student teachers involved in the cooperative action research have affirmed the value of this cooperation. In-service teachers E said: "When I just worked with student teacher J, he looked a bit stiff. When it came to the difficulties of middle school students' English writing, he mentioned a lot of worry and anxiety in his English writing training and he expectations of the students for English writing teachers. I was shocked because I had always followed the writing textbook step-by-step, and he played a very important role in helping me collect data and feedback information from students, because in a way, the data he collected was more authentic and credible than what I got". In-service teacher D said: "It is quite difficult for college teachers to write articles for getting higher professional titles. However, in this study, I found many research topics and many materials to do research through cooperation with the student teacher I, which made me think it was not so difficult to write articles". In-service teacher C said: "Without the help of the student teacher H, I could not find a proper questionnaire for my research topic. She helped me find a lot of relevant research materials, which saved me a lot of time".

Student teacher F said "As a student teacher to intern in the middle school, teaching English writing is a very difficult thing. In the process of helping in-service teacher A collect survey data about interest for English writing class, I knew a

lot of students' concerns, worries and demands about English writing class. We recorded these data, studied the problems and made corresponding solutions. According to the current English level of the students in the class, we discussed and determined the teaching objectives to be achieved in the writing course of this semester. After studying the writing materials involved, we found two English writing methods, namely English Process Writing Method and Long Writing Method. We worked out the teaching steps together in detail, and then I began to try to use these two teaching methods in my class, and made some small adjustments according to the actual English level of the class. The cooperative teaching with in-service teacher A makes me have different understanding for teaching. I can ask him for advice about the new problem I met in teaching at any time. I feel more confident in my teaching." Student teacher I said "The cooperative research topic between in-service teacher D and me is about the students' anxiety in English listening class. I always felt very nervous during the English listening class because I was always afraid that I couldn't understand what I had heard and couldn't answer the teacher's question. In-service teacher D told me that anxiety was not always a negative factor. For example, the facilitative anxiety would encourage people to enhance competitiveness and strive to achieve the goal, which was a positive and reasonable psychological factor. Therefore how to promote the facilitative anxiety and reduce the debilitating anxiety is my research focus and I want to try to change the debilitating anxiety into the facilitative anxiety. I want to have a good cultivation of the facilitative anxiety in my class and apply it in my class. Before the cooperation with in-service teacher D, I have been embarrassed to tell the others I have anxiety for English listening. After communicating with him, I feel relaxed a lot and the psychological burden is also reduced a lot. I think that cooperation between teachers and students is beneficial for students. If I can have the opportunity to communicate with teachers earlier, I think my listening ability will be improved more."

C. Cooperative Action Research Promotes In-service Teachers' and Student Teachers' Autonomous Development

Most of in-service teachers have taught English for many years and usually have the fixed views on the teaching process and tend to choose the relatively safe and eclectic ways of teaching instead of innovating. During the process of the cooperative action research, after reading a lot of relevant articles, in-service teachers have more understanding of the process for foreign language teaching than before and at the same time they begin to use this understanding to improve classroom teaching quality. Doing research for the teaching becomes a kind of tool to get the professional development and teachers have also increased the confidence to change the teaching modes, which promotes not only the quality of classroom teaching but the personal quality. Working with students has also changed teachers' inherent views on students. In-service teachers generally believe that doing research can help them better understand and respect students and accept their differences. In-service teacher C said: "The research enables me to understand the needs of students, and I will adjust the actual use of classroom teaching materials according to the needs, such as adding, supplementing and deleting some chapters and contents, so that I can have a flexible control over the disposal of teaching materials, instead of relying heavily on teaching materials as before. The teaching methods are more diversified than before because of the communication with students, which can provide students with more materials to meet their needs than before. Giving students the opportunities to express their needs can promote students' autonomy in learning." In-service teachers A said: "The more I know about the students, the more I can be involved in the students' world. When the interaction between teachers and students has increased, the teaching has become much easier than before, for example, I will explain the difficult part of classroom teaching contents in detail and arrange students the simple learning tasks to do after class. I will be mainly responsible for answering questions, supervising them and checking them, so that teachers will not be trapped in heavy teaching tasks all day long and students will have more independent rights to study and develop their own learning ability."

Student teacher J said: "In this term I have learned a lot from the cooperation with in-service teacher E. Our research topic is how the motivation affects students' learning. I used to think the learning motivation was the learning interest, but when I collected information about the learning motivation in the class I was teaching, I learned about a lot of different learning motivations. I tried to connect the students' English levels with their actual learning motivations and tried to analyze the deep reasons that led to these learning motivations because I wanted to find some kind of the learning law about it. Although at the end of the semester I didn't find the clear answers, I was surprised to find that I began to slowly reflect on my previous learning experience and began to learn how to collect research data and find problems and try to solve these problems." Student teacher G said: "Our research topic is how to increase the chances of oral English communication in and out of class. In China, English learned by students is often called "mute English" because they are unwilling or unable to speak English. After discussing with in-service teacher B, I made a simple survey in the class where I practiced. First I wanted to find the reasons why the students were unwilling to speak English, and then tried to put forward some solutions. In-service teacher B suggested that I should improve the students' interest in speaking English, so I applied to the school to have two English lessons in the school lab every two weeks, and I launched a "Chinese Good Stories" oral English contest among the senior students of the middle school based on the students' enthusiasm for the Internet. Scores of English final exams would include the results of this oral contest and every class for senior grade would choose one student to become the student judge. Surprisingly the students all took part in the contest actively and many students began to speak English in the class. I think the discussion and negotiation with in-service teacher B is of great help to me, a novice teacher. I love such collaboration because it helps me understand and discover the core of the problem to be solved."

V. CONCLUSION

The research shows that participating in cooperative action research is beneficial to the professional development of in-service teachers, because the research broadens their horizons and makes them realize the value of cooperation and encourages them to try new teaching practices. During the cooperation, student teachers can have the opportunities to learn from their teachers and master the basic skills and methods of doing classroom research, and can share the teaching experiences with in-service teachers. They can learn how to collect data and analyze them with theory and practice. Participation in cooperative action research enables in-service teachers and student teachers to become active designers of teaching and research and they can benefit from it.

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Effects of Annotation Types Used at Different Point of Time during Reading on Vocabulary Learning*

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Abstract—The study aims to investigate the effectiveness of two annotation types (text-only and text-picture) as well as the timing in annotation use during reading (pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading) on vocabulary learning of English major freshmen. Based on the analysis of the data collected from posttests and questionnaire, the following findings are obtained: 1) among three points of time in annotation use, the pre-reading annotation use results in the best vocabulary production and recognition, closely followed by the post-reading annotation use and then the while-reading annotation use; 2) when comparing the two annotation types, the text-picture annotations were more effective than the text-only annotations on improving vocabulary production and recognition; 3) there was no interaction between annotation types and points of time in annotation use. The findings indicate that the right use of annotations during reading will substantially promote vocabulary learning. They also shed some light on the research on annotation and vocabulary learning and provide implications on vocabulary instruction and teaching materials design.

Index Terms—timing in annotation use, annotation types, vocabulary learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary learning is a challenge that language learners at all levels have to face. Among recent second language vocabulary research, the distinction between incidental and intentional vocabulary learning has become one of the most influential debates (Nation, 2001; Hulstijn, 2001; Chen, 2013). Learning task, attention and context of learning have been thought to attribute to this set of distinction (Read, 2004). Studies have argued that both incidental and intentional vocabulary learning contribute to the vocabulary learning (Wesche and Paribakht, 1999; Nation, 2001; Hulstijn, 2001). Research arguing for the incidental vocabulary learning suggests that vocabulary learning occurs, in most cases, accidentally during reading or listening, but this kind of vocabulary learning is slow and incremental (Oxford, 1990, 2001). Reading is one of the main ways introduce new words to learners incidentally. Research investigating the effects of reading on vocabulary learning reveals that second language learners may incidentally gain certain degree of vocabulary knowledge in reading process (Rott, 1999, 2000).

Second language incidental vocabulary learning research in China is still at the initial stage, and the content is mostly the introduction of overseas research (Yue, 2008). The studies on second language incidental vocabulary learning and reading comprehension usually focused on the effects of different post-reading tasks, text difficulty, word exposure frequency and different glossing types (Duan and Yan, 2004, Lee et al, 2015, 2016). The number of studies in this field is small, and further research is badly needed.

Annotation has been considered as an assistant in second language reading material to facilitate reading comprehension with vocabulary learning being acquired incidentally (Watanabe, 1997; Ko, 1995; Laufer and Shmueli, 1997). As an instruction intervention which enhances the texts, annotation increases the exposure frequency of new words and draws learner's attention to the form and meaning of new words during reading. It is thought that by this way, both vocabulary learning and overall reading comprehension are enhanced. Research comparing the conditions with and without annotations has confirmed that annotations enhance incidental vocabulary learning (Hulstijn, et al., 1996; Hulstijn, 1992; Watanabe, 1997). The use of annotation supports the interactionist view of second language acquisition and depth of processing hypothesis (Hulstijn, 1992). Great attention has been focused on the comparison between annotation forms, language and types. (Watanabe, 1997; Ko, 1995; Laufer and Shmueli, 1997; Duan and Yan, 2004; Joyce, 1997; Yoshii, 2000, 2006; Chen, 2013). Most of the studies abroad come to mix findings. However, there is a big gap of the research statues between abroad and at home. Little research has been conducted to comparing the effectiveness of text-only and text-picture annotations in China (Wu and Xu, 2009). Moreover, few researchers have paid much attention on the points of time in annotation use related to the reading process.

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The present study attempts to gain further insight into the effectiveness of different annotation types in enhancing incidental vocabulary learning, in the mean time, explore the effects of different points of time in annotation use on incidental vocabulary learning and reading comprehension of first-year English major students.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Vocabulary Learning and Its Relation with Reading*

Research concerning vocabulary learning has received great recognition in the field of Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Learning (FLL) since 1990s, as researchers have argued for and proved the importance of vocabulary in SLA and FLL. Based on the relationship between vocabulary learning and other learning process, such as grammar learning, reading, listening and speaking, it has been proved that limited vocabulary knowledge will prevent language learners from developing reading ability and communicating effectively in target language and thus close the door to further learning (Richard, 1976; Nation, 2001; Schmidt, 2000). Researchers have pointed out that vocabulary knowledge is multi-faceted. There are two influential distinctions of vocabulary knowledge: size and depth, (Nation, 2001; Read, 2000), receptive knowledge and productive knowledge (Nation, 2001; Webb, 2005; Chen et al, 2019; Zhou, 2010). The research concerning vocabulary learning proves that the vocabulary size and depth are indicators of vocabulary knowledge and the test forms which could cover the assessment of both size and depth of vocabulary are conclusive (Nation, 2001).

The discussion regarding the distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge, the two types of vocabulary knowledge are widely estimated but not well defined (Melka, 1997). The controversial issue comes from the criteria for knowing a word receptively or productively. The distinction between receptive and productive knowledge displays in two aspects. One is the quality of the knowledge in mental lexicon, and the other is the ability that learners produce the knowledge. Thus, it is said that the receptive and productive dimensions are identified as “a bridging dimension between lexical competence and performance” (Zareva et al., 2005). Meanwhile, it is generally believed that words are known receptively first and then productively and vocabulary knowledge should be regarded as a continuum on which a word grows from receptive to productive status. Moreover, although the transfer from receptive to productive knowledge is not very clear, it is generally thought that receptive vocabulary knowledge is larger than productive vocabulary knowledge (Zhou, 2010). However, the concept of continuum does not necessarily mean that receptive knowledge predicts its production (Henriksen, 1999). For example, Henriksen (1999) suggests that only a limited number of words that are learnt receptively will ever become productive. Moreover, the concept of continuum also does not mean that vocabulary development is always linear. For example, Waring (1997) suggests that the linear view presupposes that one’s vocabulary must be complete before any aspect of production can proceed, which means it is impossible for learners to use a word if they do not understand all aspects of its meaning. Therefore, receptive knowledge and productive knowledge are interrelated, which can be seen as a continuum, but they are also independent, which do not have a linear relation. It is better to consider the receptive and productive knowledge both respectively and correlatively. Based on this consideration, this study tests the receptive and productive knowledge respectively and discusses the results from the prospects of each and both vocabulary knowledge.

With the recognition of the distinctions on vocabulary knowledge, there is a need to further these distinctions to the discussion of vocabulary learning which turns the conceptual distinctions to the practical ones. The well-recognized distinction in researches of vocabulary learning is intentional and incidental vocabulary learning (Nation, 2001). This study refines the definitions of intentional and incidental vocabulary learning in Chen’s (2013) study. Therefore, in this study, intentional vocabulary learning refers to the situation in which learners are informed the requirement on vocabulary learning before performing the task, while incidental vocabulary learning refers to the situation in which learners are NOT informed the requirement on vocabulary learning before performing the task.

Many studies connect vocabulary learning with reading (Nation, 2001; Shu, Anderson and Zhang, 1995; Pulido, 2004). Even though most of the researchers support that the vocabulary learning while reading is incidental, still others argue that some level of attention and cognitive process are needed for the “incidental” vocabulary learning to happen (Angelika Rieder, 2003; Zhao and Yang, 2010). The given attention which would directly affect the learning outcomes is determined by the context for the target vocabulary, attention types and task requirements. In other words, even though vocabulary learning is considered to be incidental, the task requirements, to large extent, determine the allocation of learner’s attention which will certainly affect the vocabulary learning outcomes. Thus many factors, such as the meaning and form of the word, context, type of attention and task requirements, should be carefully considered when designing an experiment or research.

Although reading has certain influence on vocabulary learning, negative evidences from several studies showing that incidental vocabulary learning through reading may lead to some problems (Grabe, 1997). Firstly, unknown words are ignored by learners because they confuse the unknown words with the words previous known or simple unawareness of the unknown words (Paribakht and Watanabe, 1999). Secondly, unknown words are ignored due to learners’ decision or unimportance of the unknown words to the understanding of the overall reading content. Thirdly, the meanings of unknown words are not inferable from the context due to the lack of vocabulary knowledge of surrounding words or contextual clues. Fourthly, wrong inferences of unknown words are made because it’s difficult to understand their

structure or meaning or when the contextual cues are insufficient. Fifthly, a single encounter of words can not guarantee vocabulary acquisition (Hulstijn et al. 1996).

