Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Equivalence in Translation Theories: A Critical Evaluation

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Abstract—The concept of equivalence can be said to hold a central position in translation studies. Nevertheless, it has been a rather controversial one, causing many heated debates among translators as to its nature, definition and applicability. The aim of the present paper is to provide a critical evaluation of the most influential equivalence theories that have been proposed by scholars in the field, such as Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), Jakobson (1959), Nida and Taber (1969), Catford (1965), House (1997), Koller (1979), Newmark (1981), Baker (1992), and finally, Pym (2010). These theories are presented so as to provide a better understanding of how the concept evolved. It is concluded that the usefulness or not of the concept of equivalence to the translation process varies according to the stance of the translators concerned on what they regard are the virtues of equivalence itself.

Index Terms—equivalence, translation theories, source-language, target-language

I. INTRODUCTION

The process of translation has existed for millennia, thus facilitating both linguistic and cultural transfer. As a discipline, however, it began to develop in the second half of the twentieth century under the name "translation studies" which was proposed by the scholar James Holmes (1972). This term was widely accepted because it envisaged translation as a broad discipline shifting emphasis to neglected areas of translation such as interpreting and translator training. Perhaps, the biggest contribution of James Holmes (1988) lies in his attempt to draw the map of the 'territory' of translation studies. On closer inspection of the map, translation studies can be divided into two main areas; that is, *pure* and *applied*. There is a dual objective of pure translation studies; firstly, to provide a description of the various translation phenomena as these occur; and, secondly, to develop general principles through which these phenomena can be adequately explained. The former objective falls under the rubric of *descriptive translation studies* (DTS) and the latter under the rubric of *translation theory*, both being subsections of pure translation studies.

Furthermore, descriptive translation studies focus on three areas of research, namely, *product-oriented DTS* (text-centered studies which aim at investigating existing translations), *process-oriented DTS* (studies which are primarily interested in the mental processes that occur in translation) and *function-oriented DTS* (studies which seek to describe the function of translations in the target sociocultural situation). The results of DTS research can then be applied to translation theory to develop either a general translation theory or partial translation theories restricted according to *medium* (human vs. machine translation), *area* (specific linguistic or cultural groups), *rank* (focusing on specific linguistic levels, such as that of the word or the sentence), *text-type* (dealing with specific genres, for instance literary vs. business translation), *time* (dealing with particular periods of time) and *problem* (dealing with a specific translation problem, such as metaphor translation).

The 'applied' subdivision of Holmes' map has a more practical orientation and is mainly concerned with *translation training* (referring to teaching methods, testing techniques and curriculum planning), *translation aids* (referring to IT applications, dictionaries, translation software, on-line databases and the use of the internet), *translation policy* (drawing on the role of both translators and translations in society, as well as on the place and role of translating in society) and *translation criticism* (mainly addressing issues of revision and evaluation of translations).

It is worth mentioning that theoretical, descriptive and applied areas of translation studies influence one another and are dialectical in nature. This view is in direct opposition to Toury's thesis that translator training and criticism do not have a central position in translation studies but are viewed as 'extensions' of the discipline. In particular, Toury (1995) holds that the poles of theoretical and descriptive translation studies on the one hand, and what he names the 'Applied Extensions', on the other, have a unidirectional relationship.

Although Holmes' map has been criticised (Pym, 1998; Vandepitte, 2008), it could be argued that Holmes' divisions offer a flexible separation of the various areas of translation studies, thus indicating the great potential of the discipline. His simple, scientifically-framed and hierarchically-arranged categories not only identify but also interrelate the multiplicity of things that can be done in translation studies. But although, historically, this could be viewed as a legitimate point of departure, it should be mentioned that what translation studies represent simply cannot be depicted in this one map, since the discipline continues to evolve dynamically, thus revealing ever more of its interdisciplinary character as time goes on. Despite of its versatility, the concept of equivalence has always been an intriguing issue in the discipline of translation studies as will be subsequently discussed.

II. THE CONCEPT OF EQUIVALENCE

The concept of equivalence has been of particular concern to translation scholars since it has been inextricably linked with both definitional and practical aspects of translating. Becoming an essential feature of translation theories in the 1960s and 1970s, equivalence was meant to indicate that source text (henceforth ST) and target text (henceforth TT) share some kind of 'sameness'. The question was as to the kind and degree of sameness which gave birth to different kinds of equivalence. In what follows, an attempt will be made to critically analyze the equivalence paradigm as was conceptualized by the following scholars in the field, namely, Vinay and Darbelnet (1958), Jakobson (1959), Nida and Taber (1969), Catford (1965), House (1997), Koller (1979), Newmark (1981), Baker (1992), and finally, Pym (2010).

III. A CRITICAL EVALUATION OF THE CONCEPT OF EQUIVALENCE

A. Vinay and Darbelnet

Jean-Paul Vinay and Jean Darbelnet produced their *Stylistique Comparée du Français et de l' Anglais* (1958) which is a comparative stylistic analysis of the different translation strategies and procedures used in French and English. In its English version, first published in 1995, they distinguish between *direct* and *oblique* translation, the former referring to literal translation and the latter to free translation (p. 84). Moreover, they propose seven procedures, the first three covered by direct translation and the remaining four by oblique translation. These procedures are: borrowing, calque, literal translation, transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation. In particular, it is argued that equivalence is viewed as a procedure in which the same situation is replicated as in the original but different wording is used (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995, p. 32). Through this procedure, it is claimed that the stylistic impact of the source-language (henceforth SL) text can be maintained in the target-language (henceforth TL) text. Hence, when dealing with proverbs, idioms and clichés, equivalence for them is sought at the level of sense and not image. For example, the idiom *comme un chien dans un jeu de quilles* meaning literally *like a dog in a set of skittles* could be translated *like a bull in a china shop* (cited in Munday, 2001, p. 58).

Furthermore, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) consider as a necessary and sufficient condition for equivalent expressions between language pairs to be acceptable to be listed in a bilingual dictionary "as full equivalents" (p. 255). Nevertheless, they realized the utopia of such a statement by admitting that glossaries and collections of idiomatic expressions are non-exhaustive (p. 256). In other words, the rendering of an equivalent of an expression in the SL text in a dictionary or glossary does not suffice or guarantee a successful translation since the context surrounding the term in question plays an equally important role in determining the translation strategy employed. They conclude by stating that the situation is what determines the need for creating equivalences. So translators are encouraged to firstly look in the situation of the ST in order to come up with a solution (p. 255).

B. Jakobson

The structuralist Roman Jakobson (1959) maintains that there are three kinds of translation, that is, *intralingual* (rewording or paraphrasing within one language), *interlingual* (rewording or paraphrasing between two languages), and *intersemiotic* (rewording or paraphrasing between sign systems). It is *interlingual translation* that has been the focus of translation studies.

More specifically, when addressing the thorny problem of equivalence in meaning between words in different languages, he immediately stresses the fact that there can be no full equivalence between two words (Jakobson, 1959/2000, p. 114). He cites the example of *cheese* in English by saying that it is not identical to the Russian *syr* – the concept of cottage cheese not being included in the latter. Jakobson does not propose that translation is impossible but rather pinpoints the differences in the structure and terminology of languages.

On closer inspection of the aforementioned views on equivalence, one may claim that there are some similarities between Vinay and Darbelnet's theory of translation and Jakobson's. Adopting a linguistic approach, they both argue that translation is possible despite cultural or grammatical differences between SL and TL. They both recognize the fact that the role of the translator should not be neglected and acknowledge some limitations of the linguistic approach, thus allowing the translator to also rely on other procedures that will ensure a more effective and comprehensive rendering of the ST message in the target text.

C. Nida and Taber

The contribution of Eugene Nida in the field of translation studies cannot be overstressed, with his two famous books in the 1960s: *Toward a Science of Translating* (1964) and the co-authored *The Theory and Practice of Translation* (Nida and Taber, 1969), attempting to give a more "scientific" sense to translation. Borrowing theoretical concepts from semantics and pragmatics, and being influenced by Chomsky's generative-transformational grammar (1965), Nida adopts a more systematic approach to exploring the field of translation studies.

With regard to equivalence, Nida maintains that there are two basic types of equivalence: (1) *formal equivalence* and (2) *dynamic equivalence*. In particular, Nida argues that in formal equivalence the TT resembles very much the ST in both form and content whereas in dynamic equivalence an effort is made to convey the ST message in the TT as naturally as possible. It could be argued that Nida is in favour of dynamic equivalence since he considers it to be a more

effective translation procedure. This comes as no surprise given the fact that Nida was, at the time at which he proffered his views about equivalence, translating the Bible, and hence trying to produce the same impact on various different audiences he was simultaneously addressing. Nida's preference is more clearly stated in Nida and Taber's edition (1969) since it is argued that dynamic equivalence in translation goes beyond correct communication of information (p. 25).

As Munday (2001) points out, Nida is credited for introducing a receptor-based direction to the task of translating (p. 42). Nevertheless, Nida's theory has been severely criticized for several reasons. In more detail, Lefevere (1993, p. 7) holds that equivalence is still focused on the word-level whereas Broeck (1978) wonders how it is possible to measure the equivalent effect since no text can have the same effect or elicit the same response in two different cultures in different periods of time (p. 40). Perhaps, the fiercest critic of Nida's work is Edwin Gentzler, who dedicates a whole chapter to the 'science' of translation in his *Contemporary Translation Theories* (2001), using quotation marks around the word *science* perhaps in order to indicate his own sceptical views on the scientific virtue of translation methods. Gentzler overtly criticizes Nida for using the concept of dynamic equivalence in order to proselytize readers, regardless of their culture, to endorse the ideas of Protestant Christianity.

Despite these criticisms, it could be concluded that Nida moved a long way forward from the position of his predecessors because he was able to produce a systematic and analytical procedure for translators working with all kinds of texts and, more importantly, brought into the translation game, the readers; that is, the receptors, as well as their cultural expectations.

D. Catford

Catford's main contribution in the field of translation studies lies in the introduction of his idea of *types* and *shifts* of translation. *Shifts* refer to the changes that take place during the translation process. More specifically, Catford describes very broad types of translation according to three criteria. Firstly, *full translation* is contrasted with *partial translation* which differs according to the extent of translation. Secondly, *total translation* differs from *restricted translation* according to the levels of language involved in translation, and, thirdly, Catford distinguishes between *rank-bound translation* and *unbounded translation*, depending on the grammatical or phonological rank at which equivalence is established.

Since the interest of this paper lies in equivalence, I will be mainly concerned with the third type of translation, and I will provide an analysis of the notion of *shifts*. With regard to translation shifts, Catford (1965) defines them as departures from formal correspondence when translating from the SL to the TL (p. 73). Moreover, he maintains that there are two main types of translation shifts, that is, *level shifts* (where an SL item at one linguistic level, for example grammar, has a TL equivalent at a different level, for instance lexis) and *category shifts*, which are divided into (a) structure-shifts involving change in grammatical structure, (b) unit-shifts involving changes in rank, (c) class-shifts involving changes in class, and (d) intra-system shifts which occur internally when source and target language systems share the same constitution but a non-corresponding term in the TL is selected when translating (p. 80).

Catford was severely criticized for holding a largely linguistic theory of translation. Snell-Hornby (1988) puts forward the claim that linguistics should not be considered as the only discipline which enables translation to take place, but that cultural, situational and historical factors should also be taken into consideration (p. 19-20). Moreover, she goes on to claim that Catford's definition of textual equivalence is "circular", his reliance on bilingual informants "hopelessly inadequate" and his example sentences "isolated and even absurdly simplistic" (cited in Leonardi, 2007, p. 87). However, Malmkjaer (2005) insightfully observes that one should bear in mind that when Catford (1965) defines translation as the replacement of SL textual material by TL equivalent textual material (p. 20) he does not mean equivalent in meaning (cited in Malmkjaer, 2005, p. 24).

E. House

Adopting pragmatic theories of language use, House (1997) has come up with a translation model in which the basic requirement for equivalence of ST and TT is that original and translation should match one another in function. This function should be achieved by employing equivalent pragmatic means. The translation is only, therefore, considered to be adequate in quality if it matches the 'textual' profile and function of the original.

In more detail, carrying out contrastive German-English discourse analyses, House has distinguished between two basic types of translation, namely, *overt translation* and *covert translation*. As the term itself denotes, an overt translation points to a TT that consists of elements that 'betray' that it is a translation. On the other hand, a covert translation is a TT that has the same function with the ST since the translator has made every possible effort to alleviate cultural differences. In conclusion, it could be argued that House's theory seems more flexible than Catford's since it incorporates the pragmatic aspect of translation by using authentic examples.

F. Koller

One of the most prominent German scholars working in the field of translation studies is Werner Koller. Koller's (1979) *Einführung in die Übersetzungswissenschaft* (*Introduction into the Science of Translation*) is a detailed examination of the concept of equivalence and its linked term *correspondence*. In particular, *correspondence* involves the comparison of two language systems where differences and similarities are described contrastively, whereas *equivalence* deals with equivalent items in specific ST-TT pairs and contexts.

In an effort to answer the question of what is equivalent to what, Koller (1979) distinguishes five different types of equivalence: (a) *denotative equivalence* involving the extralinguistic content of a text, (b) *connotative equivalence* relating to lexical choices, (c) *text-normative equivalence* relating to text-types, (d) *pragmatic equivalence* involving the receiver of the text or message, and, finally, (e) *formal equivalence* relating to the form and aesthetics of the text (p. 186-191). Having identified different types of equivalence, Koller (1979) goes on to argue that a *hierarchy of values* can be preserved in translation only if the translator comes up with a hierarchy of equivalence requirements for the target text (p. 89). Although the hierarchical ordering of equivalences is open to debate, Koller's contribution to the field of translation studies is acknowledged for bringing into translators' attention various types and ways in which the then fashionable desideratum of equivalence may be achieved.