With the disadvantages of incidental vocabulary learning mentioned above in mind, researchers suggest several ways to overcome those disadvantages and promote incidental vocabulary learning, including the use of dictionary, context-based vocabulary exercise, repetition, and annotation or gloss.

Studies on using dictionary while reading prove that the dictionary use will enhance the rate of vocabulary learning (Grabe and Stoller, 1997, 2001). However, there's unavoidable problem that look-up behavior in dictionary use certainly interrupt the reading process and devalue the effect of meaningful context. The introducing of context-based vocabulary exercises is frequently discussed by researchers and proved to be effective (Wesche and Paribakht, 2000). Discussion on the optimal number of exposures for retaining a word arrives no conclusive answer (Webb, 2007).

To facilitate incidental vocabulary learning, annotation and gloss were also employed. Nation (1990, 2001; Lee et al, 2015, 2016) argues for the beneficial effect of vocabulary annotation on both vocabulary learning and reading comprehension. He states that: first, annotation can provide knowledge of unknown words which in turn facilitate reading comprehension; second, annotation can prevent incorrect guessing; third, annotation can minimize reading interruption; fourth, annotation can promote individualized learning; fifth, annotation can draw attention to unknown words which in turn enhance vocabulary learning. He proposes that learners should be encouraged to use annotations or glosses to confirm their guessing of unknown words. Many studies also confirm the positive effects of annotation use on incidental vocabulary learning (Hulstijn, 1992; Watanabe, 1997; Ko, 1995; Laufer and Shmueli, 1997). Detailed review on annotation use will be provided in the following part.

B. Annotation and Its Relation with Vocabulary Learning

Previously mentioned, annotation is an effective way to enhance vocabulary learning (Hulstijn, 1992; Watanabe, 1997; Ko, 1995; Laufer and Shmueli, 1997).

Empirical studies concerning different forms of annotations have been conducted, such as comparing the single annotation with multiple-choice annotations (Hulstijn, 1992; Watanabe, 1997; Miyasako, 2002; Duan and Yan, 2004). No conclusive result is reached on the comparison of the effectiveness of multiple-choice gloss and single gloss on vocabulary learning. However, differing from the studies abroad, unified conclusion is drawn that favor multiple-choice gloss over single gloss at home. As Hulstijn (1992) has concluded that multiple-choice glossing owns unavoidable disadvantage of causing high rate of incorrect inference, the present study will not adopt the method of multiple-choice glossing.

Besides the studies on forms of annotations, there are other studies focusing on language of annotations. These studies mainly concentrate on comparing annotation of L1 and L2 (Jacob et al., 1994; Ko, 1995; Laufer and Shmueli, 1997; Miyasako, 2002; Xu, 2010). A relatively conclusive result can be drawn which favors L1 gloss over L2 gloss both abroad and at home. Therefore, the present study will use L1 glossing so as to make good use of the positive effect of annotation.

Empirical studies comparing text-picture annotations and text-only annotations have been conducted with relatively conclusive result, that is, text-picture annotations lead to better results on vocabulary learning than text annotations (Boers, et al., 2017; Yoshii and Flaitz, 2002; Yoshii, 2006; Wu and Xu, 2009). However, when testing the receptive and productive aspects of vocabulary increase caused by annotations, Yoshii's (2006) study casts some doubt on the superior effect of text-picture annotations over text annotations. Yoshii's (2006) study compares the effectiveness of text-picture glosses and text-only glosses on incidental vocabulary learning. Japanese university students participate in the study. The results show that the significant superior effect of text-picture glosses over text-only glosses only exists in the increase on productive vocabulary knowledge but not on receptive vocabulary knowledge. Yoshii (2006) explains that the inconsistency results between receptive and productive aspects is due to the nature of the posttests as definition-supply test relies on both textual and pictorial cues while options in recognition test are mostly associated with textual cues. Therefore, to fill the gap of the studies comparing text-picture annotation and text-only annotation in China, and clarify the doubt casted by Yoshii's (2006) study, the present study is conducted.

In summary, it's confirmed that annotation helps incidental vocabulary learning. They prove the effectiveness of L1 annotation, multiple-choice annotation, and text-picture annotation over other annotation types. However, few studies consider the comparison among the different points of time in annotation use related to the reading process. Therefore, in this study, the comparison among the different points of time in annotation use related to the reading process is conducted, and vocabulary learning under such conditions addressed. This study chooses English-major freshmen as its subjects. The goal of the study is to try to find a best way to enhance vocabulary learning with least compromises on reading comprehension.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Research Questions

To test the effectiveness of annotation, multiple-choice annotation, and text-picture annotation over other annotation types and the points of time in annotation use on vocabulary learning, the following specific research questions are addressed in this study:

1. Which point of time in annotation use during reading (pre-reading, while-reading, or post-reading) results in best vocabulary production and recognition?
2. Which type of annotation (text-only or text-picture) result in better vocabulary production and recognition?
3. Is there any interaction effect between annotation types and points of time in annotation use on vocabulary learning? If any, what is it like?

B. Participants

The participants are 105 English major freshmen from a certain university in China. Their average age is 18 years old. They are all Chinese and have been learning English since their primary school years, with no exposure to the target language abroad before.

The participants volunteer to participate the experiment and are assigned into three groups, namely pre-reading annotation use group (PreA), while-reading annotation use group (WA), and post-reading annotation group (PostA). Three groups receive the experiment treatment at the same time conducted by the researcher and other two teachers. The homogeneity among groups is tested based on the total scores of their placement English examination in the university and the scores of reading section in the exam, age, and years of learning English.

C. Research Materials

Research materials used in the present study include training material, reading material, target words, questionnaires and assessment material.

The training materials are meant for letting participants get familiar with annotation use and test format. The reading part and word list of the English textbook which subjects commonly use are used as training material for annotation use. Unit Two in *An Integrated English Course 3*, which includes 14 short paragraphs, 714 words, are chosen as the reading material for training. 14 known words are annotated, half of which (7 words) with only L1 definitions and the other half of which (7 words) with both L1 definitions and corresponding pictures. Two experienced teachers are consulted on the choice of target words for the training material.

As for the reading material used in this study, the regular teaching material *An Integrated English Course 3* is used as reference for choosing reading material on content, length, sentence complexity and readability. Sentence complexity is calculated based on the average number of words in every sentence. The readability is measured by the Flesch-Kincaid Readability Test, which contains two subtests --- Flesch Reading Ease test and Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level. The following table gives the data of reference material and designed material.

TABLE 1
RESEARCH MATERIALS DESCRIPTION

	Length	Sentence complexity	Readability	
			Flesch Reading Ease test	Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level
Reference material	714 words	17 words/sentence	85.3	5.1
Designed material	700 words	16 words/sentence	85.9	4.8

The subjective ideas toward the designed reading material with respect to its length, difficulty and understandability were collected by a questionnaire conducted by 15 students who do not participate in the experiment and who are of the same level with experiment participants. The results support the objective results given above.

14 words were chosen as target words. According to Nation (2001), the proportion of unknown words should be between 3% and 5% for best effects of annotation and reading comprehension. 14 target words constitute 4.4% of the total words of the reading material, which is of appropriate proportion that satisfies both reading comprehension and annotation effect initiation. Target words' categories are limited to noun and verb with 10 nouns and 4 verbs. They are selected from word lists required by TEM 4 (Test for English Majors Level 4). The 15 students who give their subjective ideas toward reading material were also required to pick out unknown words in the reading material. The 14 target words chosen were the most frequently picked out words by these students. The rest of low frequently picked out unknown words were replaced by easier synonyms from the English wordlist for English-major freshmen students. Half of the target words (7 words) are annotated with text only, in which 5 words are nouns and 2 words are verbs, and the other half of the target words (7 words) are annotated with text and picture, in which there are also 5 nouns and 2 verbs. The target words are bolded in the reading material.

Three questionnaires are included in this study. The first questionnaire is for collecting subjective ideas of students in validating reading material and target words. It consisted of 5 open-ended questions for personal information including student's ID number, gender, age, the number of years learning English, and the placement English test score, and 2 five-point Likert's scale questions and 1 open-ended question for material design related information. The second questionnaire is for collecting subjects' demographic information and their usual ways of vocabulary learning. 5 open-ended questions are given for collecting personal information including student's ID number, gender, age, the number of years learning English, and the placement English test score, and 2 multiple-choice questions are for vocabulary learning tendency information. The third one is for collecting subjects' opinions and attitudes toward the

experiment. 5 close-ended questions address the annotation modes and 4 close-ended questions address points of time in annotation use.

The assessment materials used in this study are vocabulary posttests which includes immediate posttests and delayed posttests. Vocabulary posttests take the form of word definition supply test and word recognition test to test both the receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge. For each target word, there is a corresponding item in both word definition supply test and word recognition test, thus there are 14 items respectively. In word definition supply test, words are given isolated from context. Only the meanings of the target words are asked to give as the annotations only provide the meanings of the target words. In word recognition test, multiple-choice form is adopted with one right choice and three distracters. In order to test the retention of vocabulary, delayed vocabulary posttests are set in the same test format with different item order from that of immediate posttests. The Cronbach's alpha from SPSS reliability analysis shows that the reliability was 0.828 for word definition supply test and 0.562 for word recognition test based on the pilot study.

D. Procedures

The experiment is conducted in the autumn semester of 2019, and takes one 30-minute session for the treatment and immediate posttests and one 10-minute session for the delayed posttests. The experiment is carried out as shown in the following order.

Firstly, the pre-experiment questionnaire is handed out to collect demographic information, English learning experience, and their usual way of vocabulary learning.

Secondly, three groups of students receive the treatment at the same time carried out by the researcher and two other instructors respectively. The three groups are pre-reading annotation use group (PreA), while-reading annotation use group (WA), and post-reading annotation group (PostA). Instruction in L1 is given without telling the experiment subjects about vocabulary tests afterwards. In PreA, annotations are given to the subjects first. The experiment subjects are asked to read the annotations for the following reading. Then annotations are collected, and reading material is handed out to the experiment subjects. In WA, annotations and reading material are given to the experiment subjects at the same time. In PostA, reading material is given to the experiment subjects first. The experiment subjects are asked to guess the meaning of unknown words while they read. After finishing reading, annotations are handed out to the experiment subjects to check their guessing about the unknown words. After the treatment, both the reading material and annotations are collected in all three groups.

Thirdly, the immediate posttests are conducted in all three groups. The immediate vocabulary posttests involve both the receptive and productive vocabulary testing. The order of the immediate posttests is word definition supply test first, and word recognition test second, addressing productive vocabulary knowledge and receptive vocabulary knowledge respectively.

Fourthly, the post-experiment questionnaire is handed out to collect subjects' opinions towards the experiment with respect to the annotation modes and the points of time in annotation use.

Fifthly, the delayed posttests are conducted in all three groups two weeks later. The subjects unexpectedly receive the delayed posttests. The delayed posttests include the vocabulary posttests, and the post-experiment questionnaire. The order of the delayed posttests is word definition supply test first, and word recognition test second. The content of the delayed vocabulary posttests is the same with the immediate vocabulary posttests with item order rearranged.

The following figure gives the participants assignment and procedure of the experiment.

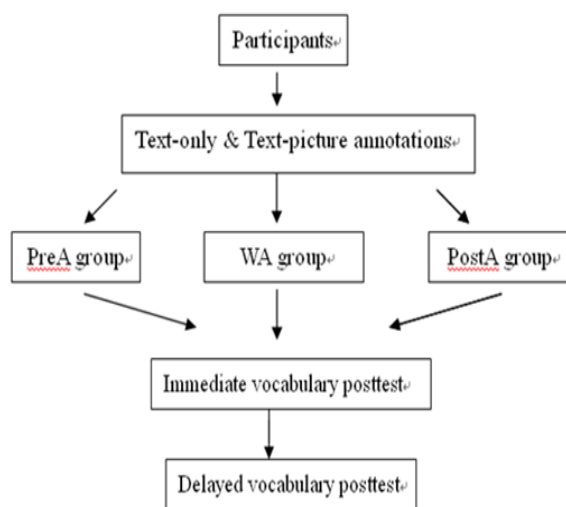


Figure 1 Group Participant Assignment And Research Procedures

IV. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

In this part, the results of the study are presented according to the research questions.

A. *Effects of Timing in Annotation Use on Vocabulary Learning*

Research question one: Which point of time in annotation use during reading (pre-reading, while-reading, or post-reading) results in best vocabulary production and recognition?

The research question can be answered from three aspects --- vocabulary production, recognition and changes of vocabulary retention over time.

In terms of vocabulary production, Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics and the post hoc results of both immediate word definition supply test (IWDST) and delayed word definition supply test (DWDST).

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, ANOVA AND POST HOC TEST RESULTS FOR IWDST AND DWDST IN TIMING OF ANNOTATION USE

IWDST						DWDST					
(I) PTAU	M	SD	(J) PTAU	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.	(I) PTAU	M	SD	(J) PTAU	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
PreA	5.19	1.600	WA	1.59**	.000	Pre A	2.77	1.889	WA	1.07**	.000
			Post A	.70**	.012				Post A	.24	.363
WA	3.60	1.748	Pre A	-1.59**	.000	WA	1.70	1.255	Pre A	-1.07**	.000
			Post A	-.89**	.002				Post A	-.83**	.002
Post A	4.49	1.622	Pre A	-.70**	.012	Post A	2.53	1.548	Pre A	-.24	.363
			WA	.89**	.002				WA	.83**	.002

PTAU= point of time in annotation use

**p< .05

Based on the mean scores from both IWDST and DWDST, PreA group (M=5.19, SD=1.600; M=2.77, SD=1.889) outscored the PostA group (M=4.49, SD=1.622; M=2.53, SD=1.548) which in turn outscored WA group (M=3.60, SD=1.748; M=1.70, SD=1.255). ANOVA was performed in order to verify the significance of the differences. The results of ANOVA indicate that the differences among three points of time in annotation use were statistically significant in both IWDST and DWDST (Sig.=.000 <.05; Sig.=.000 <.05).

The significance of differences shown by ANOVA guaranteed the necessity of performing the post hoc test so as to find out where the differences lie. Therefore, the post hoc test was performed for both IWDST and DWDST. The results of post hoc test show that the differences between PreA group and WA group (Sig.=.000 <.05; Sig.=.000 <.05) and PostA group and WA group (Sig.=.002 <.05; Sig.=.002 <.05) reached statistical significance in IWDST and DWDST. However, the differences between PreA group and PostA group only reached statistical significance (Sig.=.012 <.05) in IWDST but not DWDST (Sig.=.363 >.05).

In terms of vocabulary recognition, Table 3 shows the descriptive statistics and the post hoc results of both immediate word recognition test (IWRT) and delayed recognition supply test (DWRT).

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, ANOVA AND POST HOC TEST RESULTS FOR IWRT AND DWRT IN TIMING OF ANNOTATION USE

IWRT						DWRT					
(I) PTAU	M	SD	(J) PTAU	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.	(I) PTAU	M	SD	(J) PTAU	Mean Difference (I-J)	Sig.
Pre A	6.03	.978	WA	.47**	.005	Pre A	4.56	1.839	WA	.71**	.017
			Post A	.11	.495				Post A	.04	.885
WA	5.56	1.163	Pre A	-.47**	.005	WA	3.84	1.799	Pre A	-.71**	.017
			Post A	-.36**	.034				Post A	-.67**	.025
Post A	5.91	.989	Pre A	-.11	.495	Post A	4.51	1.767	Pre A	-.04	.885
			WA	.36**	.034				WA	.67**	.025

PTAU= point of time in annotation use

**p< .05

It can be seen that the scores were relatively close among three groups with PreA group (M=6.03, SD=.978; M=4.56, SD=1.839) slightly outscoring PostA group (M=5.91, SD=.989; M=4.51, SD=1.767) which in turn outscored WA group (M=5.56, SD=1.163; M=3.84, SD=1.799) in both IWRT and DWRT. Moreover, ANOVA was performed to examine the significance of differences. The results reveal that the differences among three points of time in annotation use were statistically significant in both IWRT and DWRT. Therefore, the post hoc test was carried out to further examine the differences between groups in both IWRT and DWRT. The results of post hoc test shows that the differences between PreA group and WA group (Sig.=.005 <.05; Sig.=.017 <.05) and between PostA group and WA group (Sig.=.034 <.05; Sig.=.025 <.05) reached statistical significance in both IWRT and DWRT. However, the differences between PreA group and PostA group did not reach statistical significance in both IWRT and DWRT (Sig.=.495 >.05; Sig.=.885 >.05).

With respect to the changes of vocabulary retention over time, it is presented by the retention rate which is the delayed vocabulary posttests scores divided by the immediate posttests scores. Table 4 gives the retention rate of vocabulary posttests by points of time in annotation use.

TABLE 4
THE RETENTION RATE OF VOCABULARY POSTTESTS IN TIMING OF ANNOTATION USE

Points of Time	n	WDST			WRT		
		M(I)	M(D)	RR	M(I)	M(D)	RR
PreA	35	5.19	2.77	53.37%	6.03	4.56	75.62%
WA	35	3.60	1.70	47.22%	5.56	3.84	69.06%
PostA	35	4.49	2.53	56.35%	5.91	4.51	76.31%

M(I)=means from immediate posttest, M(D)=means from delayed posttest, RR=retention rate

It indicates that vocabulary recognition had higher retention rate than vocabulary production. Moreover, in both WDST and WRT, PostA group (56.35%, 76.31%) achieved the highest retention rate which was followed by PreA group (53.37%, 75.62%) and WA group (47.22%, 69.06%).

As previously mentioned, the distinction of incidental and intentional vocabulary learning will lead to different vocabulary learning outcome. It was expected that intentional vocabulary learning would lead to better results than incidental vocabulary learning, which means the pre-reading annotation use condition would result in better performance than the while-reading annotation use condition and the post-reading annotation use condition. The results partially supported the above expectation with constant significantly better effect of pre-reading annotation use than while-reading annotation use. At the first glance, this order of the three conditions supported the expectation. However, the significant differences between the pre-reading annotation use condition and the post-reading annotation use condition were only found in immediate production posttest but not in other three posttests (immediate recognition posttest, delayed production posttest, and delayed recognition posttest). These non-significant differences between the pre-reading annotation use condition and the post-reading annotation use condition coincide with the results obtained by Ko (1995). According to Ko's (1995) explanation, the amount of attention or effort paid to annotations determines the vocabulary learning outcomes. In other words, if the same or nearly the same amount of attention or efforts is given to annotations, there will be no surprise to find close vocabulary learning outcomes no matter the vocabulary learning process is intentional or incidental. These results also coincide with Yoshii (2006)'s study on the inconsistency results between receptive and productive aspects of vocabulary learning. The productive tests are more likely to show significant differences than the receptive tests because of the differences on the depth of vocabulary knowledge they test.

In the present study, the participants in the pre-reading annotation use condition certainly had to pay much attention to annotations as they were requested to memorize the words in the annotations, and those in the post-reading annotation use condition also need to give attention to annotations when they were guessing the meanings of unknown words and later checking annotations even though this process was finished without any intention. In addition, this result also can be explained from other two perspectives: the perspective of cognitive load and the perspective of involvement load hypotheses. Firstly, the memorization of the words in the annotations in the pre-reading annotation use condition undoubtedly increased the germane cognitive load which fosters the learning process. Likewise, the guessing of unknown words and checking annotations deepened the processing of the words in the post-reading annotation use condition, which also increased the germane cognitive load. Secondly, from the perspective of involvement load hypotheses, the participants in the pre-reading annotation use condition might have higher need as memorizing the words was one target they need to achieve, while those in the post-reading annotation use condition performed deeper evaluation as they had to guess the meanings of unknown words to comprehend the reading material. Moreover, based on the information collected by Question 9 in Questionnaire 2, the participants preferred the post-reading annotation use condition (43.8%) to the pre-reading annotation use condition (31.4%) on benefiting vocabulary learning. Therefore, it is safe to say that the non-significant differences between pre-reading annotation use condition and the post-reading annotation use condition are perfectly understandable.

Based on what has been discussed above, it can be easily found that the order of the effects of the three conditions on vocabulary learning is the pre-reading annotation use condition the first, followed by the post-reading annotation use condition and then the while-reading annotation use condition. This order is just opposite to that of the reading comprehension. This confirms the theory about limited cognitive capacity, as the more attention paid to the reading comprehension means less attention left for the target words, or vice versa.

One interesting finding is worth mentioning. When considering the changes of vocabulary retention over time, the post-reading annotation use condition reveals the highest retention rate (56.35% for word definition supply test, 76.31% for word recognition test). The change of superiority between the post-reading annotation use condition and the pre-reading annotation use on retention rate indicates that rote memorization of vocabulary would provide a short-term boost to vocabulary learning with a relative fast decay, but guessing or inferring of vocabulary during reading has a sustainable or long-term positive effect on vocabulary learning.

B. Effects of Annotation Types on Vocabulary Learning

Research question two: Which type of annotation (text-only or text-picture) result in better vocabulary production and recognition?

This research question also will be answered from the following three aspects: vocabulary production, recognition and changes of vocabulary retention over time.

Firstly, regarding to vocabulary production, Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics and t test results of both immediate word definition supply test (IWDST) and delayed word definition supply test (DWDST).

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTIC RESULTS FOR WDST IN ANNOTATION TYPES

Annotation	n	IWDST			DWDST		
		M	SD	Sig.	M	SD	Sig.
Text-only	105	4.10	1.934	.004**	2.08	1.555	.019**
Text-picture	105	4.75	1.537		2.59	1.697	

**p< .05

It shows descriptively that the text-picture annotation (M=4.75, M=2.59) did better than the text-only annotation (M=4.10, M=2.08) in helping participants' vocabulary production, and the differences between two annotation types reached statistical significance in both IWDST and DWDST (Sig.=.004 <.05; Sig.=.019 <.05).

Secondly, in terms of vocabulary recognition, Table 6 shows the descriptive statistics and t test results of both immediate word recognition test (IWRT) and delayed recognition supply test (DWRT).

TABLE 6
DESCRIPTIVE AND INFERENTIAL STATISTIC RESULTS FOR WRT IN ANNOTATION TYPES

Annotation	n	IWRT			DWRT		
		M	SD	Sig.	M	SD	Sig.
Text-only	105	5.48	1.241	.000**	3.85	1.935	.000**
Text-picture	105	6.19	.681		4.76	1.584	

**p< .05

It can be seen that the text-picture annotation (M=6.19, M=4.76) did better than the text-only annotation (M=5.48, M=3.85) in helping participants' vocabulary recognition, and the differences between two annotation types reached statistical significance in both IWRT and DWRT (Sig.=.000 <.05; Sig.=.000 <.05).

Thirdly, changes of vocabulary retention over time are presented by the retention rate. Table 7 gives the retention rate of vocabulary posttests by annotation types.

TABLE 7
THE RETENTION RATE OF VOCABULARY POSTTESTS IN ANNOTATION TYPES

Annotation	N	WDST			WRT		
		M(I)	M(D)	RR	M(I)	M(D)	RR
Text-only	105	4.10	2.08	50.73%	5.48	3.85	70.26%
Text-picture	105	4.75	2.59	54.53%	6.19	4.76	76.90%

M(I)=means from immediate posttest, M(D)=means from delayed posttest, RR=retention rate

It indicates that vocabulary recognition had higher retention rate than vocabulary production. Moreover, both WDST and WRT, the text-picture annotation (54.53%, 76.90%) helped participants achieve much higher retention rate than the text-only annotation did (50.73%, 70.26%).

Previous studies (Boers, et al., 2017; Yoshii and Flaitz, 2002; Chen, 2013) shows that words annotated with both verbal and visual modes of information would lead to effective vocabulary retention. The results of this study further support this conclusion. The retention rate reveals the changes of vocabulary retention over time, including both productive and receptive aspects. Comparing the results of vocabulary retention to the previous studies (Yoshii and Flaitz, 2002; Chen, 2013; Wu and Xu, 2009), the results confirmed the long-time effectiveness of the multimedia annotations, in this case, the text-picture annotations, in facilitating vocabulary learning. Moreover, the information gathering from two questionnaires also helps the understanding of the results. According to the results of questionnaire 1, the participants mostly received instruction of vocabulary by using pronunciation and image, and as for the favorite way of learning vocabulary, they showed more interests in multimedia assisted vocabulary learning. Question 1 to 5 in questionnaire 2 gives some insight of the participants' opinions towards comparing the two types of annotation used in the experiment. Comparing to the text-only annotations, the participants favored text-picture annotation more. The preference of text-picture annotations to text-only annotations can also contribute to the results.

C. Interaction Effect between Types and Timing on Vocabulary Learning

Research question 3: Is there any interaction effect between annotation types and points of time in annotation use on vocabulary learning? If any, what is it like?

The results of the interaction between annotation types and points of time in annotation use in vocabulary learning based on four vocabulary posttests are presented in figure 2.

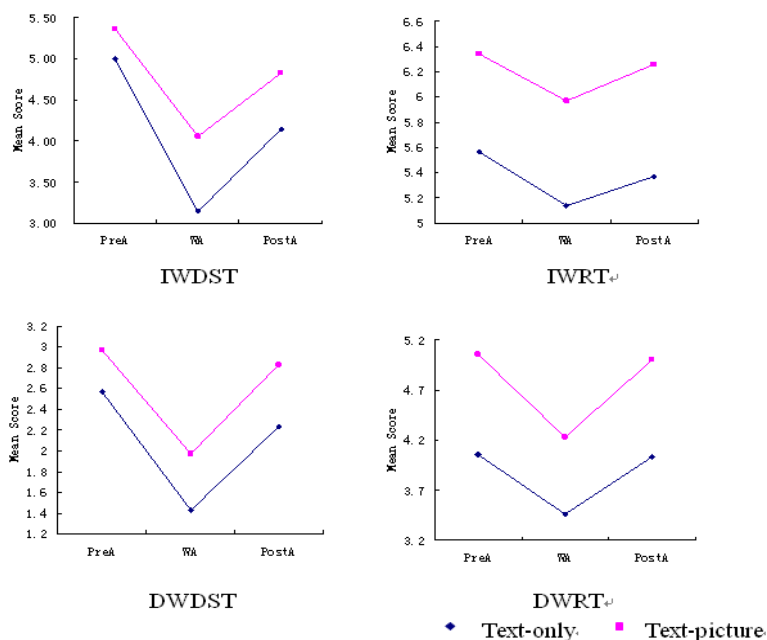


Figure 2 Mean Scores by Annotation Types and Timing in Annotation Use during Reading

Figure 2 exhibits the profile plots of the four vocabulary posttests based on the mean scores. It indicates that there was no interaction between annotation types and points of time in annotation use in all four vocabulary posttests.

The results mean that the superiority of text-picture annotations over text-only annotations in facilitating vocabulary retention does not depend on points of time in annotation use. It can be explained by the experiment design. Referring to the comparison of annotation types, within-subject design was adopted, which means each subject made use of two types of annotations. When comparing points of time in annotation use, between-subject design was used, which means subjects in different groups receive different treatment. Therefore, the differences between scores of these two independent variables would have different natures.

V. CONCLUSION

The main purpose of this study is to compare the effectiveness of two annotation types (text-only and text-picture) and of three points of time in annotation use (pre-reading, while-reading and post-reading) on helping vocabulary learning of English major students. Moreover, the interaction between annotation types and points of time in annotation use is investigated. The main research findings are presented as follows:

Firstly, among three points of time in annotation use, the pre-reading annotation use results in the best vocabulary production and recognition, closely followed by the post-reading annotation use and then the while-reading annotation use.