G. Newmark

This paper would have been incomplete without reference to Peter Newmark, one of the founders of the Institute of Linguists and a fervent advocate for the professionalization of translators. Newmark's *Approaches to Translation* (1981) and *A Textbook of Translation* (1988) do not aim to promote any monolithic translation theory but rather attempt to describe a basis for dealing with problems encountered during the translation process. More specifically, Newmark replaces Nida's terms of formal and dynamic equivalence with *semantic* and *communicative translation* respectively. The major difference between the two types of translation proposed by Newmark is that semantic translation focuses on meaning whereas communicative translation concentrates on effect. In other words, semantic translation looks back at the ST and tries to retain its characteristics as much as possible. Its nature is more complex, detailed and there is also a tendency to over-translate. On the other hand, communicative translation looks towards the needs of the addressees, thus trying to satisfy them as much as possible. In this respect, communicative translation tends to under-translate; to be smoother, more direct and easier to read. Hence, in semantic translation a great emphasis is placed on the author of the original text whereas communicative translation is meant to serve a larger readership. It should be pointed out that during the translation process, communicative translation need not be employed exclusively over semantic or vice versa. It may well be the case in a literary text that a particular sentence requires communicative translation whereas another sentence from the same text may require a semantic one. Hence, the two methods of translation may be used in parallel, with varying focuses where each is employed.

Moreover, Newmark (1981) strongly believes that literal translation is the best approach in both semantic and communicative translation (p. 39). However, he is careful to note that when there is a conflict between the two forms of translation, then communicative translation should be favoured in order to avoid producing an abnormal, odd-sounding or semantically inaccurate result. In order to illustrate his point, he uses the example of the common sign *bissiger Hund* and *chien méchant*, which should be translated communicatively as *beware the dog!* instead of semantically as *dog that bites!* and *bad dog!* so that the message is communicated effectively (p. 39).

Although Newmark has been criticized for his prescriptivism (Munday, 2000, p. 46), the wealth of practical examples in his books constitutes a good advisory guide for both trainees and established translators.

H. Baker

Mona Baker in her influential book *In Other Words* (1992) addresses the vexing issue of equivalence by adopting a more neutral approach when she argues that equivalence is a relative notion because it is influenced by a variety of linguistic and cultural factors (p. 6). In particular, the chapters of her book are structured around different kinds of equivalence, that is, at the level of word, phrase, grammar, text and pragmatics. Hence, terms such as grammatical, textual and pragmatic equivalence come up. In more detail, a distinction is made between word-level and above-world-level equivalence. Adopting a bottom-up approach, Baker acknowledges the importance of individual words during the translation process, since the translator looks firstly at the words as single units in order to find their equivalent in the TL. Baker goes on to provide a definition of the term *word* referring to its complex nature since a single word can sometimes be assigned different meanings in different languages. Consequently, parameters such as number, gender and tense should be taken into consideration when translating a word (p. 11-12).

Grammatical equivalence refers to the diversity of grammatical categories across languages and the difficulty of finding an equivalent term in the TT due to the variety of grammatical rules across languages. In fact, she stresses that differences in grammatical structures may significantly change the way the information or message is carried across. As a consequence, the translator may be forced to add or delete information in the TT because of the lack of specific grammatical categories. Some of the major categories that often pose problems for translators are number, voice, person, gender, tense and aspect.

On the other hand, textual equivalence refers to equivalence that may be achieved between a ST and TT in terms of cohesion and information. Baker argues that the feature of texture is of immense importance for the translators since it facilitates their comprehension and analysis of the ST and helps them to produce a cohesive and coherent text in the TL. The translators' decision to maintain (or not) the cohesive ties as well as the coherence of the SL text mainly rests on three main factors; the target audience, the purpose of the translation and the text type.

Lastly, pragmatic equivalence deals mainly with implicature. Drawing from Grice (1975), Baker argues that the term implicature is used to refer to what is implied and not to literal meaning. In other words, the focus of interest is not on what is explicitly said but what is intended or implied in a given context. The role of the translator is to work out the

meaning of implicatures if these exist in the ST and transfer them to the extent that this is possible. The primary aim of the translator should be to recreate the intended message of the SL in such a way so that it becomes accessible and comprehensible to the target audience.

Baker's contribution to the field of translation studies is widely acknowledged on account of her providing a systematic approach to training translators through the elaboration of specific strategies that can be used to deal with the numerous translation problems translators encounter daily. Hence, by addressing both theoretical and practical issues in translation, this book forms a sound basis for translators.

I. Pym

Lastly, Pym (2010) makes his own contribution to the concept of equivalence by pointing out that there is no such thing as perfect equivalence between languages and it is always *assumed equivalence* (p. 37). In particular, for Pym (2010) equivalence is a relation of "equal value" between an ST segment and a TT segment and can be established on any linguistic level from form to function (p. 7). He goes on to distinguish between *natural* and *directional equivalence*. Natural equivalence exists between languages prior to the act of translating, and, secondly, it is not affected by directionality (p. 7). On the other hand, theories of directional equivalence give the translator the freedom to choose between several translation strategies which are not dictated by the ST. Although there are usually many ways of translating, the strategies for directional equivalence are reduced into two opposing poles; one adhering to SL norms and the other to TL norms. Perhaps, the most important assumption of directional equivalence is that it involves some kind of assymetry since when translating one way and creating an equivalent does not imply the creation of the same equivalent when translating another way (p. 26).

IV. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it could be argued that many translation theories are based on two opposing ways of translating. For example, Nida distinguishes between formal and dynamic equivalence, Newmark between semantic and communicative translation, Catford between formal correspondence and textual equivalence, House between overt and covert translation and Pym between natural and directional equivalence. These bipolar views of equivalence soon faded away and more attractive translation paradigms came to the forefront. Contrary to linguistic-oriented approaches to translation which assume that the source text occupies a supreme position and that it is considered to be of crucial importance in determining not only the translation process but also the extent to which it has been successful, target-*oriented approaches* view the source text as the point of departure for the translation process and mostly focus on the cultural, historical, and socio-political factors surrounding translation, thus looking at it as a culture-bound phenomenon. Despite of its shortcomings, it should be stressed that equivalence is still one of the pivotal definitory axes of translation since it functions as a reminder of the central problems a translator encounters during the translation process.

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Assessing Learners' Comprehension of Logical Connectives in L2 Texts

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Abstract—To successfully comprehend a text, readers must be able to establish coherent representation of its meaning. Construction of coherent text representation presupposes an ability to identify coherence relations that bind discourse segments together. These relations can be implicit or marked by a variety of linguistic devices such as logical connectives and signaling phrases. While there has been a growing awareness among the teachers and EFL material writers about the important role that knowledge of marker words plays in comprehension of L2 discourse, there is only a limited number of suitable test designs that allow assessment of learners' understanding of these words. The current paper summarizes the major findings of the research on the role of discourse markers in text processing and presents two test formats that could be used to measure students' understanding of conjunctions as text structure markers: a 'paraphrase' judgment task and text diagrams. The advantages and potential limitations of each test format are examined from both the teacher and the student perspectives.

Index Terms—logical connectives, reading comprehension, testing, sentence judgment task, text diagrams

I. INTRODUCTION

Comprehension entails development of coherent cognitive representations of semantic relationships in the texts. Mental representations of text meaning are built through interaction of various types of knowledge that the reader has about the world, text structure and the language itself. The construction of mental representations during reading requires from the reader ability to relate and integrate information from different segments of the text (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983). Relations that hold together different segments of the discourse are referred to as coherence relations. They can be implicit or explicit. While marking of coherence relations is not restricted to discourse markers, they are by far the most frequently studied discourse signaling tools.

Discourse markers include a large number of linguistic devices, some of which are grammatical and some of which are lexical in nature. Some discourse markers are used mostly in spoken language, while others are more common in formal writing styles. What they all have in common is that while their specific meaning is determined by the context, their core meaning is procedural, rather than conceptual (Fraser, 1999). They serve as directional guides for text receivers about how the incoming information should be interpreted and integrated with the preceding discourse segments (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Carpenter & Just, 1977), show the speaker's attitude to the content of the discourse (Swan, 1980), and indicate the relative importance of the ideas in the text (Jung, 2003). This means that while coherence relation are an intrinsic part of cognitive representations, linguistic markers are a surface code that can facilitate the process of formation of coherent text representations (Sanders & Noordman, 2000).

Based on their signaling function, discourse markers can be broadly divided into four groups: 1) previews (e.g., *There are four stages…*); 2) summarizers (e.g., *To sum up so far…*); 3) emphasis markers (e.g., *This is the key*), and 4) logical connectives (e.g., *and, or, first, second…*) (Jung, 2003). Logical connectives, also referred to as conjunctions, contribute to text cohesion by indicating the way in which a text segment is connected to what comes before or after. They serve as cues for the reader about how the text should be interpreted and contribute to the overall coherence of the discourse.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) identify four main types of conjunctive relations: 1) additive (e.g. *and, in addition, furthermore….etc.*); 2) adversative (e.g. *but, yet, on the contrary…etc.*); 3) causal (e.g. *so, therefore…etc.*); 4) temporal (e.g. *then, next, subsequently…etc.*). Another common type is illustrative conjunctions, which signal exemplification or further amplification of some aspect of the preceding information unit (Pretorius, 2006).

While it seems plausible to expect that explicit signaling of coherence relations would have a positive effect on text comprehension and the subsequent information recall, the existing empirical work has produced mixed results. Explicit discourse markers were found to improve performance of less-skilled readers in L1 (Marshall & Glock, 1978-1979; Meyer, Brandt & Bluth, 1981; Geva & Ryan, 1985), and to enhance comprehension of academic lectures of second language learners (Flowerdew, & Tauroza, 1995; Jung, 2003, 2006). There is also some evidence to suggest that text signaling results in the employment of more effective reading strategies. Loman and Mayer (1983) reported that signal words encouraged students to use more meaningful reading strategies as opposed to rote reading. Without the discourse cues, readers often perceive a text as a list of separate arbitrary units that need to be memorized. Conjunctions serve as text-structure markers, directing the reader's attention to the compositional aspects of the passage and helping them to

organize conceptual idea units into a coherent whole. Knowledge of logical connectives was also found to facilitate comprehension of the texts from unfamiliar domains. This is because, without the sufficient content schemata, readers tend to resort to the surface aspects of the texts and linguistic devices to help them to make inferences about the relationships between propositions in the text (Goldman & Murray, 1992). Experimental data also indicate that explicit marking of coherence relations leads to faster text processing (Haberlandt, 1982; Millis & Just, 1994; Sanders & Norman, 2000) and better recall of sentence-pairs (Caron, Micko & Thuring, 1988).

There are, however, some studies in which signaling cues were found no have no effect or only a limited impact on text comprehension. Firstly, some studies (e.g., Taboada, 2006) suggest that as much as 60% to 70% of semantic relations in both spoken and written corpora may be unmarked. Secondly, even when coherence relations are signaled in the text, it is not clear to what extent language receivers are aware of their presence (Sanders, Spooren & Noordman, 1993; Millis, Graesser & Haberlandt, 1993). In some studies, inclusion or elimination of conjunctions was found to have little effect on the perceived difficulty of the text. For example, in a series of experiments that Millis (1993) and her colleagues conducted, the reading difficulty ratings and reading times were equivalent for the no-connective and connective versions of the texts. Thirdly, the effect of discourse markers seems to depend on the nature of the relationship they mark and their position in the text. Chaudron and Richards (1986) found that while presence of macromarkers (i.e., discourse signals that indicate main transition points in the texts) improves listening comprehension of second language learners, micromarkers (i.e., cues that indicate inter-sentential relations) had no effect on student performance. Similar results were obtained by Chung (2000) who found that the presence of discourse markers facilitated understanding at the macrostructure level of reading, but had no effect at microstructure level between the segments of reading texts. Al-Surmi (2011) examined whether the presence of discourse markers improves text comprehension at a global level and found that explicit signaling of coherence relations had no effect on student performance. Finally, data from experimental studies suggests that inclusion of discourse markers does not necessarily facilitate retention of information. Millis et al. (1993) investigated the effect that the presence of discourse markers had on memory for expository texts and found that, not only did they not enhance the reader's memory, but on the contrary, they seemed to lead to fragmentation of cognitive representation of text information and interfere with its subsequent recall. Sanders and Noordman (2000) observed that, although explicit signaling phrases can increase the speed of text processing, this advantage seems to be limited to the encoding of coherence relations. Linguistic markers were found to have little effect on the subsequent recall of the propositions in the text.

The conflicting results of experimental research can be attributed to several factors. Firstly, there seem to be significant differences in distribution of discourse markers in spoken and written discourse. The study by Louwerse and Mitchell (2003) revealed as much as a 10 times higher incidence of the occurrence of discourse markers in spoken language. Marker words were also found to be twice as common in informal than in formal discourse. The discrepancies in the findings may also have resulted from the differences in distribution and function of marker words in different academic disciplines (Geva, 1992). Readers in different disciplines encounter different types of conjunctions, which often have diverse functions within a text, and which differ in the extent to which they contribute to text cohesion or facilitate the processing of the text. The failure to obtain the effect of signaling may also be due to the fact that many studies adopted the number of recalled information units as the standard of comparison for the student performance on signaled and non-signaled passages. As Loman and Mayer (1983) observed, the positive effect of signal words may not be reflected in the number of ideas recalled, but rather in their quality. While readers in both conditions may recall the same number of ideas, non-signaled versions often result in readers focusing on the first and last few ideas in the passage (*primacy* and *recency* effect), while signaled texts direct the reader's attention to the key conceptual information in the text. Another reason for the discrepancies in the findings may lie in differences in the processing load for different types of logical connectors. Some types of connectives are intrinsically more complex than the others. For example, while temporal connectives denote only time-order, causal connectives encompass both temporal and causal features (Millis et al., 1993). Furthermore, the processing load that connectives impose on the reader will also depend on whether the direction of perception (i.e., the direction of eye movement along text) coincides or collides with the direction or reasoning within the reader's mind (Ozono & Ito, 2003). Connectives that mark continuity in a discourse (i.e., additive, temporal, illustrative and causal relations) are processed more easily than adversative relations that signal discontinuity (Vonk & Noordman, 1990; Murray, 1997; Pretorius, 2006). As a result, without explicit marking adversative relationships are considerably more difficult to infer than temporal or causal relationships (Millis et al., 1993). The effect that connectives have on comprehension also depends on the extent to which the semantic relation that they mark contributes to the coherence of the text. For example, Sanders and Noordamn (2000) found that problem-solution relation contributes to text organization more than a listing relation. The results of the studies may also have been affected by manipulation of natural distribution of linguistic markers. In some studies, conjunctions were intentionally added to texts, which may have had a negative effect on the recall of propositions. As Millis (1993) and her colleagues observed, connectives that are unnatural to the normal interpretation of the text may have a negative effect on memory. Another factor to consider is the learners' proficiency level. Learners at lower levels of proficiency were found to be more affected by the type of logical relations and explicitness of discourse markers than higher-level learners (Nippold, Schwartz & Undlin, 1992; Chung, 2000; Ozono & Ito 2003). Finally, the differences in the results may have also been caused by the factors such as learners' familiarity with the formal and content schema, text type

(e.g., narrative vs. expository texts), and assessment procedures (Jung, 2003) and general frequency of occurrence of different logical connectives in natural language (Nippold et al., 1992).