Secondly, when comparing the two annotation types, the text-picture annotations were more effective than the text-only annotations on helping vocabulary production and recognition.

Finally, there was no interaction between annotation types and points of time in annotation use.

Based on the research results, some pedagogical implications can also be suggested.

Firstly, the finding of superior effect of text-picture annotation over text-only annotation on vocabulary learning could be taken into consideration when designing instruction materials.

Next it informs instructors to choose the right type of annotations to enhance vocabulary learning.

Moreover, the outperformance of pre-reading annotation use group indicates that if vocabulary learning is the ultimate goal of learning, using the annotations before reading could be the best way to achieve the goal. This also implies that drawing students' attention directly to the task, such as vocabulary memorization in this case, can have positive impact on their learning performance. If the vocabulary learning is not the ultimate goal, to use annotation after reading would also provide positive effect on vocabulary learning and in the mean time guarantee reading comprehension.

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Destruction of Patriarchal Society by *Nu Shu* in *Snow Flower and Secret Fan*

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Abstract—Lisa See's *Snow Flower and Secret Fan* is set in Emperor Taoguang period-late Qing Dynasty that is featured by patriarchal society. One of typical features of the patriarchal society is that the male is the center of everything, while the female is in a disadvantaged position, which is clearly shown in the novel. However, Laotong—a kind of woman's friendship in the novel can be regarded as a sort of female rebellion to the patriarchal society. They communicate with each other in a special way that men have no access to, which in a way wins more space for women in feudal society in which men always are in dominated position in terms of social status in family or society. The paper is going to discuss how this *nu shu* narrative destructs the patriarchal society and strives for more space for women, breaking the yoke of man's gaze and power.

Index Terms—*Nu Shu*, patriarchal society, destruction

I. INTRODUCTION

Lisa See is an American writer and novelist with a Chinese great-grandfather who has wielded great influence on her life and writing career. Some of her works mention cultural events emphasizing the importance of Los Angeles and Chinatown. As a foreigner who has a special connection with Chinese culture and history, she can write from outside and inner side. On the one hand, she is familiar with the story in China and as a result, the stories she has created are almost based on true stories. On the other hand, she can write from a critical perspective. In the past few years, she has published several works which are related with Chinese culture. Her representative novels such as *Snow Flower and the Secret Fan* (2005), *Peony in Love* (2007) and *Shanghai Girls* (2009) enable her to enter the 2010 New York Times bestseller list. Elizabeth Ho (2011) says that “like Amy's *The Hundred Secret Senses* (1995), or Hong Kingston's *China Men* (1981), *Snow Flower* seems to aim at Asian-American readers who enjoy similar experience” (Elizabeth Ho, 2011, p.192). *The Chicago Tribune* locates *Snow Flower*'s “ideal audience in those who enjoy the movie version of *Julie and Julia* (2009), but really only like the modern day stuff about the blogger with the less-than-riveting domestic crises” (Phillip, 2011), while *L.A. Times* thinks the past a “rich, ancient world both exotic and erotic” (Sharkey, 2011). The setting directly draws the readers to an ancient period in old China, which provokes rich imagination for the readers, especially for those who have a crush on Chinese culture. The story is “well-researched” (Ho, 2011, p.192) with detailed descriptions of phenomenon such as foot-binding in feudal China albeit with some simplistic narration about some traditional customs. I assert that *nu shu*, one of traditional customs in ancient China, in some senses, plays a fundamental role in the destruction of patriarchal hierarchy. Therefore, I attempt to analyze how *nu shu*, a writing system, accomplishes this stated purpose.

II. THE SUFFERINGS OF WOMEN IN FEUDAL PERIOD

The first type of suffering of women in feudal society is the random arrangement of Laotong pair. The novel depicts woman's sufferings in many ways: women experience the painful foot-binding both physically and psychologically; they are treated as man's property without any subjectivity; they are cornered to the domestic sphere deprived of the right to the public issues. The detailed treatment of the suffering which Lily and Snow Flower experience in their Laotong relationship is one major aspect of the novel. Firstly, the Laotong pair is arranged by parents and relatives so the victims themselves are kept in the darkness. The protagonists Lily and her friend Snow Flower are ordinary girls in small village in a remote and provincial county. One of the traditions of this place is to form a Laotong pair, exclusively for girls, whose sisterly relationship is far stronger and closer than that of husband and wife. Once in contract, their fate will connect with each other in their lifetime. Secondly, Laotong relationship is the product of limited space for women in feudal society. They have no access to regular writing system, thus communicating with each other in secretive way. The narrator says that except “for three terrible months in the fifth year of Emperor Xianfeng's reign”, she has “spent her life in upstairs woman's rooms”. She says that “she has gone to the temple, traveled back to her natal home, even visited with Snow Flower, but she knows little about the outer realm. She has heard men speak of taxes, drought, and uprisings, but these subjects are far removed from her life”. What she knows is “embroidery, weaving, cooking, her husband's family, her children, her grandchildren, her great-grandchildren, and *nu shu*”. Her life course has been a normal one—“daughter days, hair-pinning days, rice-and-salt days”, and so on (See, 2005, p. 40). In this way it is reasonable to think that women themselves have to invent their own ways to communicate with each other. The girls

write letters to each other on a fan with *nu shu*, a secretive phonetic form of woman's writing. In addition to the language itself, the young women learn *nu shu* songs and stories. Thirdly, the requirement for the relationship is strict and rigid. The first condition for the contract is that both girls must be born under the same sign. They have to deal huge difference between both sides to strengthen the binding. There are big differences between Lily and Snow Flower, born under the same zodiac of horse though. The former is practical and conservative, while the latter attempts to fly over the restraints of woman's life in the 19th century. Although Lily comes from a family of relatively low status, her feet are considered beautiful, playing a significant role in her marriage into the most powerful family (Master Lu) in the region. She is later known as Lady Lu, the region's most influential woman with four healthy children (three sons and one daughter). Despite the fact that Snow Flower comes from a formerly prosperous family, she is unfortunate because she marries a butcher who is culturally considered as the lowest status of all professions in that time, living a miserable life filled with children dying and beating at the hand of her husband. With huge difference, they have to form a lifetime binding, and thus the breaking of contract in the end seems to make sense.

The second sort of suffering for women in ancient China is that there are so many requirements for women from the perspective of men. In the first place, women are limited to domestic sphere without caring about anything about public issues such as politics, economy and workforce. The rule works from the time when they come to this world. The position of each one in the feudal family is clear and each one has their own undertakings. One of typical points is that whether you are rich or poor, emperor or slave, the domestic sphere is for women and the outside sphere is for men. Women should not pass beyond the inner chambers in their thoughts or in their actions. The narrator puts it clearly that "Uncle was kindhearted, but as the second son he had no authority in our home. Aunt knew the benefits that might arise out of this situation, but as a sonless woman married to a second son, she had the lowest rank in the family". She adds that "Mama also had no position, but having seen the look on her face when the matchmaker was talking, I knew what her thoughts would be. Father and Grandmother made all decisions in the household, though both could be influenced" (See, 2005, p. 23). Evidence above shows that women have their clear obligations and they should strictly obey all these rules. They are limited to a narrow space, fulfilling their own duty. In the second place, except the limited space, their behaviors are restricted in order to meet demands of the male as well. The concept of "Three obediences and Four virtues" is one of typical traditional Confucian requirements for women. "Three Obediences" refer to the fact that "when a girl, obey your father; when a wife, obey your husband; when a widow, obey your son," and "Four Virtues" delineate woman's "behavior, speech, carriage, and occupation", "be chaste and yielding, calm and upright in attitude; be quiet and agreeable in words; be restrained and exquisite in movement; be perfect in handiwork and embroidery" (See, 2005, p. 24). Women have to obey all those rules otherwise the society will judge them as unqualified women and should be punished. Women are usually required by the society to perform according to man's authority. The concept of "Three obediences and Four virtues" mentioned above is typical requirement for the women in patriarchal society. As far as I am concerned, the most miserable thing is that women are not aware of the injustice done to them and they just act according to man's will.

The third kind of suffering for women is foot-binding that is a kind of feudal custom in ancient China, which causes unbelievable suffering for the female. First of all, the requirement of perfect foot-binding is extremely strict including the perfect shape and size. Foot-binding is the tradition of binding a young girl's feet by wrapping cloth around their feet tightly, forcing them to walk until their bones are broken, easier to mold and change, then tightening the bindings as time progresses. The ideal foot (called Golden Lotus) is about 7 cm (approximately 3 inches) in length. To comprehend this, the narrator draws a parallel that "men in China feel about woman's feet as men in the West do about a woman's legs" (See, 2005, p. 50). Matters of feet or legs are all for the sake of men's gaze, feminist readers can easily realize this point. It is the product of men as they consider the woman with small size of feet to be beautiful. The direct result is that numerous girls have to suffer the unbearable pain at a young age. The misleading concept is that the small size of feet—so-called "Golden Lilies" is beautiful, which can help women get married with a rich family. Holding this belief, the girls at a very young age have to suffer the pain of foot-binding.

Second of all, the consequence of foot-binding is extremely detrimental to the development of young girls both physically and psychologically. Lily says that the binding "altered not only my feet but my whole character", and "as though that process continued throughout my life, changing me from a yielding child to a determined girl", then "from a young woman who would follow without question whatever her in-laws demanded of her to the highest-ranked woman in the county who enforced strict village rules and customs" (See, 2005, p. 4). The girl who has experienced this process must have unbelievable courage and endurance as the foot-binding can break the bone and prevent the natural growth. The only reward of foot-binding is the marriage, which, more often than not, becomes those parents' pretext to encourage their daughters. Whenever Lily can not bear the pain, desiring to give up the foot-binding, her mother encourages her with comforting words that if she had a small foot, her later life would be much easier and the most important thing is that the pain is just temporary but the well-being is everlasting. The narrator says that "when I knew I couldn't suffer another moment of pain, and tears fell on my bloody bindings, my mother spoke softly into my ear, encouraging me to go one more hour, one more day, one more week, reminding me of the rewards I would have if I carried on a little longer" (See, 2005, p. 3). The so-called *tengai* (maternal love) is based on the pain and suffering of the girl. As a young girl, what Lily should do is to endure the pain and obey the order. If she does not do as her mother orders, she will be criticized as useless, bringing shame to her ancestors.

Third of all, despite the pain and suffering of foot-binding, not everyone has the chance to be bound and the girl in poor family has no chance of being bound so that when these girls grow up, they will not have the opportunity to get married with rich family. In this way the girl's destiny is decided by whether she has the chance to be bound or not. Foot-binding is a long-term work. On the one hand, not every family can afford to buy all those necessary materials for foot-binding. On the other hand, the likelihood of success is low and the process is highly risky. As a result, the poorest girls don't have their feet bound at all. Besides, the preparation of foot-binding takes much longer than expected and the proper age for foot-binding has to be carefully considered. Lily says that "the preparation for my foot-binding took much longer than anyone expected". In cities, "girls who come from the gentry class have their feet bound as early as age of three, while "In some provinces far from ours, girls bind their feet only temporarily, so they will look more attractive to their future husbands". For those whose bones are not broken, "their bindings are always loose, and, once married, their feet are set free again so they can work in the fields alongside their husbands. The poorest girls don't have their feet bound at all"(See, 2005, p. 17). The preparation work is complicated and not every case is successful. Without enough patience and care, tragedy can happen at any time. The death of third sister and Moon flower is one typical example. Third sister is the girl whose feet are firstly bound and because of unhealthy treatment on the feet, her feet are infectious, which finally leads her to death. For the sake of man's appreciation, the little girl has to endure the great suffering. The smaller their feet are, the more likely they will get married with a rich family. Their goal is to achieve a pair of perfectly bound feet with seven distinct attributes. They should be small, narrow, straight, pointed, and arched, yet still fragrant and soft in texture. Of these requirements, the length is the most important. Third sister is only six years old and when she is forced to accept the foot-binding, she could do nothing but scream. Her mother criticizes her to be useless, bringing an embarrassment to her ancestors. Just as Lily narrates in the novel that "Third Sister was pushed into the room, but as soon as she fell to the floor she clambered to her feet, ran to a corner, and cowered there" (See, 2005, p. 27). It is very hard to imagine the scene and over the whole process, third sister just screams, being incapable to stop the foot-binding. Suppose that men appreciate big size of feet, the girl would have to suffer other kinds of pain. It is easy to find out that foot-binding is a long and painful experience and the chance of being bound is closely connected with the well-being of female's marriage. The system of patriarchal society forces female to perform so as to cater to man's taste, which is really miserable at that time.

III. DESTRUCTION OF PATRIARCHAL SOCIETY—*NU SHU* WRITING

It has been mentioned above that *nu shu* is a product of the patriarchal society. However, this writing system, for me, is also a kind of rebellion to the patriarchal society. Firstly, those girls in contract can communicate with each other in their own way, which can provide more private space for women themselves. In male-dominated society, it is not common to see this kind of phenomenon. The narrator introduces the *nu shu* at the beginning of the novel as the secret-code writing used by women in a remote area of southern Hunan Province—developed a thousand years ago. It appears to be the only written language in the world that has been created by "women exclusively" in their own use(See, 2005, p. 22). It can be used to write "letters, songs, autobiographies, lessons on womanly duties, prayers to the goddess, and, of course, popular stories", written with "brush and ink on paper or on a fan", "embroidered onto a handkerchief or woven into cloth"(See, 2005, p. 25). It is something that can be sung before an audience of other women and girls, but it can also be something that is read or treasured alone. However, the most important rule is that "men must never know that it exists, and men must not touch it in any form"(See, 2005, p. 25). Men have their own writing system and women do not interfere as well. This kind of custom is the product of reality but at the same time it rebels the patriarchal society unconsciously.

Secondly, the secretive writing system can provide comfort and happiness to each other. From the novel we know that the contract of Lily and Snow Flower is arranged by Madame Wang for the sake of individual interest and family interest not for the sake of girls' well-being. The two girls who have been arranged by their parents and matchmaker do not know anything. And they just do as their parents demand. Despite all these realistic aspects, the two girls can have their happy moment when they form the Laotong relationship. Lily writes to Snow Flower saying "I write to you. Please listen to me. Though I am poor and improper, though I am not worthy of your family's high gate, I write today to say it was fated that we join. Your words fill my heart. We are a pair of mandarin ducks. We are a bridge over the river. People everywhere will envy our good match."(See, 2005, p. 45). This is the first message passed by secret fan by Lily and in later life they just use this way to share their respective life. "*Nu shu*" as a special way for girls to communicate with each other, to share joys and sorrows can be regarded as a kind of rebellion to the feudal society. As the men can not understand what those women talk about and they do not have the right to interfere with, which in a way means that women have their private space that men can not disturb. The unique writing system provides not only private space, but also some other benefits for each other. The narrator says that "my only rebellion came in the form of *Nu Shu*, our women's secret writing. My first break with tradition came when Snow Flower—my Laotong, my "old same," my secret-writing partner—sent me the fan that sits here on my table, and then again after I met her". But "apart from who I was with Snow Flower, I was resolved to be an honorable wife, a praiseworthy daughter-in-law, and a scrupulous mother. In bad times my heart was as strong as jade. I had the hidden might to withstand tragedies and sorrows"(See, 2005, p. 4). The establishment of Laotong relationship between Lily and Snow Flower is forced by their matchmaker and the two girls are kept in the darkness. However, we cannot deny the benefits that relationship has brought up.

“Intimate female friendship enhance woman’s self-esteem, connectedness, and enjoyment” (Lillian, 2013, p.5). Both of them get comfort from this contract and face the reality with courage. In one article Lillian (2013) mentions that Lisa See’s portrayal of two women’s intimate friendship can function as healing and provide support for each other by communicating with each other in a special way. She says that “*Nu Shu*” likes “sister friends, comadres, sworn sisters, sister of the soul” and also she refers it to “sister of my heart” (Lilian, 2013, p.4). In this article, she asserts that special bond between intimate women friends has the healing and transformative power. By means of sharing sorrows and pains with each other, two intimate friends can support each other psychologically so that they endure those miseries in daily life. Lily finally knows the truth that she is taken in by Madame Wang whose only purpose is to arrange everything for the sake of her own interest and her family. She is aware of that she is treated unfairly. She reflects on her life that “we are seen as completely useless. Even if our natal families love us, we are a burden to them”. When they marry into new families, they “go to their husbands sight unseen, do bed business with them as total strangers, and submit to the demands of our mothers-in-law”(See, 2005, p.127). Sons can secure their positions in their husbands’ homes, while daughters will just come with “the scorn of our mothers-in-law, the ridicule of our husbands’ concubines, and the disappointed faces of our daughters” (See, 2005, p.127). Telling those miseries in secretive writing can reduce the pain they are experiencing. We have to know that a Laotong relationship is different from sworn sisterhood. It involves “two girls from different villages and lasts their entire lives”, while “a sworn sisterhood is made up of several girls and dissolves at marriage”(Lilian, 2013, p.22). The long-standing intimate relationship can provide spiritual comfort for each other not just for the time being but for the rest of their lives.

In a nutshell, the *nu shu* writing not only expands more private space for women in male-dominated society, but also provides psychological support for women to survive the oppressed situation. In my view, the privacy is the most crucial factor contributing to the destruction of male-dominated society. The narrator also mentions the most fundamental principle of *nu shu* is that “men can not know it exists and man can not touch it in any form” (See, 2005, p.25). It is the space that men cannot and should not invade, which is itself contradictory in a way. The binary opposition between male and female is prevailing but this secretive writing system gives an outlet of destructing patriarchal hierarchy.

IV. CONCLUSION

Laotong relationship is a product of reality and at the same time we find from the story of Lily that Laotong relationship helps her grow and change her course of life. It is a kind of old traditional customs in feudal society but we have to admit that it in a way provides an outlet for women to express themselves, especially, using a secretive writing system to communicate with each other, which wins more space for women in male-dominated society. According to Elizabeth Ho(2013), Lily’s *nu shu* narrative, like “lost letters of A.S Byatt’s *Possession*(1990) or Margaret Prior’s destroyed diary at the end of *Sara Water’s Affinity*”, only adds to the ephemeral nature of the record of woman’s experience (Ho, 2013, p.195). Besides, she also mentions that through the use of *nu shu*, *Snow Flower and Secret Fan* aims to recover “an alternate history of the Chinese nineteenth century for consumption in the West and by the West, including overseas Chinese readers”, that tends to “re-inscribe, rather than trouble, conventional roles and literary stereotypes of Chinese femininity and feminism” (Ho, 2013, p.195). Readers can easily notice that Chinese woman’s space in ancient time is limited and cornered. The story begins with Lily’s reminiscence of her birth “on the fifth day of the six month of the third year of Emperor Daoguang’s reign”(See, 2005, p.9), placing the novel in 1823, drawing the Western readers to Victorian period. In fact, it is the same with western women in Victorian period because they are also required to cater to man’s taste, especially in terms of dressing and manners, and they are also limited to the space of household. During that time, it is tough for women writers to publish any novel. One typical example is George Eliot whose original name is Marian Evans, publishing her work under the name of George Eliot, a man’s name. Virginal Woolf even calls for a room for women. She thinks that Shakespeare has a sister but she has no space to grow and a slim chance of becoming a writer. French scholar Henri Lefebvre says in *The Production of Space* (1991) that social space is produced and reproduced by the reality. It is same with woman’s space. The writing system of *nu shu* is also a product of social reality. See’s stated goal of the novel is to illuminate the struggle of women during times of “political upheaval” whether “during the Taiping Rebellion so many years ago or today in Iraq, Afghanistan, the Sudan or even right here in this country in the post-9/11 era” (See, 2005, p.265). With the development of feminist movement, the woman’s space has been expanded a lot but in reality there are still unfair issues happening every single day. I assert that Lisa See has noticed this phenomenon, thus setting a story in ancient China, describing woman’s suffering and sorrows, with taking reality into account. From this perspective, we can arrive at a conclusion that *nu shu* destructs the patriarchal system to a certain degree.

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Comparative Study of Cultural Value Orientation between China and America

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Abstract—In today's world, cultural exchanges have become more and more frequent because of the economic integration and technological globalization, but people from different countries may have different culture values. China and the United States, as representatives of the East and the West, also have great differences in value orientation. Therefore, understanding the differences between each culture has both theoretical and practical significance for their inter-cultural communication. This paper analyzes the differences between Chinese and American cultural values from five aspects: nature, humanity, time, relationship, and human actions. It will have an important guiding role in eliminating cultural barriers and promoting the development of Chinese and American culture in inter-cultural communication.

Index Terms—cultural differences, cultural values, social relationship, inter-cultural communication, mode of thinking

I. INTRODUCTION

Culture is characterized by diversity and permeability, and it is these characteristics that make it complicated. Cultural values not only represent the core concept of a nation, but also a bridge for communication among different countries. They are closely related, because different values are all embodied in their culture. Intercultural communication also plays an important role in real life. People from different countries have different values, which makes it difficult for them to communicate with each other. Therefore, understanding the different values between Chinese and Americans can greatly help them to strengthen the exchanges and cooperation. Nowadays, with the development of economy and society, the exchanges between China and the West have become more and more frequent, and the cultures from different countries have influenced each other. A contrastive study of differences in cultural values orientation between Chinese and American can help people clearly understand the differences in the cultural spirit, modes of thinking, and values among various nationalities. Thus, Chinese and the Americans can better know each other and communicate efficiently.

II. THE THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

Florence Kluckhohn and Fred Strodbeck were the two American anthropologists who proposed cultural theories earlier than any others. During the Pacific War, Florence Kluckhohn, a woman scholar, coming from the Harvard University, was part of a team of about 30 experts assembled by the Office of War Information, and dedicated to study the values, popular sentiments and morale from different cultures. Based on an analysis of the psychology and values of the Japanese, the team proposed to the U.S. government that it should not strike or abolish the opinion of the emperor of Japan, on the contrary, the declaration calling for Japan's unconditional surrender should be revised. Shortly after World War II, Harvard University accelerated its support for the study of cultural value dimensions, and, together with the Rockefeller foundation, launched a massive research campaign for value concept coming from five different cultural communities in a 40-mile area of Texas. A major achievement of this work was the five patterns of Value Orientations published in *Variations in Value Orientations* by Kluckhohn & Strodbeck. Value orientation refers to that "It is a complex but exact and patterned principle, associated with coping with the problems of the ordinary people, which can instruct and guide the behavior and thought of human beings" (Kluckhohn & Strodbeck, 1961, p.4). This model includes five value orientations: human nature orientation, relationship orientation between human and nature, time orientation, activity orientation and relationship orientation.

Kluckhohn and Stodbeck's mode of value orientation is based on three basic assumptions:

- (1) People no matter what era they live must provide a solution to the common problems for certain human beings;
- (2) The solution to these problems is not infinite or arbitrary, but can be changeable in a series of choices or values.
- (3) Each value orientation exists in all societies and individuals, but each of them has different preferences for value orientation.

A. Human Nature Orientation

Human orientation involves the intrinsic characteristics of human nature. Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961, p.4) argued that when answering questions about human sexual orientation, there are two aspects to be considered. The first is that whether human nature is good, evil or a mixture of both; secondly, whether it can be variable or not. In addition, they further suggested that "mixed" humanity can mean either good and evil or no good and evil.

People from different cultures may have very different views on human nature. Influenced by Christianity, westerners usually advocate the original sin theory and believe that human nature is evil, while, the Chinese believe that human nature is good, because they are deeply influenced by Confucianism. It is complicated for Americans to hold a view toward human nature. They do not simply think that one was born to be good or sinister, but that human nature can be mixed: either good or evil. They also believe that the good and evil of human nature may change after their birth. It advocates that people can be atoned and get rid of all the bitterness and finally ascend to heaven through confession and doing good deeds, which strongly illustrates the idea that human nature can be variable.

B. Relationship Orientation between Human and Nature

According to the pattern of value orientation of Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, there are three potential relationships between man and nature. They are whether we should conquer the nature, live in harmony with it or have no choice but obey it.

The Confucian view of human nature interpreted the relationship between man and nature from the perspective of the integration of man and nature. He believed that man and nature should be in a harmonious state, showing the idea of unity between man and nature. Mencius who believed that human can know the world through heart and mind associated heaven with human mind and pointed out that people should obey and follow the willing of heavens, and should always be sincere and innocent. Human beings should preserve, expand and carry forward the gifts that given by God in order to achieve the goal of unity between mankind and heaven.

However, western humanism advocated that people should use their rationality and determination to change the atmosphere around them. People should be encouraged to conquer nature and enjoy the life of the real world. The core view of this orientation held that all natural forces could be conquered and utilized.

In addition to the above two orientations, some cultures believed that human should be obedient to nature. Most Southeast Asians insisted on this point. They argued that the advent of the natural disaster was the result of human's offense of the nature.

C. Time Orientation

The human's time orientation can be divided into three types: first, it is past-orientation, which emphasizes tradition and respecting history. Second, it is present-oriented, usually focusing on short-term and current things. Third, it is future-oriented, which attaches more importance to long-term and changeable things.

The past-orientation mainly attaches great importance to tradition. The Chinese are typical of sticking to the past. They worship their ancestors, respect the elderly and teachers, and age and experience should be valued in the work. In Chinese society, people are less interested in the future unless it is an ideal one. When people do things that have never been done before, they often inclined to consider whether this matter has been done in the past, any successful experience can be used for reference, or what lessons should be learned from failure. So following the rules has become a social norm.

While, present-oriented people are less concerned about what has happened in the past and what might happen in the future. People think that the most important thing is only at the present. They tend to focus only on what is happening right now and hardly plan for tomorrow. Traditional Islamic culture belongs to this type of culture. They believe that the future is belonging to God and is not controlled by mortals. The culture of the Philippines, some countries in Latin America, and the northern Indians of Arizona in the United States can also be classified into this type. These cultures have more arbitrariness and randomness in their attitude towards time than any other cultures. This style of indifference to time often makes westerners misunderstood and treats them as being lazy and inefficient.

When it comes to the future-orientated people, they always put more emphasis on changes. In their society, change is often considered necessary and beneficial, while the past is outdated and should be abandoned. Both Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961) and Hall (1996) believed that this time orientation exists in American society. In the United States, the variety of new products and various fashionable packages are being constantly updated every day, because they believe that this is the only way to attract customers. On the contrary, in the past Chinese society, people usually believe in old brands.

D. Activity Orientation

There are three types of human activities-orientation, which are doing, being, and being-in-becoming (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961, p.6). American lives in a society that emphasizes action ("doing"). They maintain that people must constantly do things, and only when they are constantly working, can they create value and live meaningful. In order to get promoted, Americans work hard for their prominent achievements. When evaluating a person, the Americans always ask "What did he/she do?" and "What achievement did he/she have?" If a person just sits there thinking, which means that he is just doing nothing, because thinking neither can be quantified, nor be measured.

The “being” orientation is just the opposite of the “doing” one. Tranquility and patience can be seen as one of the virtues, instead of the doing for nothing. Chinese culture belongs to this orientation, advocating “the static against the dynamic” and “cope with all shifting events by sticking to the fundamental principle.” In addition, in China, when people want to know a person, they always first inquire about his background, such as the origin of his family, education degree, job occupation, social relationship, etc., instead of his achievement.

The “being-in-becoming” orientation emphasizes “who we are” rather than what we did (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961, p.6). The ultimate goal of what they strive for is to become more perfect themselves in the process of self-development. A typical example of this orientation is a monk of Chan Sect, who will spend all his lifetime in meditation and contemplation in order to make himself complete.