While contradictory finings raise questions about the extent to which explicitness of linguistic markers can be expected to facilitate post-reading recall of the propositions in the text, there seems to be sufficient experimental support for the positive effect that logical connectors have on real-time text processing and construction of meaning. Several conditions, however, must be fulfilled for this effect to take place. According to Goldman and Murray (1992), in order to take advantage of the linguistic markers in the text, readers must lack the requisite linguistic knowledge and content schema to infer implicit coherence relations. High-skilled readers with sufficient background knowledge, good understanding of the text structure, and a high level of language proficiency are able to construct coherent mental representations of the texts, even when logical relationships are not explicitly signaled. Secondly, readers must be familiar with the general functions of discourse markers. Thirdly, they must be able to instantiate those functions in the specific text in which the signal words occur. In addition to these conditions, Jung (2003) also observed that discourse cues are more likely to facilitate comprehension of expository texts than narrative texts, as they tend to incorporate more complex semantic relationships that go beyond the simple episodic sequences.

Based on the outline of the conditions above, it is possible to assume that the presence of discourse markers will be beneficial to second language learners, who often lack the necessary cultural schemata and whose limited vocabulary size may not allow them to take full advantage of the lexical cohesion in the text. Logical connectors provide explicit information about the relation between text segments, and therefore they can serve as an additional orientating tool for readers about how to interpret the text message, reducing the probability of misinterpretation of the text message and communication breakdown. Effective use of text-structure markers is also expected to lead to better allocation of learners' mental resources. Without a conjunction, the reader must rely on the context and world knowledge to a construct a coherent link between the segments of the text, which requires more mental elaboration and places additional pressure on the working memory. The presence of conjunctions reduces the need for inference, and consequently reduces the likelihood of cognitive overload during the processing of L2 texts.

Learners at the intermediate level, in particular, are likely to benefit from the presence of signal words in the texts. Low-level learners, like poor readers in L1, tend to focus on smaller text units and, therefore, may fail to take advantage of the presence of connecting signals, while high-level learners are likely to be able to infer coherence relations and integrate text units, even when signal words are not explicitly stated (Kintsch, 1990; Geva, 1992). Furthermore, a higher level of complexity of semantic relations in expository texts means that knowledge of logical connectives will be particularly important for learners who need English for academic purposes. At the tertiary level, students are expected to read massive amounts of print information, understand the texts accurately and synthesize information from various sources into coherent knowledge bases on content-related topics (Pretorius, 2006). Therefore, the ability to comprehend logical relations in expository texts can have a significant effect on student academic performance. As early as 1978, Cohen and Fine observed that non-native adult speakers of English frequently overlook cohesive textual links and, as a result, have difficulties in comprehending expository texts. In studies conducted by Olsen and Huckin (1990) and Clerehan (1995), inability to utilize discourse cues was reported as one of the main reasons why students were not able to distinguish between the main ideas and the supporting details in academic lectures. Pretorius (2006) found that difficulties in understanding causal and adversative relations in expository texts can significantly undermine a student's academic performance.

These findings clearly suggest the need for activities that would help learners to understand logical connectives and make them attend more carefully to the semantic relations that they mark. In order to be able to help learners to take advantage of signal words in the texts, however, it is important that teachers can accurately measure the level of student understanding of the functions that these words perform in the texts. Some popular test formats include activities where learners are asked to identify conjunctions in the text that indicate a specific relationship, multiple-choice activities where students have to select the linking word that fits best the particular sentence context, and "fill-in the-blanks" type activities where learners need to insert linking words in a passage. While these types of activities can be used for teaching purposes, they are not so well-suited when it comes to testing learner comprehension of logical connectors in L2 texts. Learners may be able to identify marker words for a particular semantic relationship without really understanding the text itself. Multiple-choice activities require learners to pay attention to surrounding context, but the options often consist of conjunctions from different semantic categories, which means that even with only a very general understanding of the context, learners may be able to select the correct answers. The fill-in-the gap activity forces learners to take the whole text into account, but for the correct completion of the task learners need to have productive knowledge of transition words. The purpose of this paper, therefore, is to examine some alternative activities that can be used to assess learner *understanding* of logical connectors as used in the texts. Two test formats will be introduced: a 'paraphrase' judgment task and text diagrams. A sample of each test will be provided and the advantages and potential limitations of each format will be discussed.

II.   TEST I (PARAPHRASE JUDGMENT TASK)

In a traditional paraphrasing task, students are given a sentence in L2 and asked to write a sentence equivalent in meaning. A part of the paraphrase may be given to restrict students to a particular grammatical structure that is being

tested. To write a good paraphrases, students must have a good understanding of the original sentence, and consequently, their responses on a paraphrasing task can indicate difficulties that they may be experiencing with comprehension. For testing purposes, however, a potential problem with the traditional paraphrasing task is that it requires productive language abilities. When the purpose of the test is assessment of comprehension, it is important that student performance is not affected negatively by their poor command of sentence structure or limited vocabulary knowledge; otherwise the validity of the test itself may be undermined. Therefore, for the purpose of assessing student comprehension of logical connectives in a particular text, a traditional paraphrasing task has been modified into a same-meaning sentence decision task, where the students are provided with a sentence from the original text and its "paraphrase" and asked to judge whether the two sentences have the same or different meaning. (For a sample of this task, see Appendices A and B.)

The 'paraphrasing' judgment task as a test format offers several potential advantages. Firstly, by asking students to judge whether two sentences have the same or different meanings, instructors ensure that the test is truly measuring text comprehension.

Secondly, the judgment task offers instructors the flexibility to manipulate the specific variables upon which they want students to be assessed. As the purpose of the test is to demonstrate comprehension of logical connectors, vocabulary can be replaced with simple synonyms or even left unchanged, ensuring that unfamiliar words and expressions do not interfere with the student's decision-making processes.

The paraphrasing judgment task enables teachers to draw learner attention to the specific logical connectives. As discussed before, logical relationships differ in the amount of processing load that they impose on the readers. The paraphrasing judgment task allows teachers to approach logical connectives individually and focus on those relationships that students have most difficulty with, or that are particularly important for constructing the meaning in the types of texts that students are expected to read. For example, for learners who need English for academic purposes and who are expected to read large amounts of expository texts, the focus should be on the causal and adversative relations, as they tend to be frequent in this text type, as well as pose difficulties for the students.

Another advantage of the paraphrasing judgment task is that the target sentences can be either text-based or independent. This means that with this test format instructors can assess both the level of student understanding of semantic relations in particular texts, as well as their general understanding of different types of logical relations. Furthermore, the sentences that students need to judge can be independent of each other, so that each test item represents "a fresh start" for the test-taker. This makes the test results more reliable and enables teachers to get a better picture of student understanding of particular discourse markers.

Another advantage of this form of this test format is that it is quick and easy to mark. A judgment task is basically a form of true/false test, which offers rapid and reliable scoring.

Finally, the test is likely to have a positive backwash effect on learners. Regular encounters with this type of test should make learners pay more attention to the discourse markers in L2 texts that they encounter in class, which should, consequently, help them to develop more coherent and meaningful interpretations of the texts.

Like other forms of assessment, a paraphrasing judgment task is not without its limitations. One possible downside of this test format is that the test scores do not provide much information about the student overall level of text comprehension. This effect, however, can be counteracted by increasing the number of test items. Another potential problem is that some students may try to guess the answers, and with only two options, they have a 50% chance of choosing the correct answer by chance alone. Experimental studies (e.g. Ebel, 1979; Downing, 2003), however, have shown that random guessing on its own is highly unlikely to result in a high test-score. Furthermore, true-false tests were found to be neither more nor less reliable than widely used multiple-choice tests (Tasdemir, 2010) and significantly more reliable than essay-based examination (Gates, 1921). According, to Gates (1921) combining several true-false tests can produce markedly higher correlation with the criterion than essay writing, which in turn increases the predictive value of the test. The probability of guessing can also be reduced by asking learners to provide reasons behind their decisions. Finally, it should be remembered that a paraphrasing judgment task is not intended to be a measure of a student's overall reading ability or their language proficiency. What it does is measure student knowledge of the specific sub-skill – comprehension of discourse markers in the text - and it can be used to check on a student's progress with it. For more formal assessment purposes, this test format can be integrated with other common testing techniques.

III. TEST II (TEXT DIAGRAM)

Another way in which students can be helped to recognize structural patterns in texts is through the use of graphic organizers. A graphic organizer can be defined as "a visual and graphic display that depicts the relationships between facts, terms, and ideas within a learning task" (Hall & Strangman, 2002, p. 1). Some common forms of graphic organizers include semantic maps, tree diagrams, flowcharts and so on.

The results of a number of experimental studies (e.g., Cheng, Lowe & Scaife, 2001; Vekiri, 2002; Verdi & Kulhavy, 2002; McCrudden, Schraw, Lehma & Poliqun, 2007) suggest that a graphic display of information in the text can improve reading comprehension. This is believed to be because graphic organizers help readers visualize not only individual elements of information, but also the relationships between them, reducing the amount of cognitive effort that

the reader needs to invest to construct inferences necessary to connect information across the different segments of the text (McCrudden et al., 2007). The results of some studies also suggest that the application of visual displays may have a positive influence on students' attitudes towards L2 reading. Mede (2010), for example, found that instruction of graphic organizers improved students' reading performance, which helped them to develop more positive feelings about reading in English.

Although graphic organizers have mostly been used for instructional purposes, they could also prove useful in testing learner understanding of the logical-structural information that conjunctions provide in the text. In this test format, the key concepts in the text are recorded as diagram nodes and the learners are asked to add the symbols that indicate the relationships between them. A sample of this test format is available in Appendix C. (The test is based on the text provided in Appendix A.)

For text diagrams to be used for testing, it is necessary to ensure that the students are familiar with common symbols for encoding the logical relationships between the ideas in the text. A summary of the major logical relations and the corresponding symbols is provided below.

1. Cause & Effect   Symbol: →
e.g. I was too tired, *so* I decided not to go to the party.
tired → decision not to go to the party
cause   effect
2. **Contrast**   Symbol: **v.s.**
e.g. I was going to go to the sports club, *but* I was too tired.
plan to go to the S. C. **v.s.** *too tired*
3. **Comparison**   Symbol: =
e.g. *Like* her sister, Mary can swim very well.
swimming: Mary = her sister
4. **Exemplification**   Symbol: **e.g.**
e.g. There are many wonderful ski resorts in Hokkaido; *for example* Kiroro.
*wonderful ski resorts in Hokkaido **e.g.** Kiroro*
5. **Addition**   Symbol: +
e.g. He is very good at math. He is *also* an excellent tennis player.
math ✔+ tennis ✔
6. **Chronology**   Symbol: >>
First I went to the gym. *Then* I had breakfast.
went to the gym >> breakfast
7. **Listing** Symbol: 1)….2)…..3)…

There are three things you need to do to deal with culture shock when traveling abroad. *First*, you need to learn as much as you can about the new culture before traveling abroad. *Second*, you need to be patient. *Finally*, you need to be optimistic.
for culture shock ↓: 1. learn bout the new culture
*   2. be patient*
*   3. be optimistic*

Although this test format requires prior training, it is believed that introduction of text diagrams into class practices will benefit students in several ways. Visual representation of text structure is expected to increase student ability to recognize content units in the discourse. The test format encourages students to look beyond the sentence level and to attend to global coherence based on larger discourse chunks. Regular practice with this type of test could also potentially improve student note-taking skills. This means that text diagrams can become an important learning tool.

The main advantages of the text-diagram format, however, are in the testing opportunities it offers. Firstly, diagrams allow teachers to test student comprehension of the whole text. A successful completion of a text diagram requires a good understanding of both the content and the text structure. Diagrams allow assessment of learner comprehension of discourse markers at both local and global levels, and they clearly indicate the sections of the text that the learners may be having problems with. This means that text diagrams can be a very useful diagnostic tool.

Secondly, the text-diagram format properties make it potentially superior to other forms of assessment in terms of both test validity and reliability. The use of text diagrams for testing learner comprehension ensures that students' scores are not affected by their ability to express themselves in the target language, which increases the validity of the test measure. At the same time, the fact that a range of acceptable answers is restricted by the context makes the scoring process easier and more objective, and consequently the test itself more reliable.

Finally, the test format is economical in terms of the time needed for its preparation and marking. Unlike with multiple-choice tests, for which writing of good distractors requires a lot of trialing and detailed statistical analysis, or integrative tests, such as composition writing which are easy to construct but difficult and time-consuming to mark, text diagrams can be prepared relatively quickly. All teachers need to do is identify idea units and propositions in the text and transfer them into the diagram nodes, leaving it to the students to add the symbols that depict the relations among them. The close-ended nature of the task means that scoring will be rapid and straightforward.

In addition to the benefits that the text-diagram format brings in terms of instruction and assessment, it could also prove to be a useful research tool. Diagram frames can be designed to display both implicit and explicit coherence relations in the text, and the reader's ability to complete them may provide a valuable insight into the role that discourse markers play in the text coherence and comprehension.

In short, the analysis of the text-diagram testing format suggest that this type of testing may bring multiple advantages in terms of assessment, instruction and further the understanding of the role that discourse markers play at the structural levels of the text.