E. Relationship Orientation

As for how to deal with the relationship among people, Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961, p.6) once proposed that humans also tend to have three orientations, which are individualistic, hierarchical and subsidiary orientation. Individualistic orientation is characterized by personal autonomy, and each individual is considered to be a unique independent one. Under this circumstance, an individual's goals and objectives is superior to those of the group's.

The hierarchical orientation focuses on the group, undoubtedly, the group's goal is better than that of the individual's (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961, p.9). People living in a hierarchical society tend to be ruled by aristocracy. A typical example of this orientation exists in many European countries. While, people from individualistic orientated culture emphasize more about independence and freedom. Therefore, it is normal that American young people would rather live away from home when they are 18 years old, even if their school or work place is close to their family. They prefer to find another house living independently.

If you properly use the five value orientation theories proposed by Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck to distinguish culture in our real life, you can better understand many certain of the cultural differences and can explain such “abnormal” behaviors reasonably. From his own research, Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck concluded that people from different nationalities and countries may inevitably have quite different ideas on these five issues, which can significantly affects their attitudes and behaviors in their life and work. But the theory does not explore the deeper reasons why different countries and nations are so distinguish in these five values orientation. I must reaffirm that this theory is not a universal formula, therefore, while analyzing different cultural values, we must learn to analyze cultural phenomena from a dialectical perspective.

III. DIFFERENCES OF CULTURAL VALUES BETWEEN CHINA AND AMERICA

A. Chinese Attach Importance to Be Implicit

The way of Chinese thinking has been from the Confucius who advocated the Mean for a thousand years, which has been rooted deeply in Chinese traditional culture. Its core connotation is to warn people to maintain the principle of neutrality when dealing with everything. Under the influence of this kind of thinking, people are used to treating others with courtesy and humility. Praised, they always behave modestly, and they are also ashamed of being criticized. There are three aspects in the moral principles of traditional Chinese culture. First, people should correctly evaluate themselves and have an overall understanding about them, understand your own shortcomings and the strengths of others, and be willing to learn from others, stay humble, and never overstate and boast of what you have achieved. Second, people should respect others, be tolerant of accepting others' defects, and learn how to be temperate and polite. Third, when people show their advantages and achievements to others, they should not be more exciting. Therefore, once praised from others, the Chinese always appear shy and modest.

B. Americans Attach Importance to Be Direct

Americans never say a word for roundabout in their conversation. If they don't agree with you, they will speak the opinions from their hearts and directly refute them. In the past, the early settlers fought for the right for freedom to break the steady status of the aristocracy and get more space. In the early Puritans' thoughts, it was especially important to express the ideas in a straightforward way, which meant that everyone is equal. The social development depends on how to express your will and communicate with others efficiently. What you should do is that you must totally convey the idea you want to express into the others' ears, which has none business with your character or the way of your expression. Americans believe that everyone has a reasonable and legitimate individual right from his birth, which is a guarantee that everyone can obtain what you should get as an individual in a free society.

C. Chinese Attach Importance to Be Ethical

Many anthropologists and sociologists believe that geography factors have a significant impact on culture in a primitive society or a country with underdeveloped economy. The geographical feature of the isolation from the mountains makes China become an agricultural country. Chinese culture originated from the Yellow River. The advantages of water source have brought positive impacts on crops, which greatly promoted the agricultural development, and also shaped the social form that has existed for a long time in China. Two-thirds of the population still depends on the land for survival. There was such large number of the population that the agricultural value is

superior to industry and commerce. At the same time, Chinese people attached more importance on moral and ethics, owing to its social values and unique way of thinking. Ethics mainly emphasizes how to cultivate and establish the human morality. People always paid attention to how to become a noble man and how to cultivate people's attitudes during that period. Confucius once said that the one who is of benevolent will master the world. The benevolence and righteousness meant just like the two proverbs that love me, love my dog and don't do to others what you don't want others to do to you. The ancient Chinese believed in that their desire should be self-restraint, the thought of greed or getting without paying should be abandoned.

D. Americans Attach Importance to Be Pragmatic

Americans believe that rich material and comfortable spirit are necessary conditions for people's lives. For example, they always enjoy the fast and convenient transportation, all kinds of natural and healthy food, and the full use of household appliances, including air conditioning and bathtubs, etc. They can get adequate food and medicine from the federal government, and the basic welfare from a large number of private institutions. To have a healthy body and live longer, they like spending a lot of time on exercise or fitness in the gym. At the same time, they also pay more attention to keep the air clean and improve the sanitary conditions. People strive to use new technology to improve their own living conditions, which can constantly create new scientific and technological inventions and promote the advancement of new technology. Americans regard it as a universal living standard. They also want to have a longer life expectancy and lower rate of death from illnesses and accidents and think that people from different countries should lead such a mode of life in many fields, such as, in basic material supply, necessary physical facilities and extensive health care service. Americans often hold a point of view that science and technology should serve for people, so most of them tend to think that they can find solutions to deal with all kinds of the problems relying on commerce, science and technology. To lead a better life, Americans manage to create some new industrial products to make their daily life more convenient and efficient. They always believe that with the development of science and technology tomorrow will be better. Everyone wants to make great progresses, but it is a ridiculous view that individuals may not need to care about others, in order to obtain more. If they strongly insist on this point, it means that personal selfishness will deprive of others' rights to some extent. The aim of foundation of the US Constitution and the basic tenet of American democracy is to protect private property from infringement. Many Americans can clearly distinguish the private and public property in dealing with interpersonal relationships. A case in point is that how to separate the common property democratically between a couple after the divorce. Continuous improvement and constant challenge are the characteristics of Americans, which also best embody the value of American individualism.

IV. DIFFERENCES FROM THE ORIENTATION OF CULTURAL VALUES

A. Different Attitudes towards the Nature

People treat the natural environment in different ways due to the cultural differences, which can roughly be divided into two kinds: people should live in harmony with nature, and humans can dominate nature. The former represents Chinese traditional values, while the latter is the core concept of Western values that affect the United States.

1. Chinese Harmonious Orientation

The Chinese culture had always pursued the traditional philosophy of human and nature is integrated. It was a fact to Chinese that nature had a superpower, which was difficult for human to be overcome. For nature, human beings lie in a subordinate position. Therefore, people should follow the laws of nature instead of violating them. The ancient Chinese always believed that there had a tightly relationship between man and nature, which were interdependent. In order to accumulate experience and apply it to future production and life, they were constantly concerned about the subtle changes of nature, and try to find more information about them. The thought initiated from Confucius who put forward the concept of Sensation between Heaven and Human at the end of the Spring and Autumn Period and Dong Zhongshu, a famous scholar in Han Dynasty, once proposed a theory of the unity of heaven and man to further interpret the relationship between man and nature. To survive, people must follow the laws of nature which were based on the changes with the rise and fall of the sun and moon and the regular cycle of annual climate. They could remind people how to adjust their schedule and when they should sow and harvest. In China, Confucianism advocated that people and nature should live in harmony and unity, which had deeply affected the mode of thinking of Chinese people. The old saying Man proposes, God disposes showed that people and nature are inseparable. It was Chinese traditional belief that if you wanted to get more from nature, we must treat it in a harmonious way, neither doing nothing nor overdoing.

2. Americans' Mastery Orientation

The United States whose history is very short is one of the countries that deeply affected by typical western values under the capitalist system. The Americans always hold the point that human have the ability to conquer the nature. In the attitude toward nature, the spirit of conquest is the typical characteristic of American people. They believe that human and nature are mutually independent. So if you want to get what you want to live better, you must make new inventions to improve our living condition and fight for all kinds of natural disasters, such as flood, earthquake, hurricane, etc. As a natural conqueror, they also insist on that the potential of human should be infinite without any restrictions, which can make them try their best to change everything. The power comes from the westerners who regard God as faith. In the biblical record, God created everything in the world by kneading soil with the fingers and

told Adam to use all his human power to meet the demand from nature, which was recorded in Bible. Man, as the master of nature, was encouraged by God to improve nature to meet human's living conditions. Therefore, Americans regarded people as a prerequisite which was capable of defeating nature and really had the superpower to dominate it. To lead a better life, they must constantly keep improving the natural environment. The disasters which Americans fought for in the past not only destroyed a large number of houses, but also brought various diseases which could threaten people's health. Although these disasters had caused irreparable damage to the local residents to some extent, they used to take a positive response, such as giving a speech to encourage people to rebuild their confidence, and try to use advanced technology to improve the ability to prevent them. After experiencing the natural disasters, the Americans' confidence had never been directly defeated. On the contrary, the disasters would make them stronger and stronger. Americans believed that through the deep understanding of nature, human could overcome disasters, diseases and other difficulties to survive and make more progresses. Americans' positive behavior shaped their unique character, which enabled them to cope with more new challenges from nature.

To sum up, different people have different attitude toward the nature, which can affect the way in their inter-cultural communication.

B. Different Attitudes towards the Humanity

From ancient times to the present, different people have different ideas about whether people were born to be kind or evil. There are three kinds of hypotheses: human nature is good, evil or mixed. Knowing different cultures, we can better understand why people respond differently to the same thing.

1. Chinese Kind Orientation

In Chinese traditional culture, people believed that human were born to be kind, which was also an important thought of Chinese traditional philosophy. Among them, Confucius was a typical representative of this idea. He proposed Benevolence means to love others, that is, the human's righteousness and generosity enabled them to love other people. Another traditional philosopher, Mencius, further promoted this theory, he believed people have the sense of compassion, shame and right and wrong. So they could sympathize with others who were unfortunate, be ashamed of his wrong behavior, and change the defects in his humanity. They were conscious of that one should do more kind and fight for something bad, so they must have the ability to judge people from their behavior. As a whole, the Chinese believe that Man's nature at birth is good in the traditional culture. The ancient Chinese believed that the human nature was not pure essentially, so most people would have the infinite desire. Only by constant self-cultivation can they reach the highest realm of the rational spirit. This theory emphasized the kindness of human nature was really important and more emotional desires would eventually lead to evil, which had a deep impact on Chinese moral concept. Traditional Confucianism told young children that they came to the world with a pure and kind heart from the very beginning, but when they grew up, they became morally corrupt and degenerate. At the same time, children had always been cultivated into those who should have a modest attitude to anyone when they began to their family education, so they were highly hoped by their parents to try to become what their parents had expected, which was also the ultimate goal of traditional Chinese education.

2. Americans' Mixed Orientation

The Puritans of the United States considered the humanity as both good and bad, which inherited from the westerners. They always firmly believed that if you followed the steps of God, you would save the evil side of humanity. They also believed that as long as they followed the rules and regulations of the Bible, including making efforts to survive, controlling their own desires, and achieving perfect self-restraint, they would eventually be able to be free from the suffering and gain their own happiness. So human nature was a mixture of kindness and evil in Americans' eyes, which always changed with the environment. Americans clarified all kinds of human evils according to the famous Seven Deadly Sins in the United States. If people did something good in bad situations and got redemption through confession, they would finally go into heaven, which represented the characteristics of the variable human nature. Nowadays, however, they were more willing to believe that people could escape from evil humanity, not only just by believing in God, but also by virtue of the good education and environment. The typical example embodies in the US political system. The American Judicial, legislative and executive departments and media reporters always paid more attention to the president's words and deeds, ensuring that nothing evil things would be done by him. As soon as there was something mistake he had made, he would be punished and dismissed immediately. The different way of the criticism of human nature in government's power mechanism between the United States and China showed that the federal government is unable to take power, whose rights were always supervised by other agencies, such as the image of the president and the state officials, to ensure that they never abused power and never violate the rights of the people. If they really did such things, they would be severely punished and even stepped down from the post. The attitude towards humanity in modern western values is not only influenced by religion, but also had a profound influence on Freud's psychological theory. He also believes that a baby was branded with sin when he was born, only by the continuous efforts can he become a healthy person. Based on the above argument, we know that it is the shame culture that constitutes the Chinese core value, while western value attaches importance to the sin culture. The former explained what they expected is always contrary to what they did in their life practice. And the latter is the representative of the sin culture, which means that human nature can be either good or evil, so it should be improved in their future life. This idea is not only spread by today's Americans through religion, but also publicized by means of educational and other

positive self-motivation methods, such as speeches, TV shows, and books, to share the ways how to successfully change them, which means good things tend to be positively improved and will become better and bad things always inclined to be negatively declined and will become even more worse. This distinction between good and bad can be found everywhere in society: superman can not only save the world, but also can defeat the evil forces; successful employees can be promoted quickly in the office, while frustrated employees in their career are immediately dismissed; celebrities who are aggressive will be sought after, and superstars who are infamous will disappear from people's sight. Based on the above analysis, we can draw the conclusion that in the Americans' eyes, human nature can be improved to a higher level where the sin from human can be purified.

C. *Different Attitudes towards the Time*

The attitudes to time in different cultures are also not the same.

1. Chinese Past Orientation

Traditional Chinese culture regarded historical heritage and cultural customs as a valuable asset, which was an important component in Chinese traditional culture. They believed that they could reveal what had happened in the past relying on historical clues, such as archeology. At the same time, they were also proud of having a long history and colorful culture which handed down from their ancestors who were always considered to have the invisible power to bring the good to the next generations and direct the way for their future life. The memory of history could be recorded in traditional culture from every aspect. It may be from a sentence, an article or a book, which could help you to understand everything in the world. Traditional Chinese believed that they could learn the experience from what had happened in the past. The pursuit of traditional history of thousands of years has kept people's minds from changing. Therefore, the Chinese people had a habit of drawing portray for the history, which was fully reflected in books, TV documentaries, music or story introductions. The Chinese are used to reminding of the various famous figures from different dynasties in ancient times. In addition, they also mourned their late relatives and family ancestors to affirm their historical achievements and showed the respect for them. The traditional Chinese always respected for what happened in the past before taking new actions or making new decisions. They believed that longer time they spent, easier for them to cope with when they were in trouble. For example, in a business negotiation, a topic would always be discussed for a long time. Chinese people are also inclined to respect the elderly, whose words should be followed by the younger generation as a symbol of wisdom.

2. Americans' Future Orientation

The Americans whose style of working is not limited to the original mode, they don't like following the old rules to do something. However, they are often determined to make great progresses and commit themselves to continuous innovation. People will never be willing to keep the present condition and follow the traditional social orders, they believe everything can be changed in every aspect, so they often try their best to improve themselves and achieve greater success. The idea is not only in their lives, but also in people's work, study, and family. For example, innovation has been ingrained in American concept. The products of Apple mobile phone have been updated for many times. However, in China, people are more inclined to trust old brands. When comparing with the past, Americans concern more about the future.

D. *Different Attitudes towards the Relationship*

The human attitude to relationship can roughly be divided into two types: collective or individualism orientation.

1. Chinese Collective Orientation

The way of Chinese behavior has a deep impact on Confucius who believed that in order to keep things stable, people should coexist harmoniously with everything around them. Most of the time, the Chinese are not used to showing their true feelings until they have observed what other people around them did and what they said. And they also consider that whether their own words and deeds are always consistent with others, so that they can better get along with others. In order to close contact with other members and live in the harmonious atmosphere, people should sacrifice themselves. Therefore, Chinese people like working together with their intimate friends to achieve their goals. When your own ideas conflict with collective decisions, you should give up your own benefit and keep in line with the collective opinion. The proverb Worrying before the Common People Worry; Enjoy only after the People can Enjoy better embodies this collectivist value.

2. Americans' Individual Orientation

Americans specially place an emphasis on individualism and believe that the existence value of a man is paramount. Because Americans can effectively be self-restrained, they can avoid being subjectively interfered by others, which may hinder the free development of individuals. If you count how many times the Americans use the prefix *self* in their daily life, you will know the importance of the concept of individualism. In fact, every American wants to be an entrepreneur who starts from scratch. Western philosophers believed that contradictions were ubiquitous in the world. From the formation of the universe, human beings have been trying their best to conquer the nature. If they can't get what they want or realize their ambitions, they won't admit that it is their own destiny and they are doomed to be a loser. The individualistic idea came from the Westward Movement, which left behind the invaluable cultural heritage to them. During the colonial period, the early American immigrants got rid of the rule from Europeans, which ended the feudal shackles of the colonists, but at the same time they lost the comfortable life of European civilized society. In order to

survive, they had to compete with the ancient Indians on this virgin continent and made them accustomed to using guns and axes to drive away the foreign invaders. This spirit made people look forward to building an ecological environment in which could be suitable for humans to settle down in the wilderness. Therefore, they have the characteristics of pursuing personal happiness, striving for individual rights, daring to challenge authority, encouraging free development, which can finally achieve the great success.

E. Different Attitudes towards the Human Actions

1. Chinese "Being" Orientation

Maintaining the tradition means pursuing a steady state of mind and a comfortable life. The aim of self-cultivation is to improve the moral standard through deep understanding of virtue and profound insights into arts. Only if the spiritual world of a man is rich enough can he live in harmony with the outside world, which more emphasizes the improvement of people's morality and spiritual realm, rather than paying too much attention to material wealth. Influenced on Hinduism and Buddhism, the congregation spent most of their time pondering their thoughts, feeling the true meaning of life, trying to purify themselves and finally wanted to achieve an overall improvement in their self-cultivation. Chinese traditional culture pays more attention to the thought of seeking stability, which reflected in many aspects. For example, no matter in the ancient or modern society, traditional Chinese women are taught to be quiet and elegant. It is their special character that they had made the exquisite embroidery crafts which are well-known to the world. The ancient Chinese people often called the place where they lived in hometown, and hoped to live there from their birth to death. Even when they faced such a huge disaster, such as war and famine, they were reluctant to leave it. Although they had to move to another place, they would let out the sigh in a famous poem: *Alone, a lonely stranger in a foreign land, I miss my dear ones far away on festival occasions more than ever*. There are three main reasons for this concept: First, Chinese civilization is based on agriculture, and the dependence on lands makes people from generations to generations have the special feelings for them, so it is hard to make people leave their original residence whether it is social factors or geographical environmental factors. Second, due to the special geographical location, the mountains and rivers on the borders of China isolated themselves from other neighboring countries, so it is difficult to better communicate with each other. Third, people helped and supported each other to lead stable and ease life, they could hardly change the idea that human and nature are harmonious. Still retaining the inherent ideology caused by the long-standing feudal system, most people unwilling to face change and migration. Li Dazhao once pointed out that the Eastern civilization belongs to a quiet one, which is quite in line with China's national character. Taoism advocates acting following natural law, which means that one should maintain the current state, so as to prevent confrontation from doing something. Similarly, people pay more attention to how you behaved than how many things you did. When talking about a person, people care about their background, such as their family, education, occupation, social status and so on, whether they are good fathers, mothers and teachers or not, which is quite different from the United States' opinions about personal achievement. So the concept of Chinese value is to keep stability.

2. Americans' "Doing" Orientation

The United States of America was founded less than 300 years. Some people say that it is a country with no history. They do not mean that the history of the United States is very short, but that Americans always look forward to the future and do not like dwelling on the past. Just as the old saying goes where there is a will, there is a way, Americans believe that everything is changeable all the time and never stops. They also believe that only by constantly exploring the universe, can human beings better control the nature. So they are dedicated to the development of science and technology to make full use of them. They strive to improve the living conditions of human beings, which make them have great confidence in the future. In short, for Americans, change, development, progress and possibility will bring a bright future to mankind. In American's eyes, judging whether a person is successful or not depends on what he has achieved. Just as another old saying goes Actions speak louder than words. In the American family, when there is something wrong with their tools, they will repair them by themselves, which is a common practice for them. There are some surnames in the United States, such as Baker, Blacksmith, Carpenter, etc., which comes from the name of a profession, which shows their attention to action. The style of doing things in Chinese culture is not appreciated by the Americans, who think that it is an immoral behavior to force oneself to cater to others, which is considered a negative behavior by them. People will be promoted and raised through hard work to meet their own desires and requirements.

V. REASONS FOR THE DIFFERENCES OF CULTURAL VALUES

A. Differences from History Background

Chinese culture has a history of 5,000 years. This long-established civilized society was based on the long-term feudal system, which had a highly concentrated rule and a single social consciousness. Influenced by the feudal system of the family conception, the goals of the people from the same family were highly unified, although they had different social status and occupations. On the basis of such ideology, people lived together with the elders and younger generations, so each person's identity and responsibility were subject to the social constraints. For the sake of harmony and stability, all members of the big family could even give up their personal wishes and work hard together to achieve the same goal. Under this condition, despite the close relationship between them was enhanced, the particularity of the individual had not been taken seriously. The core of social thought was collectivism, which meant the individual's will

could not violate the overall values of society. In Chinese traditional society, the basic principle of the Confucianism ethics morals was the Three Cardinal Guides: ruler guides subject, father guides son and husband guides wife, which embodied the strict hierarchy of feudal society, so different hierarchy would inevitably have different social status. In short, it is the collectivism, hierarchy, and social integration that constitute China's social ethical standards.

American history is very short compared to that of Chinese, but Americans always has a strong desire for pursuing individual freedom and rights. In order to get rid of the feudal rule of Europe, the early immigrants crossed the sea and reached the American continent to settle down, and finally defeated the British colonists and established the United States of America in 1776. Americans would fight against the forces that would limit their personal rights and freedoms, whether they are governments, churches, or other rights controllers. They were eager to have the power to decide their own destiny. So they eventually forced the King of England to give up jurisdiction over the Americans and admitted the independence of the United States. Americans don't like to rely on family or government, but want to change themselves and create everything possible through self-effort. The United States is also an immigrant country with a long history. When arriving at the New World, the immigrants from all over the world must overcome great difficulties and learn to survive in adversity in order to build a better life. Self-reliance, independence, and diligence are the invaluable qualities which they have passed down from generation to generation. For them, the old experience is less useful, so they must rely on themselves and face reality and learn to be independent. Instead of inheriting the legacy and rights from their ancestors, they usually make full use of opportunities to achieve new success, which formed Americans with broad mind and innovative spirit.

B. Differences from Religious Belief and Mode of Thoughts

The core concept of Chinese traditional philosophy is Human and Nature are Integrated, which emphasizes more about spirit and ethics. People believe that the destiny of a man is determined by heaven. However, the lack of logical theory of thinking, there is no subject and object in the natural sciences, which is quite different from the philosophical thinking under the western values of the United States. It comes from Confucius who paid more attention to Benevolence and Ritualism. In order to live in a harmonious society, people should be polite and respect each other. The thoughts of Taoism and Buddhism also have a huge impact on the Chinese. The outstanding representative of Taoism is Laozi who advocated that people should follow the rules of nature. And he also believed that everything is interrelated and independent. Therefore, we should learn to deal with it moderately and avoid extremes, otherwise we will get the opposite result. The Buddhist admits people's ignorance and weakness. They think that the fate is destined, so people should wait for the opportunity, rather than to change it. We can conclude that Confucianism teaches people how to deal with the relationship in society, while, Buddhism and Taoism emphasize how people correctly keep the interdependence contact with nature.

With the development and changes of American history, almost all the thoughts and customs from various nationalities had merged. After absorbing the essence of world civilization, the unique, diverse and open cultural value system had formed. However, the mainstream culture centered on the diligent and self-disciplined Puritan ethics had always occupied a major position. It was not only a religious concept, but also a philosophical thought and a moral standard, which laid the foundation of American characteristic. Puritans essentially denied the authority of the pope and the communication barrier between humans and God. They believed that they could communicate directly with God through personal comprehension. Their belief broke the shackles of the original ideology of the Roman church, and made them fully understand the importance of the individual, which determined their own belief, gaining freedom and inner independence. In their eyes, work is not only for survival, but also for fulfilling God's mission. Only by working hard can people gain more material wealth. Being lazy and doing nothing will be punished by God. Wanting to cater to God's will, people consider job as an indispensable responsibility and a holy mission. This kind of ideology promoted people to actively create social resources and formed their adventurous and enterprising spirit.

VI. CONCLUSION

Since the reform and opening up, China has made tremendous achievements in both economy and social development. At the same time, traditional Chinese values are also influenced by foreign cultures, especially the American culture. Some of them have already been integrated with Chinese culture, while others haven't, but they are still accepted by the public. Traditional values are experiencing a huge internal change after frequently contacting with the outside world. People in economically developed regions are more likely to accept new things than those in underdeveloped regions. So it is easier for them to change their traditional minds. Traditional Chinese social system is basically hierarchical. However, the concept of equality and competition has replaced it as the theme of the modern era. There is a certain connection between them, that is, equality is a prerequisite for competition. When companies recruit new employees, they often base on an open, transparent, and fair principle. Although the results may not be entirely satisfactory, they do offer some opportunities for employees, students and other people to ensure that they will have equal rights in promotion and competition.

It is a fact that western cultures, especially American cultures, have permeated in Chinese daily life. We often see a group of young Chinese eating KFC and McDonald as breakfast at Christmas while watching the Hollywood blockbuster in the cinema, so we need to re-evaluate the vitality of American culture. In modern society, people from

different countries begin to learn each others' excellent culture, in order to eliminate unnecessary misunderstandings in communication, improve the communication efficiency, and finally achieve mutual benefit. We should of course strive to melt the essence of other cultures into our own, but cultural exchange is by no means a single-way cultural transplant, but a process of integration of various excellent cultures. Both Chinese and American cultures have their own strengths. Therefore, while learning the American culture, we should also strive to promote China's excellent traditional culture. Only by doing this, can we reconstruct a new social core value system with Chinese characteristics and ultimately promote the common development of human civilization.

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The Confrontation between Desire and Morality: A Study of the Freudian Tendency in *Sister Carrie*

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Abstract—Theodore Dreiser's *Sister Carrie* (1900) suffered sharp criticism at the very moment of their appearance. Most critics and readers pointed out he depicted something amoral, especially on sexual amorality. Yet, with the development of feminism, a few years later *Sister Carrie* was appraised as the model of 'new woman' of the late 19th century. In the light of Freudian thought, the paper will not only draw attention to the confrontation between desire and morality but also to the effects of human inner mind in the external world in attempt to explore the permanent factors that influence human's actions.

Index Terms—psychoanalyses, id, ego, superego

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1900, in the American literature field, the appearance of the book, *Sister Carrie* aroused great attentions of the readers as well as the reviewers. During the weeks immediately following its release, both the novel itself and its heroine Carrie were bombarded with an onslaught of unfavorable reviews. All the critics sharpened their literary knives with which they dissected the lyrical depiction of a woman's developing degeneration, the amoral disposition of *Sister Carrie* and the lustful characters in it. The novel was regarded with the aggrandizement of sexual impurity as vulgar, unwholesome, and unholy. The public was appalled by the fact that Dreiser did not share the traditional moral ideas of America. They blasted him for his portrait of a world from which the obligations of parenthood, marriage and citizenship have been mostly withdrawn.

Ironically, only a few years later, with the emergence of women's liberation movement and the rise of feminism, attitude towards Carrie and this novel completely changed. Once regarded as amoral woman, Carrie was now appraised as the model of 'new woman' of the late 19th century. She implied the new type of female role "with more freedom in society, more independence, more ability to run her own life without being tied to a family, or without being tied to a husband" (Donald Pizer, 1991, p. 481).

It is evident that the fundamental divergence lies in the attitude toward Carrie's implacable pursuit of desire and the way she gets it. However, due to such external factors as social background and standard of judgment, it is hard to get a fair understanding of this character. Hence, this paper intends to probe into the inner world of the heroine in light of Freudian thought, which can address itself to the point. It will start from Freud's original insight concerning "the determining force that results in the social behavior of human beings in an attempt to reveal what causes such completely different responses" (Elizabeth Wright, 1984, p.1). Through textual analysis, with the help of psychoanalysis, this paper will draw attention to the effects of human inner minds in their external world so as to explore what happens when primordial force directs into social activities which are permanent no matter whether the outside changes or not.