IV. CONCLUSION

The paper has summarized the major findings of the research on the role of discourse markers in text comprehension and content recall, and introduced two test formats that could be used for assessment of student levels of understanding of the use of conjunctions in L2 texts: a 'paraphrase' judgment task and a text diagram. These test formats are believed to have several potential advantages over the other commonly used assessment models, such as multiple choice and cloze tests.

First, the two test formats have several advantages in terms of test design. To begin with, both tests are criterion-referenced tests that directly and accurately measure the abilities they are intended to measure - learners' *comprehension* of logical connectives in L2 texts. The tests do not require any productive language skills on the part of the learner. This means that learner performance will not be impeded and their scores will not be affected by their limited ability to express themselves in the target language, which increases fairness and validity ratings of the test measure.

Furthermore, the tests are relatively easy to construct, they do not take much time to complete, marking is straightforward, and the scores can be easily interpreted by both instructors and the learners.

Thirdly, the proposed test formats can be used as diagnostic tests, progress tests and achievement tests. The fact that the connectives will often determine the final interpretation of the text means that performance on the conjunction tests can serve as an indicator for the teachers about the sections of the texts that the students may be having problems with, as well as the possible sources of these difficulties. For example, the tests can highlight the types of connectors that present problems for the learners of particular language backgrounds. An error in a paraphrasing judgment task or a wrongly completed diagram can also reveal students' lack of familiarity with the particular signal word or one of its meanings. For instance, a student may be familiar with the temporal meaning of *since,* but fail to recognize its causal function. The restriction of the possible answers also means that the tests could be particularly useful for assessment of learner progress and final achievement in coordinated language programs.

Finally, regular testing on comprehension of logical connectors is expected to have a positive backwash effect. As Hughes (1989) points out, assessment has a strong impact on both teaching and learning, which can be either beneficial or harmful. Teachers should, therefore, develop tests that focus on the skills that they want their students to improve, so that test preparation and feedback promote learning. In other words, tests should not be seen only as an assessment tool, but also as a learning opportunity. Regular 'pop quizzes' on comprehension of discourse markers can help teachers assess learner progress and ultimately adjust instruction to match their needs. They are also likely to keep learners on their toes. With the prospect of the test coming up, students are more likely to pay attention to structural aspects of the text, which in turn should increase their sensitivity about the links between the segments of discourse, help them recognize the important role that transition words play in text coherence, and deepen their knowledge of the function of the individual marker words. The proposed test formats are also likely to be conducive to more effective methods of studying, as they require learners to really understand the text rather than to try to commit information to memory for the purpose of sheer reproduction. Finally, regular testing should help learners develop the habit of monitoring their own progress, which should promote their independence. In short, explicit focus on discourse markers with regular assessment could help students become both more strategic readers and more autonomous learners.

APPENDIX A   SAMPLE TEXT: WHEN AND WHERE DO TORNADOES OCCUR?

Tornadoes that hit Washington, D.C. suburbs in September 2001 illustrate a fact often stated by weather forecasters: "Tornadoes can and do happen any time of the year in just about any location." No one knows this better than National Sever Storms Laboratory Research Meteorologist Dr. Harold Brooks, who has studied the climatology of severe weather in the United States to better understand when and where tornadoes are most likely to occur. By understanding the threat posed by tornadoes in the United States, particularly the threat of strong and violent tornadoes, forecasters can more accurately predict them and communities can better prepare for them.

Through his study of tornado climatology, Brooks has revealed several important things. First, tornadoes occur most often in the central United States, commonly known as Tornado Alley. Second, the central plains have a repeatable annual tornado cycle, with the highest probability of tornado occurrence in the springtime. Finally, areas outside of tornado alley do not have a typical tornado season and experience fewer tornadoes.

The concept of Tornado Alley may be very important for the emergency management community, Brooks said.

"It is relatively easy to keep awareness up in a region where events happen frequently and where the threat is

confined to a relatively short period of time," he said. "In addition, it is typically easier to recruit volunteer storm spotters in such an area and to maintain their enthusiasm."

Public awareness was high, for instance, during the May 3, 1999 Oklahoma City tornado. Despite damaging almost 8,000 structures, fewer than 40 direct fatalities occurred. In addition to timely and accurate warnings from the National Weather Service and live coverage from local television and radio stations, people in the path of the tornadoes knew how to respond and did it.

In contrast, heightening awareness in an area where tornadoes rarely occur or occur over a broader season of the year is much more difficult, Brooks suggests. In fact, he believes a lack of public awareness in areas of the country where the threat of a tornado on any particular day is low is one reason for many of the high death toll events that have occurred in the past 20 years. During that period of time, only two of the 22 tornadoes in the United States have caused at least eight fatalities (representing the highest 10 percent of death tolls) in Tornado Alley. Those are the Andover, Kansas tornado on April 26, 1991, which had its fatalities in a trailer park, and the May 3, 1999, Oklahoma City tornado, which was the (inflation adjusted) biggest property damage tornado in U.S. history.

Note: Abridged from "When and Where Do Tornadoes Occur? (Retrieved: June 30, 2012)
URL: http://www.nationalatlas.gov/articles/climate/a_tornadoes.html

Appendix B   Test I: Paraphrase Judgment Task

Instructions: Choose whether the following pairs of sentences have the same or different meanings.

1. a) By understanding the threat posed by tornadoes in the United States, particularly the threat of strong and violent tornadoes, forecasters can more accurately predict them and communities can better prepare for them.

b) Because forecasters and communities can now understand, predict and prepare for tornadoes better, tornadoes in the U.S., even the strong and violent ones, present less of a threat. *Same Different*

2. a) It is relatively easy to keep awareness up in a region where events happen frequently and where the threat is confined to a relatively short period of time. In addition, it is typically easier to recruit volunteer storm spotters in such an area and to maintain their enthusiasm.

b) People are likely to be more alert to tornadoes and more willing to join volunteer storm spotter groups if they live in the areas where tornadoes commonly occur at specific times of the year. *Same Different*

3. a) Despite damaging almost 8,000 structures, fewer than 40 direct fatalities occurred.

b) About 8,000 structures were damaged and consequently there were less than 40 direct deaths. *Same Different*

4. a) In addition to timely and accurate warnings from the National Weather Service and live coverage from local television and radio stations, people in the path of the tornadoes knew how to respond and did it.

b) Thanks to correct and well-timed information from the National Weather Service, TV and radio, people knew what to do to prepare for the tornado. *Same Different*

5. a) ack of public awareness in areas of the country where the threat of a tornado on any particular day is low is one reason for many of the high death toll events that have occurred in the past 20 years.

b) Many of the tornado-related deaths in the last two decades took place because tornadoes occurred in the areas where people did not expect them and were consequently less alert to the dangers they pose. *Same Different*

Appendix C   Test II: Text Diagram

Instructions: Read text "When and Where Do Tornadoes Occur" and complete the diagram below by adding the suitable symbols to indicate the relationships between the ideas.

| understanding the threat posed by tornadoes | [ ] | possible to predict & prepare for tornadoes better |

Brooks' findings:

1. tornadoes occur most often in the central U.S. (Tornado Alley)

2. the central plains have a repeatable annual tornado cycle (the highest frequency in the spring)
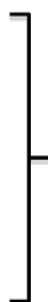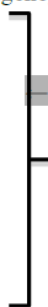
3. areas outside Tornado Alley – no typical season & fewer tornadoes

Tornado Alley – important for the emergency management

A. 1. easy to keep awareness

☐   ☐   tornadoes common &

                                                                          limited to a certain time of the year

2. easy to find volunteer

storm spotters and keep their

enthusiasm

☐   Oklahoma City tornado: 8000 structures damaged   ☐   <40 fatalities

                                                                ↑

                              ☐   ☐

timely & accurate warnings from   live coverage from   people knew how to

the National Weather Service   TV & radio stations   prepare for tornadoes

                              ☐

B.   difficult   to   keep   awareness   ☐   tornadoes rare / spread around the year

        Brooks: lack of public awareness   ☐   the high death toll in the past 20 years

TEST II (Model Answers)

understanding   possible to predict & prepare for

the threat posed by   →   tornadoes better

tornadoes

                              1.   tornadoes occur most often in the central U.S. (Tornado Alley)

Brooks' findings: 2.   the central plains have a repeatable annual tornado cycle (the highest

                                        frequency in the spring)

                              3.   areas outside Tornado Alley – no typical season & fewer tornadoes

Tornado Alley – important for the emergency management

A. 1. easy to keep awareness

        +   –   tornadoes common & limited to a certain time of the year

    2. easy to find volunteer

    storm spotters and keep their

    enthusiasm

    e.g.   Oklahoma City tornado: 8000 structures damaged v.s. <40 fatalities

                                        ↑

    timely & accurate warnings from   +   live coverage   +   people knew how to prepare for

    the National Weather Service   TV & radio stations   tornadoes

                              v.s.

    B. difficult to keep awareness ←   tornadoes rare / spread around the year

        Brooks: lack of public awareness →   the high death toll in the past 20 years

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"May Allah Not Let You Experience Another Sorrow": Condolence Strategies Used by Lecturers Who Are Native Speakers of Arabic L1 toward Their Colleague Who Is Native Speaker of Hebrew in Hebrew L2

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Abstract—This research attempts to investigate the condolence strategies used by Arab native speakers (L1) towards a Hebrew (L2) native speaker in Hebrew (L2). Analysis of these strategies was almost based on strategies developed by a number of researchers (Olshtain and Cohen 1983; Elwood, 2004 and Yahia, 2010). The participants in this study were 85 Arab lectures who responded to a college condolence announcement which was addressed to a Hebrew native-speaker colleague who lost his daughter by e-mail. Frequencies and percentages were considered. The findings of the study revealed that the main condolence strategy used by the respondents was 'religion expressions' (39.8%). This is attributed to the fact that the respondents transfer this strategy from L1 toL2. This strategy is affected by religion (Yahia, 2011). Other strategies such as acknowledgement of death, expression of sympathy, offer of assistance, future-oriented remarks, expression of concern, appreciation of the dead, direct condolence and others were less frequently used. The findings also showed that the females initiated more condolence utterances in the same response than males, however, the gender did not play an important role in the frequencies of the condolence strategies.

Index Terms—pragmatics, speech act, condolence strategies, L1 and L2, semantic formula

I. INTRODUCTION

Condolences are speech acts. Searle (1969) states the speech act of condolence is categorized as 'expressive'. Lotfollahi and Rasekh (2011) claim that this speech act is used to express the speaker's sorrow at the news of someone's death. On the hand, Yahia (2010) claims that formulas of condolence has not been fully explored, fortunately, most speakers are not called upon to express sympathy at someone's death. In fact, languages ca not be meaningfully studied in isolation from the context and culture. According to Lakoff (1973) "it is futile to set linguistic behavior apart from other forms of human behavior P. 303. As other speech acts condolence is also culturally different (Elwood, 2004). Many researchers have investigated the speech act of condolence and its cross-cultural differences (Elwood, 2004; Reza and Mostafa, 2012; Bernan, 2008; and others). The focus of these studies is on comparing the speech act of condolences between English and other languages. The aim of the recent study is to investigate the condolence strategies used by lectures Who are Arabic native speakers toward their colleague who is native speaker of Hebrew on the net as a response to the college announcement of the death of his in Hebrew.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Speech Acts And Speech Act Of Giving Condolences

Johnston (2008) States that " *knowing a language means not just knowing its grammar and vocabulary but also knowing how to structure paragraphs and arguments and participate in a conversation the way the speakers of the language do*" (P.7). According to Yule (1996), speech acts are speech functions that are realized by way of words. Speech acts include a wide range of functional units such as apologies, complements, requests, condolences, invitations and so on. Yule claims that being able to say the right thing to the right person at the right time would be great social accomplishment. Richard and Schmidt (2002) define pragmatics as "*the study of the use of language in communication, particularly between sentences and the contexts and situations in which they are used*" (P.412).

The knowledge of pragmatics plays a meaningful function in interlocutions between participants because pragmatics is the relation between language and its users. Levinson (1983: 284) asserts "*conversation may be taken to that familiar predominant kind of talk in which two or more participants freely alternate in speaking, which generally occurs outside specific institutional setting like religious services, law courts, classroom and the like*".

Bach and Harnish (1969) claim that speech acts are acts of communication. To communicate is to express a certain attitude, and the type of speech act being performed corresponds to the type of attitude being expressed. For example, a

statement expresses a belief, a request expresses a desire, and an apology expresses a regret. As an act of communication, a speech act succeeds if the audience identifies, in accordance with the speaker's intention, the attitude being expressed.

Some speech acts, however, are not primarily acts of communication and have the function not of communicating but of affecting institutional states of affairs. They can do so in either of two ways. Some officially judge something to be the case, and others actually make something the case. Those of the first kind include judges' rulings, referees' calls and assessors' appraisals, and the latter include sentencing, bequeathing and appointing. Acts of both kinds can be performed only in certain ways under certain circumstances by those in certain institutional or social positions.

Searle (1969) classified speech acts into five categories: assertive, directives, Commisives, expressive and declarations. While Austin (1962) classified the performative utterances into the following classes:

Behabitives: They make people express their feelings and attitudes such as thank, apologize, condole and congratulate.

Commisives: They make people commit themselves to do things like promise and vow.

Expositives: They make people bring about changes through their utterances such as resign and fire.

Exercitives: They try to get people to do things such as invite, order and permit. Verdictives: they tell people how things are like swear, insist and suggest.

According to Searle, (1969), speech act of condolence is related to the expressive classification, it is used to express the interlocutor's sorrow at the news of the death of someone. Yahia (2010) states that condolence phrases are designed to convey sympathy for the bereaved person. But as a general rule, the emotion behind the phrase is often more important than the wording itself. Yahia adds that condolences are formal expressions of sympathy offered to people after the death of a loved one. Many people are aware that it is very difficult to give condolence phrase without sounding slightly cliché. Condolence expressions consists of utterances such as "sorry for your loss", "deepest sympathy" and many others. These condolence expressions are neutral enough to be appreciated for anyone regardless of religious beliefs. For believers in a concept of heaven and hell, one may want to refer the idea that he or she believes the diseased is in heaven. Phrases like "may Allah comfort the dead" and other references to religious belief should be tailored to specific religion (Yahia, 2010).