One area of human behaviors explored in Theodore Dreiser's *Sister Carrie* that has essential implication for psychoanalytic criticism is found in Carrie's constant pursuit of desire portrayed in the novel. For those who did not view the novel from a psychoanalytic perspective, what aroused the great attention of the book, is Carrie's degeneration by her unpractical desire. Through a psychoanalytic reading, however, the interest created by Carrie's experience lies not in its so-called larruping behavior---violating the social morality, but in the ways how it mirrors all the mind activities portrayed in the novel and thereby reveals a pattern of psychological behavior. This pattern is grounded in the character's fury contradiction between her id, ego, and superego---the three division of personality Freud puts which result in human behaviors and activities.

II. TEXT ANALYSES

A. Governed by Id: Pursue the Happiness

Take a panoramic view of the life of Carrie. She is a piece of bait of id present from the beginning of the story on which Freud interpreted as the pleasure principle that is exerted by desire. It is the desire for true love, an ideal life, a spiritual independence, and a physical satisfaction. It pushes Carrie to act, violate the social morality, and finally change from a once bright, timid girl to a mistress of two rich men and later a person who in order to satisfy her increasingly bulged desire, discards her lover in an attempt to pursue money and happiness.

In psychoanalytic terms, desire or drives is the result of working of id in the human mind. As Freud (1949) defines in *The Ego and the Id*, the three different agencies (id, ego, and superego) in human minds, are the instinctual drives that spring from the constitutional needs of the body. The id situating at the lowest stratum of people's mind is in chaos. It presents the part of the human personality that strives for the satisfaction of basic needs and desires, especially the prohibited desires, for example, the desire for power, for love, for food. Here for Carrie, the id is specified as the material desire for comfort, affluent life and sexual desire for romantic love.

Driven by her pleasure principle, Carrie, from the very beginning, is described as a girl who is the younger daughter of a worker in the flour mill in the middle west of Columbia. Not satisfied with her life in hometown and desiring to gain in material things in the mysterious city, Carrie leaves her home and comes to Chicago to pursue her dream of comfort, affluence, status, and security. With the social and financial advance over the miserable narrowness that characterizes the home life of the sister with whom she has been living, Carrie begins, even more, to recognize class differences, to long for 'better' things. After a sequence of frustration, a tedious round of job-hunting and then immersion in a dreary job, Carrie keeps her dream, her desire all the time, although sometimes she has a sense of loss and depression in the swarming city. Although lonely and disappointed, she always relaxes by sitting in the rock-chair by dreaming her realized desire. She is entirely indulged into the imagination of the joy the money would bring to her. "This money cleared for its prospective possessor the way to every joy and every bauble which the heart of a woman may desire" (Theodore Dreiser 1992, p. 23). Carrie's id's pleasure principle which works strongly in her mind, has become an invisible force to her which drives her to try all means to achieve the needs or desire of her body.

Governed by the pleasure principle, the id is blind, confused and irrational. Although it is the internal agency, it often acts as a dynamic in the "psychical apparatus" and comes into being out of the body to force human beings to achieve the optimal satisfaction of its need (Jolande Jacobi, 1969, p. 145).

Therefore, enslaved by her id, which is exerted as her unpractical desire, Carrie is easy prey to Drouet who can in the first period satisfy her desire of a life free from poverty and hunger. Therefore, later, with her blind aspiration toward something more attractive, she begins to sense Drouet's limitations that can never meet her increasingly bulged desire. When she is still living with Drouet, she craves pleasure and position intensely. Drouet's friend Hurstwood, manager of a prosperous saloon, with a fine house, represents the next higher ladder of her satisfaction of drives. So, under the drive of desire which in Freud's words, the strong force of pursuit of pleasure, Carrie is again easy prey to Hurstwood who belongs to a higher social class than Drouet. In Carrie's view, Hurstwood represents power, wealth, and joy that poor Carrie cannot actually conceive but constantly desires. Hence, Carrie who dreams of happiness she may never feel, longs simultaneously for that "peace and beauty which glimmered afar off" and that radiance of delight which tints the distant hilltops of the world" (394). At last, she remains a drifting dreamer crippled by incompatible impulses that is indeed her id, which she exhibits from the very early in the novel.

B. Function of Superego: Confined by Morality

Appalled by Carrie's crazy for her desire and the consequent actions she does which result from the drive of id, readers also sense she is not totally free from the morality, which is inherited, in her mind as superego. Superego is the representative of parental and social influences upon the drives, rather than an external agency. It is in direct opposition to the id, the pleasure principle. It determines which desires or the id will contain. Therefore, it is also called cultural taboos. Since human beings cannot be very isolated from society, the influences of social moralities and conventions are strongly inherited in our mind exerted by the superego. It can be well-proved by the situation when Carrie is continually in the conflict between morality and desire.

When Carrie decides to perpetrate something violating the common moral law, she is often in two minds struggling in individual desire and morality. For example, when she first meets Drouet in the house he rents for her which symbolizes she will be the mistress of him, she is attracted by the comfort, cozy place; she seems to have realized her dream. However, when she looks at the mirror, finding the beautiful self, she hesitates and wavers. There, she hears a different voice, with which she argues, pleads and excuses. "It was not just and sapient counselor, in its last analysis. It was only an average little conscience, a thinking which represented the world, her past environment, habit, convention, in a confusing way" (Theodore Dreiser 1992, p. 80). It is the function of the superego that reminds Carrie of the moral principles, and always confines her id for pursuing unpractical happiness. The two selves --- the id-driven Carrie and the moral-fettered Carrie argue and debate all the time.

C. Mediation of Ego: Balance the Desire and the Moral Law

These constant conflicts in Carrie's mind reveal another psychological phenomenon in human minds that is the mediation of ego. According to Carl Gustav Jung, the human mind is the center of confliction forces beginning in childhood and following a developmental course throughout an individual's life (Jolande Jacobi, 1969). His words reveal the interplay of forces within the mind. The three personalities are not isolated but interacted. Besides the id,

which pursues the pleasure principle, in the human mind, superego represents the individual's moral orientation. Mentioning the id and superego, Jung stated, the self in the course of its life experience (but particularly in middle life) struggling on the one hand with images of absolute pleasures, on the other hand with the demands made by social norms (Anna Freud, 1966, p. 33). Then usually the superego and the id are always in the state of confrontation. It can be shown by Carrie's self-debates in her all life which explains why Carrie cannot do everything at will without any hesitation because there are social influences exemplified as morality inherited in her mind.

The role in mediating the antagonism between id and superego is ego, which attempts to balance the desire which id arises and the moral law. The body interacts with the external environment while the "ego" mediates the actions of the body so as to achieve the optimal satisfaction of its needs. Indeed, it is the combat of the reality principle and the pleasure principle, in which the body has to obey the social demands by postponing pleasure and enduring a degree of unpleasure. It is what ego supposed to do. In Carrie, although when her id for desire bulges, her superego's morality does function to warn her "you shouldn't". Her ego indeed executes its task to mediate the antagonism. These can be shown by Carrie's sex desire and sex selection, desire and moral bond through her story, which indeed reflects the bout between id, ego and superego.

Carrie at her first meet with Hurstwood is attracted by his elegant appearance. She feels she is pleasure with him in the immediate thing and is thoroughly impressed. She never comes in contact with such grace (Theodore Dreiser 1992, p. 75). The virile man who is with a cosmopolitan charm kindles her desire. "She is delicately molded in sentiment, and answers with vague ruminations to certain wistful chords. They awake longing" (Theodore Dreiser 1992, p. 77). As a poor girl living by the friendly aid of others, her first demand is undoubtedly for material sufficiency, yet her desire for a lover has been embedded in her heart. Though she sees comparatively little of Hurstwood, she always keeps in mind of him by one thing and another, principally by the strong impression he has made (Theodore Dreiser 1992, p. 87). She feels his glance is as effective as the spoken word of a lover. Here Carrie's superego functions. It tells her she must not secretly make a connection with another man while living with Drouet. The mediation of successful ego works. Thus, Carrie keeps her surging feelings and desires in silence. At the thought of Drouet's help and kindness, she exclaims, "you mustn't" when Hurstwood touches her hand. She finds herself is affected by a feeling of trouble and shame. She thinks, "I am getting terrible. I don't seem to do anything right" (Theodore Dreiser 1992, p. 90). The sense of morality promotes her to refuse and to introspect. When the initial desire is aroused, Carrie is hesitant. Facing lust and morality, struggling between id and superego as well as ego, she wanders and chooses.

Later, Carrie's initial desire gradually develops into a more throbbing one, which reflects Freud's view that the id is the great reservoir of libido and always drives people to be amoral. At the same time the superego plays the role of controlling the lust. Strong desires she holds, she is still deep in the struggle between sexual selection and traditional morality.

The conflict of desire and morality, or id and superego, makes ego to mediate it. The result is to bring Carrie spiritual solitude. It seems that it is Hurstwood who first lures Carrie. Yet Carrie's longing for such a graceful lover is an unproblematic fact. The perfect impression Hurstwood gives her sets the basis of her developing desire. Hurstwood's great strength, high position and rich clothing all appeal to her. Pleasure principle, like a catalytic agent, pushes her to do as she expects. Her failure in sensing love from the husband or benefactor urges her to seek real lovers who can gratify her both physically and spiritually. Carrie, to some extent, is too indulgent with herself on sexuality. Her desire for love is greatly influenced by the social status and wealth of men.

Nevertheless, when she yields sufficiently to Hurstwood, she gives thought to Drouet, and her sympathies are for the first aroused. She even looks for something that would calm her conscience (Theodore Dreiser 1992, p. 101). Here, Carrie is not overwhelmed by desire. One element of the superego---conscience, is still there in her greedy mind.

Dreiser writes in *Sister Carrie* among women there is a bias towards affection, a craving for the pleasure of being loved frequently exist. The longing to be shielded, bettered, sympathized wish, is one of the attributes of the sex (Theodore Dreiser 1992, p. 161). As women who are in great need of true love in their lives, the desire for ideal passion is understandable in some sense. Besides, Carrie never abandons the morality principle. The two folds of a person's superego, shame and guilt accompany them all the time and the struggle between sexual desire and moral code never end in their hearts.

For Carrie, Hurstwood adds sunshine for her joyless loves. Her temporary attachment to Drouet reflects Freud's view that sexual instinct (part of id) is in two folds, one for gratification and the other for survival (Arthur L. Caplan, 1984, p. 206). In order to pursue sexual satisfaction, Carrie yields to Drouet mostly for living.

Carrie's attachment to Drouet is moved by her desire for survival and a better life. She has strived and attempted to realize her ideals but in vain. Just at the very moment, she is in the depression of joblessness, Drouet appears. In first glance, Carrie beholds him and feels he is radiant. For her, he is the symbol of sunshine and good-humor. She finds there is a strange tie of affection draws her to him, and she has the kindest feelings for him in every way. However, Carrie is not merely lured by Drouet's expensiveness. She is other deterred by conscience. She thinks she owes something to Drouet. Every time Drouet provides aids, she would hesitate for a while. Her wandering between the lust and moral consciousness indicates that she is not thoroughly controlled by instinctive desire.

In the whole life of Carrie's conflicting life, her id, superego and ego are always contradicting each other.

III. INFLUENCES OF THE THREE PERSONALITIES

The result that Carrie is regarded as immoral is only because, in the psychoanalytic lens, her id-driven desire is so strong to confine. Whenever her id wants to bind over the bondage of superego, the ego tries to control and mediate the differences. Yet, the id for the better life and romantic love is too strong, which can bound up with certain conventions and moral, continuously push Carrie to unconsciously combat against the counterforce exerted by ego. So, at the time when the id's energy is too strong to confine, it can liberate the self in its efforts to achieve pleasures and avoid unpleasures. Briefly speaking, although the ego is seen as in part constructed from the instinctual energies, it connives with them as much as it controls them. The energies (id) are also operative in the superego, particularly in their destructive form aggression upon ego. Therefore, the censorship of the ego can be subverted, when the ego cannot efficiently repress the id's desire, and the drives or wishes can get out and become the dominant force that controls human minds.

Therefore, it is easily inferred that Carrie becomes so desire-dominated girl who can sacrifice her virtue and credit to seek for the desire she possesses for the time and upgrades frequently. In the novel, Dreiser expresses, "In Carrie, as in how many of worldlings do they not, instinct and desire, were at war for the mastery; she followed whither her craving led. She was as yet more drawn than she drew" (Theodore Dreiser 1992, p. 73-74).

However, pleasure is never wholly or finally achievable. As Freud pointed out, the id can provide both the direction and motivation to accomplishment, but too strong; it can destroy the human being. Since the mind is in a completely structured system, although the id can bound the superego and overwhelm ego for some time, it cannot always be. Finally, the ego balances and gives the final judgment of the conflicts between the id and the superego that is exerted by the reality (Frank J. Sulloway, 1979, p. 93). For Carrie, her fate is greatly influenced or dominated by the pleasure principle id and restrained by the moral principle superego.

Yet at last, it is the reality that guides her way of life. The solidarity of Carrie is just under the control of reality; the dream of perfect enjoyment is disillusioned. She feels lonely; there is little to do. Finding nowhere to go, she is peculiar, lonely, and self-withdrawing, temperamental and void.

IV. CONCLUSION

Similar to Carrie, in our real life, we often wander between pleasure and ethic controlled by id and superego, and finally are mediated and judged by the real ego.

The psychoanalytic approach reveals a much different aspect of judgment, the one ordinarily associated with Sister Carrie. As the novel illustrates, Carrie's rise-up and fall-down is the stage upon which all of our invisible psychological conflicts are dramatized, repeatedly, day and night. Indeed, it is the incessantly mechanical function that deducts ourselves' inner world that always conflicts and balances.

Whether it intends to do so or not, Sister Carrie is created not as a degenerated woman who corrupts public morals or a model 'new woman' who dares to break the moral bond. Instead, she is vividly created as an actual human being who is often controlled by desire (id), and conflicts in the desire and morality and reality.

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