Hayajneh, (2009) claims that there are many areas where the notion of a separation between language and culture cannot be maintained, he adds that studying cultural aspects of the language such as beliefs, norms and religion may avoid errors and embarrassment.

Semantically, condolences have a social meaning which refers to the language use, this is to establish social relations and roles (Mwihaki, 2004: 133). He also adds that condolences are not just expressions of sympathy, they are also acts of encouragement.

Many researchers (Elwood,2004; Yahia, 2010; Lotfollahi and Rasekh, 2011; and others) classified the condolence responses according to semantic formula similar to Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) who found five types of semantic formulas for apologies. Accordingly, five patterns were found in the responses to the condolence situations in their studies:

a. Acknowledgement of the death: it includes certain interjections such as 'no' and 'oh'.

b. Expression of sympathy such as "I am participating in your sorrow".

c. Offer of assistance like "is there anything I can do?"

d. Future-Oriented remarks such as "try not to get depressed".

e. Expression of concern like "you must care for yourself".

These were the classical categories that most researchers based their investigating of offering condolences on, however, most of the researchers add other categories for responses that do not fit Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) semantic formula such as expression of empathy", "statement of lacking words", religion expressions", "expression of surprise", related questions', statement of not knowing", and others.

Elwood (2004) investigated the cross-cultural differences of expression of condolence between Americans and Japanese. She found differences between the way respondents of each language express their condolences.

Yahia (2010) investigated the ways that Iraqi express their condolences. He found that Iraqi people express their condolences in different ways and patterns, these patterns were influenced by culture, context, gender, education and age. However, these different expressions were affected by Islamic religion.

Lotfollahi and Rasekh (2011) investigated the cross-cultural differences of the condolence speech act between English and Persian. They found the condolence strategies used by Iranians were influenced by their religion.

Another similar study was conducted by Reza and Mostafa (2012). They investigated the condolences responses in English and Persian, They found that Persian responses were more celestial and collectivist in nature While English condolence responses are more terrestrial and individualistic.

Samavarchi and Allami (2012) conducted a socio-pragmatic study in which they studied the speech act of giving condolences by EFL learners in Iran. They found that some learners perform the speech act of condolence like their English counterpart. They also found that some of these learners performed this speech act like they do in Persian. In other words, these learners tend to transfer the act of condoling socio-culturally from their L1 to L2.

Although many studies on the speech act of condolences have been conducted during the recent years, few of them focused on expressing condolences of native speakers of one language L1 to another speakers of other language L2 in the later language L2. That means, the condolences were made by the use of L2. The aim of the recent study is to investigate how Arab native speakers who live in Israel express their condolences to Hebrew native speakers in Hebrew through the net. In other words what condolences strategies are used by Arab native speakers in Hebrew.

III. METHODOLOGY

Subjects

The participants of the current study are 95 Israeli lecturers who teach at Sakhnin College for Teacher Education (TE) in Lower Galilee, in Northern Israel. The majority of lecturers are Arabic native speakers and some are Hebrew native speakers, but the students are Arabic native speakers, however, they speak Hebrew as L2 since Hebrew is the official language in Israel. The lecturers are teaching mathematics, English, special education, education and Arabic. They are holders of second and third degrees. The respondents are 10 lecturers who are Hebrew native speakers and 85 who are Arabic native speakers. The subjects are 53 males and 42 females. Their age is between 35-60. For the aim of this study, the researcher will collect the responses of Arab Lecturers, and ignore the responses of the lecturers who are Hebrew native speakers.

Instrument

The data of the current study was collected from responses to an e-mail message which was sent by the college management to a Hebrew native speaker colleague who lost his daughter in Hebrew. The translation of the electronic condolence message is "The college is participating in the sorrow of our colleague. We hope you will not experience another sorrow". The message was sent in Hebrew because the lecturer does not speak Arabic. 95 lecturers responded to this message to express their condolence to their mate. The responses were also in Hebrew and each lecture can see these responses in his email, because all of them clicked "Reply all". The researchers collected the responses of 85 (40 females and 45 males) Arab lecturers in order to analyze the condoling strategies used by Arab native speakers towards their colleague who is Hebrew native speaker, the language used was Hebrew which is considered as L2 for the respondents. 10 messages were ignored because they were written by lecturers who are Hebrew native speakers.

After taking the consent from the college management, the data was collected from 85 respondent to the condolence announcement in the college staff e-emails. All the respondents were lecturers at the College who are Arabic native speakers, but they used L2 (Hebrew) to express their condolence to their colleague who is a Hebrew native speaker and who lost his daughter.

The collected data was coded based on Olshtain and Cohen's (1983) with some modifications that were discussed with some experts in the field of pragmatics in the College to suit the current context. The unit of analysis was the responses produced by the respondents.

The data was categorized in nine categories as follow:

1.' Acknowledgement of death' which includes interjections such as "אהה" (oh), "לא יקירי " (no darling), "אלוהים לא" (No, God).

2. 'Expression of sympathy' such as "אני מצטער על אובדנך" (I am sorry for your loss), "צר לי" (I am sorry)," "מצטער" לשמוע את זה (I am sorry to hear that).

3. 'Offer of assistance' which covers responses like "אם תצטרך לדבר אני נמצאת" (If you need to say anything, I am ready), "איך אני יכול לעזור" (How could I help), " אם תרצה לדבר עם מישהו אני "נמצא (if you want to talk with anybody I am ready).

4. 'Future-oriented remarks' like "תהיה חזק" (be strong), "אני בטוחה שתעבור את זה" (I am sure you will pass this), "אלוהים ישמור עליך ועל משפחתך" (We ask God to protect you and your family). "החיים צריכים להמשך" (Life should continue), "שלא תדע עוד צער" (May not you experience another sorrow).

5. 'Expressions of concern' which includes responses about the bereaved such as "מקווה שאתה בסדר" (I hope you are ok), "תשמור על האמא שלה בטח היא סובלת" (Keep her Mom, sure, she is suffering. "תיעזר בסבלנות" (be patient),

6. 'Appreciation of the dead' such as "בטח היא הייתה נחמדה" (Sure, she was wonderful), "רק אנשים טובים מתים" (only good persons die), "הייתה חבובה" (She was darling).

7. 'Religious expressions' like "אלוהים נתן, אלוהים לקח" (God gave, God took), "אלוהים ירחם עליה" (God mercy her), "שתהיה בגן עדן" (May her soul rest in paradise),

8. 'Direct condolence' which includes expressions such as "תנחומיי" (my condolences).

9. others such as 'sharing similar experience', statement of lacking words, 'expression of surprise' and 'related questions.

Data Collection and Data Analysis

The aim of the recent study is to examine the condolence strategies used by Arab College Lecturers towards their colleague who is Hebrew native speaker in Hebrew which is considered L2 for these lecturers. The strategies were written as a response to an e-mail announcement from the college to the Hebrew native-speaker who lost his daughter, and the lecturers responded to this announcement in the email by "Reply All". The respondents are 85 lectures who are Arab native-speaker, 40 females and 45 males, their age ranges 35-60. The total number of the condolence strategies

made by the respondents is 153. This means that some respondents made more than one condolence utterance in the same response. The number of utterance per respondent by gender is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
THE NUMBER OF UTTERANCES OF CONDOLENCE MADE BY PARTICIPANTS BY GENDER

	One strategy	Two strategies	Three strategies	Total
Males	26	14	5	45
Females	8	20	12	40
Total strategies used	34	68	51	153

Table one shows the number of participants in the study. Moreover, it also shows the number of strategies made by each gender. The number of females is 40. Eight females initiated one condolence utterance, 14 made two utterances in the same response, while twelve female participants initiated 3 utterances in the same reply. The total number of the condolence utterances made by females is 84. On the other hand, the number of males are 45. 26 male respondents initiated one condolence utterance, while 14 made two utterances in the same response, 5 initiated three condolence utterance which consist of three different strategies according the semantic formula used in this study. The data shows that the occurrences of condolence utterances used by females are larger than their males counterparts. In other words the females initiated more condolence utterances than males.

IV. RESULTS

After coding the data, The frequency and the percentage of semantic formulas used in this study were calculated. The Results are shown in Table 2. While Figure 1 shows the percentage of the strategies used by the respondents

TABLE 2
THE FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF CONDOLENCE STRATEGIES USED BY THE PARTICIPANTS

	strategies	frequencies	Percentage
1	Acknowledgement of the death	23	15.3
2	Expression of sympathy	20	13
3	Offer of assistance	7	4.6
4	Future-Oriented remarks	10	6.53
5	Expression of concern	13	8.5
6	Appreciation of the dead	5	3.2
7	Religious expressions	61	39.8
8	Direct condolence	5	3.2
9	Others	9	5.87
	Total	153	100

The researcher classified the condolence strategies into 9 categories. The categories are: (1) Acknowledgement of the death; (2) expression of sympathy; (3) Offer of assistance; (4)Future- oriented remarks; (5) Expression of concern; (6)appreciation of the dead; (7) Religious expression; (8) Direct condolence and (9) others which contains strategies such as 'sharing similar experience', statement of lacking words, 'expression of surprise' and 'related questions. As shown in Table 2.

Table 2 shows that 153 condolence utterances were initiated by the respondents, males and females. The 'religion expression' is the most frequent strategy used by the participants. It occurs 61 times 30 by males and 31 by females. Its percentage is 39.8%. This strategy includes utterances such as "אלוהים לא ייתן ותדע עוד צער" (May Allah not let you experience another sorrow), "שיסלח לה אלוהים" (May God forgive her), "אלוהים נתן אלוהים לקח" (God gave and God took)', "ויברך אותה אדוני, זה הגורל שלה" (God bless her, this is her destiny) "שתהי נשמתה בגן עדן" (May Allah rest her soul in Paradise), and many others. This shows that the respondents are celestial and collectivist in nature (Reza and Mostafa, 2012), they are mostly Muslims and believe in God (Allah). The fact that this strategy is the most frequent one in this research could also be attributed to the age of the respondents. Their age ranges between 35 and 60, they are mature and as a result they, the researcher believes, are more religious. Bentahila and Davis (1989) state that Arab condolence strategies contain religious references. The participants transfer this strategy from their Arabic language L1 to the target language L2 (Hebrew). These utterances are frequently used in Arabic and the participants transfer it to Hebrew which may contain its own condolence utterances which are different from Arabic.

The next frequent strategy used by the participants is 'acknowledgement of dead ' and it includes utterances such as "צר לי על אובדנך"(I am sorry for your loss) and "מצער לשמוע את זה" , (I am sorry to hear that). This strategy occurs 23 times (15.3%).
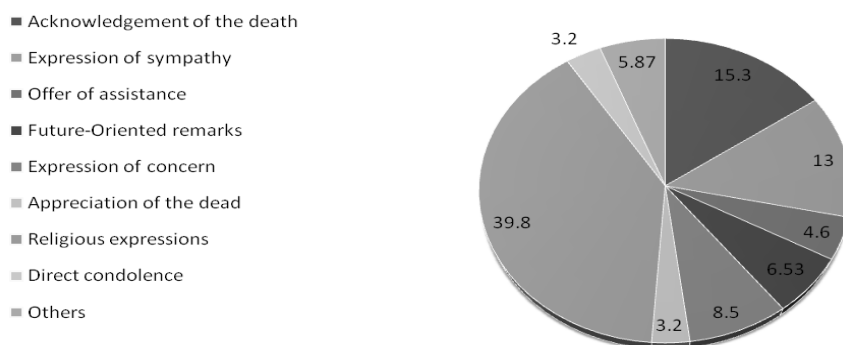
"The strategy "expression of sympathy" which consists of utterances like "הלב שלי איתך", (my heart is with you) and "לא, איני מאמין", (No, I do not believe). It occurs 20 times (13%). 9 frequencies were initiated by males while 11 frequencies were made by females. So the frequencies do not reveal meaningful differences between males and females concerning the two strategies. "Offer of assistance" which contains utterances such as "איך אני יכול לעזור", (how can I help) occurs 7 times (4.6). while

"appreciation of the dead" which includes utterances such as "היא הייתה נחמדה" (she was nice). It occurs 5 times (3.2%). This strategy was less frequently used, because the participants, the researcher believes, do not know the dead

or they do not want to talk about the dead for the sake of the addressee who lost his daughter. By using this strategy they were afraid they will increase his sorrow.

"Direct condolence" which contains utterances such as "תנחומי" (my condolences) is also less frequently used, It occurs 5 times (3.2%). The researcher attributes the law frequency of this strategy to the fact that Arab native speakers who live in Israel are emotional, therefore, one utterance is insufficient for them to express their emotion towards the bereaved. Moreover, Performing the speech act of condolence in Arabic needs a sentence and not only a single word. The other strategies are: 'sharing similar experience', statement of lacking words, 'expression of surprise' and 'related questions. They occur 9 times. Figure 1 clarifies the percentage of the strategies used by the respondents of this study.

Figure 1: Distribution of strategies used by participants according to percentage

- Acknowledgement of the death
- Expression of sympathy
- Offer of assistance
- Future-Oriented remarks
- Expression of concern
- Appreciation of the dead
- Religious expressions
- Direct condolence
- Others

The frequencies do not reveal differences in the distribution of condolence strategies used by males and females as shown in the following table.

TABLE 3
THE FREQUENCY OF CONDOLENCE STRATEGIES BY GENDER

Strategy	Gender		
	Males	Females	Total
Acknowledgement of the death	10	13	23
Expression of sympathy	9	11	20
Offer of assistance	3	4	7
Future-oriented Remarks	5	5	10
Expression of concern	5	8	13
Appreciation of the dead	2	3	5
Religious expressions	30	31	61
Direct of condolence	2	3	5
Others	3	6	9
Total	69	84	153

Table 3 reveals that the males initiated 69 condolence utterances while females made 84 utterances, Although the number of the male participants was bigger than the males. The frequencies in this table do not show meaningful differences by gender except in the 'others' strategy which occurs only nine times. The occurrence of 'religious expressions" strategy is almost the same between males and females.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study attempts to investigate the speech act of condolence used by Arabic native speakers lecturers, who live in Israel and work in an Arab college for teacher education, towards their colleague, who is Hebrew native speaker and lives in Israel and works in the same college, in Hebrew. That means the participants are using L2 in expressing the speech act of condolence.

The findings show that the most frequent strategy used by the respondents is "religious expression" (39.8%). This may be explained that the Arab condolence strategies may contain religious reference (Bentahila and Davis, 1989). In other words, the findings reveals that The Arab who live in Israel are celestial and collectivists rather than terrestrial and individualistic.

Moreover, the age of the respondents may have an effect on the frequency of this strategy. The age of the respondents ranges between 35 and 60. Arab eople at this age are usually mature and religious.

Moreover, The level of education of the respondents may also have an effect on the frequency of the strategies used in this research. The respondents' level of education is very high since they are all holders of second and third degree The responses were almost formal.

The next frequent strategy used by the participants is "Acknowledgement of the dead" (15.3%). Whereas, "appreciation of the dead" and "direct condolence" were the least frequent strategies used by the participants.

The findings also reveal that the participants transfer strategies from Arabic which is considered L1 to Hebrew which is considered L2. The religious expressions used by the respondents are frequently used in performing Arabic speech act of condolence.

Another important finding is that the gender does play an important role in the frequency of the condolence strategies. Males and females almost performed the same number of utterances in the same strategy.

The age of the participants has in important role in the distribution of the strategies. The participants' age is 35-60. Therefore, it is recommended to conduct another study with participants who are younger. Moreover, it is recommended to conduct another study to compare between the condolence strategies used by Hebrew and Arabic native speakers. Finally, it is also recommended to conduct a study to examine the participants' condolence strategies in Arabic (L1).

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Amory's Sexual Illusion in *This Side of Paradise*

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Abstract—The present paper deals with the sexual illusion of F. Scott Fitzgerald's male character, Amory Blaine, in *This Side of Paradise*. Based on the close study of psychoanalytic approach and Freud's works, the main concern of the study focuses on the changes of Amory's sexual desires in different phases of his life. Due to the loss of an idealized father figure, Amory strives to become a substitute father himself and falls into sexual illusion with different women. With the aim of bringing a new way of reading and analyzing *This Side of Paradise*, this paper attempts to investigate Amory's sexual illusion which derives from his unstable identity and loss in his life.

Index Terms—*This Side of Paradise*, psychoanalytic approach, Freud, illusion, sexual desire, trauma

I. INTRODUCTION

In the essay "History and Masculinity in F. Scott Fitzgerald's *This Side of Paradise*", Pearl James clarifies the meaning of gender and its ambiguity in early twentieth century American culture in general and in bildungsroman in particular. Historically viewed from the grounds of the essay, sexual identities are exemplified in cultural and social changes. Then he exhibits the idea of the cultural anxiety about the coherence of masculinity in the early twentieth century and shows how the anxiety exacerbated by World War I. Besides, James suggests that Fitzgerald, unlike nineteenth-century writers, shows that identity is performed and relatively unstable, because there has been a shift from "character" to "personality". James persuasively exhibits that the novel presents "masculinity as an unachievable ideal, complicated from without by contradictory cultural imperatives and from within by homoerotic desires, experiences of loss, and feelings of inadequacy" (James, 2005, p. 4). Furthermore, according to Linda C. Pelzer (2000), *This Side of Paradise* is "a novel about disillusionment and loss" (Pelzer, 2000, p. 44). Therefore, *This Side of Paradise* depicts the unstable identity and the sexual illusions of the central character, Amory Blaine, leading him to be a failure man in life.

Concerning to the notion of sexuality, Lois Tyson writes that "for some psychoanalytic theories, especially in the past, sexuality was a matter of a biological pressure that is discharged in the act of sexual intercourse" (Tyson, 2006, p. 24). By using the word sexuality, "Freud called that drive eros and placed it in opposition to thanatos, the death drive" (Tyson, 2006, p. 24). Furthermore, Freud "realized that our sexuality is part and parcel of our identity and thus relates to our capacity to feel pleasure in ways that are not generally considered sexual" (Tyson, 2006, p. 24). Based on the Freudian concept of sexuality "psychoanalysis today sees a close connection between our sexuality and our identity because the origin of our sexual being is in the nature of the affirmation or disruption of our sense of self that occurs in childhood" (Tyson, 2006, p. 24). Drawing from psychoanalytic approach, we can say that Amory's sexual illusion derives from his unstable identity and psychological loss of lacking the father's role in the early stage of his life and that makes him become a failure man throughout the novel. Linda C. Pelzer also points out that "expulsion from college and rejection by the woman he loves eventually lead Amory to discover that his dreams are not enough to ensure his desires, and he grows disillusioned with life" (Pelzer, 2000, p. 35). For that reason, the novel clearly shows Amory's downfall which has resulted from his sexual illusion through his life.

II. DISCUSSION

In *This Side of Paradise*, the narrator evidently points out that Amory is shaped by his unique mother, Beatrice O'Hara, from a very early age. Amory might seem to be separated from most other people, even his father. Amory's father, Stephen Blaine, plays a very dim role in Amory's life. According to Stavola, "Fitzgerald's portrait of Amory's father, Stephen Blaine, is sparse [and] fundamentally weak, his influence upon Amory is negligible and in the long run will cause much more psychological harm than good" (Stavola, 1979, p. 76). Evidently, "Fitzgerald's treatment of Amory's parents reflects an important shift in American parental authority, a shift with debilitating effects upon offspring" (Stavola, 1979, p. 76). In this American society, "the mother has assumed the place of dominance in the family, in education, and in cultural life [...] her power, a misplaced paternalism, is occasionally of great value in the training of the children; but more often it is crippling to the pursuit of identity and maturity" (Stavola, 1979, p. 76). This idea can be seen paralleled in *This Side of Paradise* in a surprisingly specific way. Although Beatrice has great influence on Amory's childhood without any instruction and moral guides of his father, Amory has "no illusion about her" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 12).

Drawing from the Freudian concept, Amory lacks of representative figure in his childhood and it causes Amory's illusion in his later life. It can be suggested that Amory is traumatized by the loss of the father in the early stage of his life. He grows up with the lack of love of his father. Amory only learns instructions from his mother which then shape

his personalities. It is not difficult to see Beatrice's transference of her personalities and her characteristic to her son. Although Beatrice is seen as a dynamic and strong woman, her female troubles and nerves always follows and haunts Amory's childhood. As Stavola points out that "an aristocratic Victorian superficial educated in Europe near Lake Geneva, Beatrice is shallow, snobbish and extremely self-centered, except for her smothering love for her son […] But beneath this tangled network of externals Beatrice is essentially insecure, mistrustful, and lacks a firm sense of identity" (Stavola, 1979, p. 77). Even Amory leaves Beatrice "to spend the ensuing two years with his aunt and uncle" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p.15), and then is sent to St. Regis', a boy's preparatory school, which can be supposed to instill his independence and masculinity. However, Anthony thinks that "St. Regis' spoiled him" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 39). Moreover, the intrusive narrator also suggests that "Amory plus Beatrice plus two years in Minneapolis—these had been his ingredients when he entered St. Regis'. But the Minneapolis years were not a thick enough overlay to conceal the "Amory plus Beatrice" from the ferreting eyes of a boarding school […] But both St. Regis' and Amory were unconscious of the fact that this fundamental Amory had not in himself changed" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 37). So, "since Stephen Blaine is weak, passive, and often absent, Amory turns, as a child, towards his mother for a model imitate. Almost completely unawares he takes upon himself many of her key feminine traits which become the basis of his character" (Stavola, 1979, p. 77). Therefore, we can conclude that Amory's effeminacy is shaped and formed from his childhood due to much influence of his mother figure and lack of father's role.

Due to "the intense affections of a neurotic mother and the unattractiveness of a passive father" (Stavola, 1979, p. 79), Amory strives to fulfill his stable identity through the romantic relationship with a various girls in his later life as a means to "to achieve a firm identity and survive in a world not controlled by a strong mother figure" (Stavola, 1979, p. 77). Linda C. Pelzer suggests that "Amory's dream of greatness is linked to an ideal of beauty embodied in the women he loves [and] each of them also represents an aspect of Amory's own self, and thus, his pursuit of each underscores the nature of his quest" (Pelzer, 2000, p. 43). However, Amory can never escape from the fantasy world that Beatrice creates for him and falls into the sexual illusions through his life.

His first childlike relationship is with Myra St. Claire when Amory is only thirteen, and this romance can be regarded as a "clearly sexual side of this unresolved Oedipal conflict in Amory" (Stavola, 1979, p. 81). Amory tries to attract Myra by his wealth and charm and quickly wants to create the romantic moment with her. The scene that Amory kisses Myra depicts his obsession of the hidden romantic fantasy; Amory "leaned over quickly and kissed Myra's cheek. He had never kissed a girl before, and he tasted his lips curiously, as if he had munched some new fruit" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 21). The scene is somewhat ridiculous and exhibits Amory's desire to grasp the romantic moment as quickly as he can. However, once he achieves it, he wants to ruin it right after his first kiss "sudden revulsion seized Amory, disgust, loathing for the whole incident" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 21) and "he [Amory] desired frantically to be away, never to see Myra again, never to kiss anyone" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 21). As Stavola points out that "the psychoanalytic source of Amory's sexual disgust after kissing Myra is an Oedipal failure [as] his abnormal closeness and identification with his mother compels Amory to treat every female he gets close to as his mother " (Stavola, 1979, p. 83). That is the reason why Amory seems to be very egotistic of the ideal romantic moment and shows how he wants to achieve it and then quickly to destroy it. In fact, it is the time Amory begins to escape his childhood by distracting the influence of his mother and gaining the power in romantic affair. Moreover, he wants to cast the world around him and tries to jump and fit in the new world he is creating. However, it is evident that Amory can not achieve what he wants since he cannot escape himself from his childhood obsession.

Another romantic moment is repeated and ruined again when Amory is eighteen. This romance can be seen as "Amory's first real love" (Pelzer, 2000, p. 44) and "Isabelle embodies Amory's yearning for popularity and power" (Stavola, 1979, p. 90). During his vacation of sophomore year in Princeton, he falls in love with sixteen year old girl, Isabelle Borge. At this phase of life, Amory is still depicted as "an open subject" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 65), suggesting that nobody can understand him completely. As the third person narrator points out Amory is "evidently a bit light of love, neither popular nor unpopular—every girl there seemed to have had an affair with him at some time or other, but no one volunteered any really useful information" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 65).Like Myra, Amory quickly "was in love and his love was returned" (Fitzgerald, 2003: 88). Moreover, he supposes that "their love was to be eternal" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 87). However, their romantic affair also quickly ends due to a very small incident. While Amory embraces Isabelle, his shirt-stud hurts her neck and leaves "a little blue spot" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 89). They quarrel incessantly for this and Isabelle accuses Amory of being egocentric, conceited and critical. Amory realizes that they actually do not love each other and leaves quickly. Later, Amory think "she [Isabelle] spoiled my year" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 93). Above all, Amory "wondered how much he cared—how much of his sudden unhappiness was hurt vanity—whether he was, after all, temperamentally unfitted for romance" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 92). A very small incident dooming Amory's romantic affair exhibits that Amory cannot identify his identity and has still keeps his naïve-self in his various romantic relationships. For Amory, Isabelle might seem like "a dream, a projection of Amory's imagination, and possessing her has convinced him of her insubstantiality" (Pelzer, 2000, p. 44). This romance once again depicts Amory's unstable identity in adapting himself in his life.

However, "Amory's disillusionment following his breakup with Isabelle is merely temporary; it does not deter him from pursuit of his ideal" (Pelzer, 2000, p. 44). Due to the failure of finding an idealized substitute figure, Amory, to some degree, strives to replace God [Darcy] and Devil [the ghostly Dick] to become a substitute father himself when he

wants to marry Clara Page, his third cousin who has been widowed for six months, a woman who "was alone in the world, with two small children, little money, and, worst of all, a host of friends". Clara is also a woman whom Amory refers to as St. Cecelia. Obviously, Amory desires to become an exact idealized figure that haunts him all his life. It is a way to find his identity and his power. Another reason is Clara is "the first fine woman he ever knew and one of the few good people who ever interested him" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 133); therefore, Amory tries to prove that he becomes mature, personage and can be a model of Clara's children. Amory even begins "to speculate wildly on marriage" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p.133). However, Clara's "goodness was above the prosy morals of the husband-seeker" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p.131).

Although Amory falls in love with Clara and is eventually "jealous of everything about Clara: of her past, of her babies, of the men and women who flocked to drink deep of her cool kindness and rest their tired minds as at an absorbing play" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p.133), Clara just sees Amory as a "weak character" of "no will" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p.135) and has not "much self-respect" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p.134). Moreover, Clara points out that, above all these things, Amory "lack of judgment—the judgment to decide at once when you [Amory] know your [his] imagination will play you false, given half a chance" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p.135). Clara observations show that Amory is just egotistic, suggesting excessive love of himself only, and his love, if he has, for Clara is only the way to satisfy him and to fulfill his full of conceit.

Being Clara's husband would mean he can replace her missing husband and save her children. Amory confesses that "I am a slave to my emotions, to my likes, to my hatred of boredom, to most of my desires—" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 135), but Clara objects and from her point of view Amory is a slave of his "imagination" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p.135). She refuses Amory and asserts that "I'd never marry again. I've got my two children and I want myself for them" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 137). Ironically, we can see once again the image of Beatrice in Clara's appearance; the independent woman wants to devote her life to her son without any help from husband. That's why Clara then reverses her role as Beatrice's when Amory says, "I love you—or adore you—or worship you—" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 137). Clara once becomes Amory's mother substitute, and therefore we can say that Amory could never escape his childhood trap in his mind.

The time in Princeton also shows Amory's obsession of adapting himself into the world he wants to fit in. From St. Regis' time, Amory is much self-aware of the importance of sport for gaining popularity and masculinity. Therefore, when he decided to enter Princeton because of its attraction "with its atmosphere of bright colors and its alluring reputation as the pleasant country club in America" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 41), Amory also tries to seek for other success that can bring him fame and reputation. At Princeton, Amory learns "to distinguish between upperclassmen and entering men" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 43) and he realizes that "now the newest arrivals were taking him for an upperclassman" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 43). Amory seems to be adapt to the new world in Princeton, and as the narrator refers, Amory is very proud of himself for "being clever and literacy without effeminacy or affectation" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 55). However, it is too early for Amory to have that self-assessment as Fitzgerald right after that depicts Amory's performance as a chorus girl in a musical in Princeton. Surprisingly, Anne Margaret Daniel in her essay titled "Blue as the Sky, Gentlemen" also depicts that Fitzgerald also has experienced as a "Princeton play 'Girl'" in the Triangle Club show (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 27). This maybe is the reason why Fitzgerald depicts the performance so skillfully and aptly.

The episode titled "Ha-Ha Hortense!"(Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 58) features a musical comedy performance of the Princeton Triangle Club in which a man dresses up like a woman. The play is given in "a big, barn-like auditorium dotted with boys as girls, boys as pirates, boys as babies"; "how a Triangle show ever got off was a mystery" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 59). The performance shows, satirically, the gender reversal inherent in a men's club. Moreover, it seems that Princeton's show encourages the same-sex passion. In this "small society" in Princeton, Amory "now realized only his own inconsequence" and "effort would make him aware of his own impotency and insufficiency" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 58). Amory cannot find his true self, his true identity, in this small world in which "the college dreamed on—awake" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 58). Van Arsdale's article "Princeton as Modernist's Hermeneutics" also suggests the idea which the Paradise that Amory is trapped in Princeton: "Princeton is itself paradise and the world outside its gate is exile" (Van Arsdale, 2000, p. 41). This claim may be true, generally speaking, but within even this "Paradise", Amory cannot come close to finding a stable sexual identity.

It seems to be an abrupt point when the war reaches America; so Amory and his friends have to say goodbye to Princeton to join the army. The "Interlude: May 1917-February 1919" is short but remarkable and seen as a huge transmission of Amory's life from "egotist" to "personage". Fitzgerald depicts the World War I within the two letters and a short narration. In an essay, "Thoughts for the Times on War and Death" (1915, p. 273-300), Freud puts forth the idea of the disillusionment which the war has evoked, examines altered attitudes towards death and makes various historical observations which are also specifically useful in reading *This Side of Paradise*. Freud mentions two things in this war which have aroused our sense of disillusionment which are "the low moral standards shown externally by nation states and the brutality shown by individuals" (Freud, 1914, p. 280). It is supposed that the brutality shown by individuals who are supposedly participants in the highest human civilization destroys widely held ideals. People welcome illusions because they spare us unpleasurable feelings, and enable us to enjoy satisfaction instead, but our

attitudes towards death are far from straightforward. In general, death is considered "natural, undeniable and unavoidable" (Freud, 1915, p. 289).

However, in reality, we are always deeply affected by the occurrence of death. It is a very difficult task to accept that a person we admire has died. Freud says that "in the world of fiction, in literature and in the theatre through compensation" (Freud, 1915, p. 291), we seek for "what has been lost in life" (Freud, 1915, p. 291), and "it is evident that war is bound to sweep away this conventional treatment of death [because] death will no longer be denied; we are forced to believe in it" (Freud, 1915, p. 291). These speculations of Freud can be used to a surprising degree in reading *This Side of Paradise*, particularly in the steady changes of Amory's feelings towards the deaths of his parents and his friends during the war. Also, we can see the changes of Amory's attitudes towards life and religion after the war.

The first letter in "Interlude" is written by Monsignor Darcy to Amory, who is now "a second lieutenant" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 149) stationed in Long Island indicates a very close relationship between them. Darcy himself wishes to become Amory's father as he writes in a letter that "I've enjoyed imagining that you were my son […] it's the paternal instinct, Amory—celibacy goes deeper than the flesh" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 150). Furthermore, Darcy also supposes that Amory is his "reincarnation" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 151). Darcy's wish, ironically, fits with Amory's desire to have his own substitute father. However, it is more likely an ominous of Amory's corruption when the war ends because Amory thinks that he will "lead a contemplative, emotionless life" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 154). Additionally, Amory, in his letter to his friend, reveals the fact that he no longer believes in Catholic religion as the war has made him only "a passionate agnostic" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 153). Amory's emotions depict the fact that the war has a great impact on every individual's life and can change people's concept and personalities. Like Gatsby in *The Great Gatsby*, Amory has different attitudes toward concept of life and love after the war. However, Gatsby consciously strives to become a mature and wealthy man to pursue his embodied woman but Amory seems to have nothing in his life and does not know exactly what is going to expect him.

Unlike *Tender is the Night*, Fitzgerald's *This Side of Paradise* does not emphasize the great trauma that the war bring to us but the intrusive author focus on how the war can change people's perception of life, and similar to what Freud has pointed out, we will seek for what has lost and how we can face with that. Likewise, we can witness Amory's feelings towards death in a letter to a friend at Princeton, now Lieutenant Thomas Parke D'Invilliers. He mentions the deaths of Kerry and Jesse in the war and wonders where Burne is. Amory also concerns his mother's death without any emotions, suggesting only the financial problem he will face after the war. In addition, Amory knows one soldier who "passed through the much-advertised spiritual crisis…. I [Amory] honestly think that's all pretty much rot, —though it seems to give sentimental comfort to those at home; and may make fathers and mothers appreciate their children" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 153). Amory feels, obviously, great ambivalence in making decisions about life. Late in the novel, only when Amory loses his idealized love, Rosalind Connage, he realizes that the war itself "certainly ruined the old backgrounds, sort of killed individualism out of our generation" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 198). Clearly, the war has a great impact on Amory's life and his attitude towards love.

Additionally, Amory idealizes his life based on romantic and Victorian ideals which is clearly illustrated in Book One entitled "The Romantic Egotist". In the early life, Amory himself "had formulated his first philosophy, a code to live by, which, as near as it can be named, was a sort of aristocratic egotistism" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 240). Like Anthony in *The Beautiful and Damned*, Fitzgerald's narrative depicts the desire of a young hero in a quest to shape his identity and masculinity in the world in which Amory believes that a great future will await him. Amory is obsessed by the idea that "I want to be interested", and "I want to be admired" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 51). Furthermore, Amory exhibits "the desire to influence people in almost every way, even for evil" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 25). For this reason, at St. Regis, Amory strives to be a football star instead of achieving the best marks because he knows it is impossible. Obviously, Amory self-realizes that being a famous football star makes him popularity and reputation. In his first phase of life, Amory is naively self-aware of being gaining fame and popularity in the world. Ironically, the depiction of Amory's desire is in "The Egotist Down" which partly shows his eventual fall in his early life because it just shows Amory is "conceited and arrogant" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 33) and never achieves the stable identity.

Not until Amory meets Darcy and confesses that he has "lost half my personality in a year" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 100) he once thinks his "personality seemed rather a mental thing, and it was not in his power to turn it on and off like a water faucet" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 63) at the age of eighteen. However, Darcy objects and insists that he has "lost a great amount of vanity and that's all" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 100), and "we're not personalities, but personages" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 101). Darcy then makes a distinction between the two terms "Personalities is a physical matter almost entirely; it lowers the people it acts on […] But while a personality is active, it over-rides 'the next thing'. Now a personage, on the other hand, gathers" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 101). The distinction is somewhat unclear and dim and rather based on Darcy's experiences. However, we can guess that "personalities" are our characteristics that we shape from early life while "personages" allows us to cope with all the rise and fall of life by gathering our experiences and personalities. This conception allows Amory to face and solve various dilemmas "without difficulty" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 101). It seems to be the high point of Amory's perception before his life turns into "the education of a personage" period. Therefore, to become coined with a term "personage", Amory "went thoroughly into the destruction of his egotistic highways" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 99) to find a way of "classifying and finding a type" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 101). Both Amory and Darcy have "a desire to get something definite" beyond mere vanity and so a "personage" is what they

want to be since Amory wishes to escape from a big shadow of his mother to become an independent man. Unfortunately, on the way to "find a type" Amory gets lost, and cannot identify who he is.

After the war, Amory begins to find an intense romance, trying to replace the miserable incidents in the war. Chapter 1 of Book Two named "The Debutante" depicts the romance between Amory and Rosalind Connage, Alec's sister, which is considered the most important romance and has the greatest impact on Amory's life. We once again see the portrait of Anthony's *The Beautiful and Damned* and Gatsby's *The Great Gatsby* reflected through this romance. Rosalind is a beautiful, sophisticated and somewhat has a sexual liberation's viewpoint with "great faith in man as a sex" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 160). She dreamily confesses that "I've kissed dozens of men. I suppose I'll kiss dozens more" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 165). Ironically, Rosalind and her sister, Cecelia Connage, is also brought up and educated by her unique mother, Mrs. Connage. The narrator gives no hint of Rosalind's paternal role in her family. Nevertheless, Mrs. Connage seems to educate her daughters to become strong and materialistic. Rosalind supposes that "men don't know how to be really angry or really happy—and the ones that do, go to pieces" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 162), and "I'm not really feminine" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 163). Moreover, Mrs. Connage is much aware of Rosalind's beauty and she thinks it is a weapon to change her life. She tells Rosalind that "you can't do anything without it [money]. This is our last year in this house—and unless things change, Cecelia won't have advantages you've had" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 167). Furthermore, Rosalind's mother encourages her to meet "certain men I [Mrs. Connage] want to have you [Rosalind] meet and I don't like finding you in some corner of the conservatory exchanging silliness with anyone" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 167). Out of men around Rosalind, Mrs. Connage likes Dawson Ryder most because "he is floating in money" (168). Mrs. Connage symbolizes a power mother figure in the early twentieth century who wants to change all the moral instructions of Victorian time.

But very quickly "within two weeks Amory and Rosalind were deeply and passionately in love" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 174). The intense romance makes Amory have "wild dreams of becoming suddenly rich and touring Italy" (1 Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 74). Amory has to take a job at an advertising agency in an attempt to make enough money to satisfy Rosalind. That is the reason Amory self-realizes that he is much more romantic rather sentimental because "sentimental person thinks things will last [while] a romantic person hopes against hope that they won't" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 166). Amory idealizes his romance in his way and strives to gain Rosalind's love without realizing that he is going to "break his heart over somebody who doesn't care about him" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 171). Amory is always fearful of losing Rosalind as he wishes this romance will last forever for Rosalind now becomes his "life and hope and happiness" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 175).

Compared with the previous romances with Myra and Isabelle in which Amory is a person who can control the relationship, this affair with Rosalind only exhibits his out of control and we still witness his weakness and effeminacy. In contrast, Rosalind shows her power and dominant over their relationship. Under her mother's advice and pressure of life, it is inevitably that Rosalind leaves Amory who "hasn't a penny to his name" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 178) with "thirty-five dollars a week in advertising" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 178) in dark to get married to Dawson Ryder whom she thinks "he's a good man and a strong one" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 181). Rosalind thinks that if she marries Amory, she will "ruin both [their] life" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 182). Amory really feels lost because it is "the first real unselfishness I've [Amory] ever felt in my life" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 181). This romance clearly changes Amory's concept about marriage and family but in a negative romantic point of view. Amory tries in depressed hope but he cannot grasp his love again, "he clenched his teeth so that the tears streamed in a flood from his eyes" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 188). Like Dick Diver's *Tender Is the Night* and Anthony Patch's *The Beautiful and Damned*, Amory falls into the world of disillusionment and alcohol after the loss of his love. Anthony' "romance is over" (Fitzgerald, 2003, p. 191) when his romantic affair with Rosalind ends. The moral crisis of the war, then losing Rosalind, and having no money, all these facts combine to make him feel lost. Stavola makes it clear when he writes, Amory "finally leaves, once again defeated and deserted by a woman [and] after the affair with Rosalind, Amory undergoes an intense attack of inferiority and identity confusion" (Stavola, 1979, p. 98).

However, Amory's sexual illusion might seem to continue when Amory's "obsession with sex and beauty surfaces again when he is confronted by evil in the form of Eleanor Savage" (Stavola, 1979, p. 98). Stavola exhibits that "Eleanor represents everything Amory has feared and consciously rejected: sex, the unfettered romantic will, materialism, uncontrolled passion" (Stavola, 1979, p. 98). The narrator depicts that Eleanor is a young and wild girl, whom Amory meets on a rainy haystack in Maryland. Then they start an intense romance; however, Amory feels that he is incapable of love from which Stavola suggests that "filled with emptiness and ennui, he [Amory] wants only to drift from one thing to another, make no decisions, no commitments" (Stavola, 1979, p. 99). It can be concluded that Amory once again shows the unstable identity and sexual illusion in his intense relationship and it does depict that Amory seems never to find his identity and inevitably falls into the fantasy world.

III. CONCLUSION

This Side of Paradise depicts Amory's sexual illusion throughout his life. Through the time of teenage years to adulthood, Amory repeatedly falls into romantic fantasy which is resulted from the sexual illusion and his unstable identity. From the time he lived with his mother to the years at prep school and Princeton, Amory exhibits characteristic weakness with the loss of his loves and the loss of direction of his father. By using psychoanalytic approach, we can

come to a much better understanding of the deep-rooted sexual illusion of Amory Blaine, an early representative figure of the Lost Generation. In particular, we can see how Amory's boyhood and the love from his mother, or the lack of role of his father, have affected his later life. Obviously, Amory never escapes from the fantasy world that his mother creates for him and finds his true self.

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English Grammar Automatic Output Model under Non-native Environment

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Abstract—In China, there has been a common phenomenon in English grammar teaching that much emphasis has been laid on the input of students' English grammatical knowledge while little has been paid on the improvement of their grammatical competence, which directly leads to an obvious gap between students' English grammatical knowledge and their grammatical competence. According to Anderson's cognitive theory of ACT, learners will go through three stages (cognitive, associative and automatic stage) from declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge in acquiring the automatic skills. This paper studies the implication of cognitive theory of ACT in English Grammar acquisition, internalization and automatic output. Basing on the integration between explicit grammatical knowledge and implicit grammatical competence in grammar acquisition, we put forward an English grammar automatic output model, aiming at helping foreign language learners narrow down the gap between their grammatical knowledge and grammatical competence under non-native environment.

Index Terms—cognitive theory of ACT, declarative and procedural knowledge, automatic output model

I. INTRODUCTION

Grammar, according to Rutherford (1987), is "a necessary component of any language teaching program", and thus plays an essential role in language teaching. However, since the middle twentieth century, the view whether English grammar should be taught or not has been remained controversial in English teaching field (Krashen, 1982; Long, 1983; Ellis, 1999). According to Krashen and Terrel (1983), grammar explanations should be avoided in the classroom simply because they take time away from acquisition activities. Krashen's (1992) challenged the limitations of grammar-based approach, but in fact, he doesn't deny the idea that students need to acquire a great deal of grammar. However, he holds that students will acquire more grammar if the course focuses on communications and provides pupils with sufficient comprehensible and meaningful input. Almost at the same period, a series of problems, like whether English grammar is learned or acquired, whether grammar teaching is necessary and how to teach grammar systematically, have become big headaches to English teachers in and abroad. Exploring new ways of grammar teaching is still a hot topic in English teaching, especially foreign language teaching field.

English grammar teaching in China has gone through the "grammar- centered" teaching to the period that grammar teaching had been ignored during 1970s when Audio-lingual method was popular. Since1990s, the importance of grammar teaching has been reemphasized among Chinese scholars and grammarians. Shu Dingfang (1996) has made it clear that the status and function of grammar in foreign language teaching, is not whether grammar should be taught or not, but the question of what to teach and how to teach. In the article "Reflections on China's English education", Hu Zhuanglin (2002) says "Grammar teaching is necessary, and the problem is to compile an interesting grammar book which is easy to be mastered" (P.2). Another Chinese scholar Dai Weidong (2005) proposed that grammar teaching can be compatible with students' communicative ability improvement. These viewpoints about grammar teaching and researches, to a certain degree, helped Chinese English teachers realize the importance of grammar teaching under non-native environment. And these views are, in a sense, consistent with Higgs's (1985) point of view that teaching communication and teaching grammar are inseparable aspects of teaching language, and a successful foreign language user is one who possesses and combines all of the communicative elements of a linguistic system, i.e., a "grammar", in ways that are at least analogous to the ways that native speakers possess and combine them.

In recent years, the research about whether English grammatical knowledge can promote learners' grammatical competence mainly focuses on the "non-interface hypothesis", "weak interface hypothesis" and "strong interface hypothesis". Gu Qiyi (2005) holds that "interface hypothesis" further explains the explicit and implicit links; through the empirical research, Zeng Yonghong (2009) confirms that the implicit grammatical knowledge can better predict the students' English level; to the relationship between explicit grammatical knowledge and implicit grammatical competence, we (2009, 2010, 2011) hold that English grammar acquisition is a complex higher mental process, which possesses both implicit and explicit features. Explicit grammatical knowledge acquired consciously is the precondition of foreign language learners' implicit grammatical competence, and under certain conditions, the explicit grammatical knowledge students acquired can be transformed into their grammatical competence.

As is known to all, English grammar acquisition under non-native environment is a complex mental process which remains to be further explored. The existing researches have broadened the scope of English grammar study,

emphasized the importance of grammar teaching, but the research on how to help foreign language learners internalize their explicit grammatical knowledge into their grammatical competence under non-native environment is still in its infancy. Anderson's *Adaptive Control of Thought (ACT) Model* (Anderson 1976; 1983) rests on the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge and discussed the three stages of transition from declarative to procedural knowledge. According to ACT, learners will go through three stages (cognitive, associative and automatic stage) from declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge in acquiring the automatic skills. This paper aims to put the ACT model into Chinese college students' grammar acquisition and automatic output process practice, combining with explicit grammatical knowledge and implicit grammatical competence, to construct a practical grammar automatic output model and help college students narrow the gap between their grammatical knowledge and their grammatical competence.

II.   The Necessity of Constructing a Grammar Automatic Output Model

According to Chinese College English Teaching Syllabus (2000), the objective of grammar teaching is to help college students improve their ability of using English grammar in the certain contexts, to have a relatively systematic understanding of grammar and use English grammar knowledge to solve the problems in the process of English learning. This teaching syllabus clearly demonstrates that the target of grammar teaching is to cultivate students' communicative competence by using grammatical knowledge and the ability of using English grammatical knowledge to solve actual problems in English study. Though explicit grammatical knowledge is indispensable to learners' English grammatical competence improvement, how to help foreign language learners internalize their grammatical knowledge and achieve the language output automation is the key factor to college English grammar teaching.

In the book *The Teacher's Guide to Grammar*, Deborah Cameron (2007) mentions that grammatical knowledge is a tool: like any tool, it is for some people and unnecessary or unsuitable for others. When it is useful, and how it can be best used, are matters for teachers' professional judgment. Under native environment, though learners know little about grammatical rules, such as they even don't know what infinitive (including bare infinitive/ naked infinitive and split infinitive) is, but they can express themselves clearly by using infinitives. Therefore, it's no need for native English teachers to explain grammatical rules in detail. However, under non-native environment, because learners have no environment of acquiring grammatical competence, declarative grammatical knowledge acquisition is not only useful but also necessary. In such situations, foreign language teachers have to deliver the systematic rules of grammar to foreign language learners, so as to help them acquire the related declarative knowledge and prepare for the improvement of their language competence.

Learning a foreign language, like any other type of skill such as driving a car or playing table tennis, involves the procedures of transforming declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge, and achieving the goal of internalization and acquisition. However in China, for a long period, there is a common phenomenon that much has been focused on students' English grammatical knowledge while little was laid on their grammatical competence, which, to a certain degree, leads to the gap between college students' English grammatical knowledge and their grammatical competence. For example, many teachers find that tenses are far more difficult to teach than, say, vocabulary. Though teaching a lesson around a tense is obviously easier, it may be a different matter help students internalize and output English tenses freely. Despite their best efforts, most students still consistently misuse, misunderstand and misapply tenses, which is really a big headache to both students and teachers. Besides, foreign language learners are, generally, not sensitive to foreign grammar systems, partly because they often compare the grammar structures to their native ones, which usually confuse them in grammar acquisition and production.

In addition, the researches about foreign language learners' internalization from their grammatical knowledge into their grammatical knowledge are still far from enough. It is still a sticking point about how to help foreign learners internalize their grammatical knowledge and improve their implicit grammatical competence.

III.   Theoretical Framework according to Anderson's ACT Model

In order to understand Anderson's ACT model, it's necessary for us to make sure the interrelationship between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge. The former is equivalent to the knowledge concept we traditionally have, while the latter mainly refers to the knowledge used to answer question like "how to do". Accordingly, English grammar rules belong to declarative knowledge, while how to use grammatical rules during language output is a kind of skill which belongs to procedural knowledge. "The first stage of procedural knowledge is declarative knowledge acquisition, that is to say, the declarative knowledge is the basis of procedural knowledge; the second stage of procedural knowledge is achieved through the application of rules and exercises of the declarative knowledge; the third stage is the highest stage of knowledge development, skills to achieve the degree of automation in language output" (Pi Liansheng, 2004, P92, P93). For example, after learning the usage of "gerund" systematically, students only obtained the declarative knowledge of gerund, namely, the grammatical rules and concepts of gerund, if they don't internalize the related knowledge, that is, don't put it into their procedural knowledge by applying it in daily communication or writing, they still cannot have the competence of outputting gerund in their speaking and writing.

As a general theory of cognition developed by John Anderson that focuses on memory processes, ACT distinguishes the three types of memory structures: declarative, procedural and working memory. Anderson's ACT Model (Anderson

1976, 1983) rests on the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge. According to Anderson, a learner may acquire declarative knowledge suddenly, by being told, whereas he can only acquire procedural knowledge gradually, by performing the skills. A person can communicate his declarative knowledge verbally, but cannot communicate his procedural knowledge. On the basis of ACT, knowledge general begins as declarative information, while procedural knowledge is learned by making inferences from already existing factual knowledge.
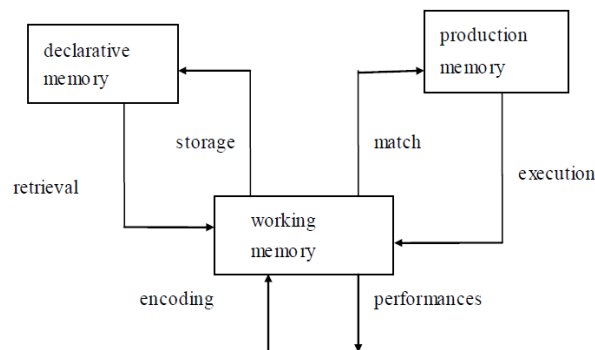
Source: Shichun Gui (2011, P38).

According to ACT, the transition from declarative to procedural knowledge and working memory takes place in three stages. At the declarative stage, knowledge is just stored as facts, and it is quite difficult for learners to use declarative knowledge on the first stage. The second is the associative stage. A learner tries to apply the general rules acquired at the first stage into particular instance. For example, the learner may have learnt 'booked', hooked and 'helped' as distinct items, but may come to realize that they can be represented more economically in a production set: 'If we generate the past tense of a verb, just add -ed to the verb'. In the autonomous stage, in which procedures become increasingly automated, the mind continues to generalize productions. At this stage, the consciousness of using grammatical rules can disappear entirely, and learners will output language naturally. That is, learners can not only recognize the past tense in reading and listening, but also can use them freely in their speaking and writing.

IV. CONSTRUCTION OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR AUTOMATIC OUTPUT MODEL BASING ON ACT

Though declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge are different, both of them are aimed at helping foreign language learners internalize their knowledge into their competence. Basing on ACT model, English grammar acquisition and automatic output process under non-native environment can be expressed as:
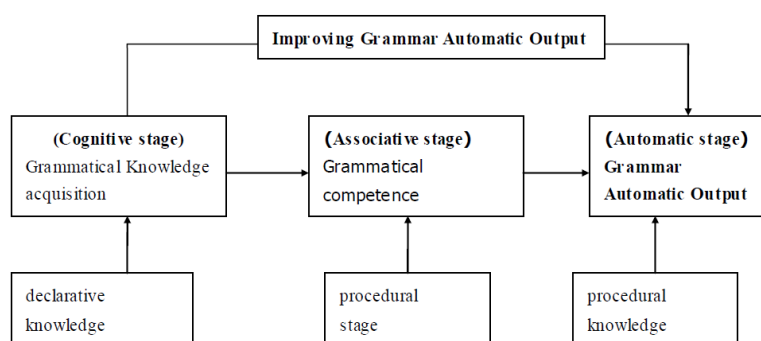

English grammar acquisition and automatic output process under non-native environment

According to this diagram, in order to achieve the state of grammar automatic output, foreign language learners should first of all experience two stages: "grammatical knowledge acquisition" and "grammatical competence training". "Grammar automatic output" belongs to the third stage of automation; while "grammatical knowledge acquisition" and "grammatical competence" are equivalent to the processes of "cognitive" and "associative" stage of ACT model, which equated to the explicit grammatical knowledge accumulation, practice and transformation. These two stages are the preconditions to the formation of foreign language learners' grammar automatically output model. Practice, application, feedback and transformation are the basis and conditions in the internalization from declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge. That is to say, to foreign language learners under non-native environment, grammatical competence training contributes to their grammar automatically output process. In the process of realizing the state of one's grammar output automation, both declarative and procedural knowledge are indispensable.

If grammar teaching only stays at the stage of grammatical knowledge presentation, foreign language learners can only get declarative knowledge. Creating native-like grammar acquisition environment and providing learners with

enough chances to use grammatical rules will, to a certain degree, accelerate the internalization from their explicit grammatical knowledge to their grammatical competence. Implicit grammatical knowledge, or we can call it grammatical competence, is tacit knowledge which is not easily visible and expressible, and is often acquired unconsciously or subconsciously. So, what the foreign language teachers should not neglect is to bring the "real" or native-like environment to foreign learners.

With the advent of the Internet, there are more and more new teaching tools and equipments can be used to improve our grammar teaching effect. For example, the introduction and application of multimedia technology to foreign language teaching, it can not only provide students with real language environments and vivid contexts, but also can help to explain the abstract grammatical knowledge by using pictures and other animation or cartoons (Du Xiaohong, 2009), which gives non-native English learners favorable external conditions of grammar acquisition. Basing on multimedia and network environment, the grammar automatic output model under non-native environment can be expressed as:
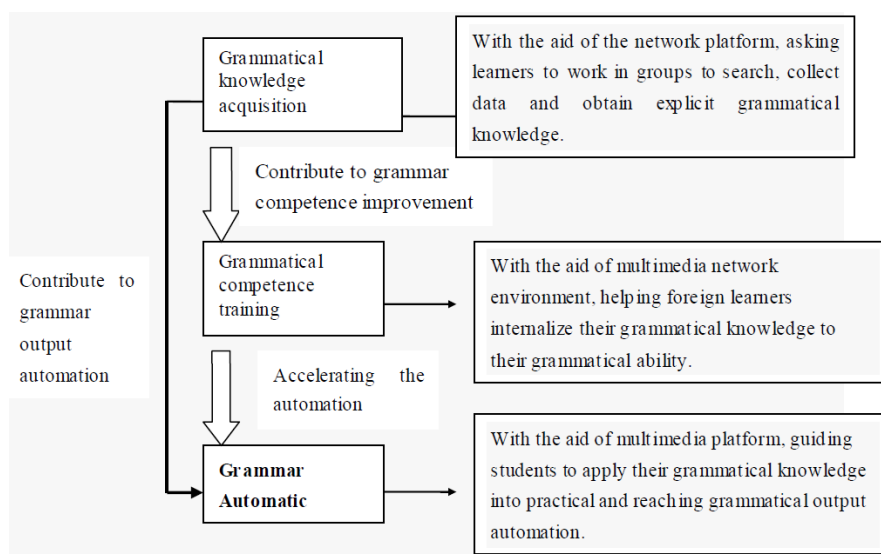
Celce-Murcia (1992) hold that any formal grammar instruction is more effective if it is discourse-based and context-based than if it is sentence-based and context-free. In order to promote foreign language learners' grammatical knowledge internalization, foreign language teachers should create different native-like contexts to stimulate students' grammar autonomous learning ability and guide them to combine their grammar learning with the provided audio-visual resource. According to Oxford and Crookall (1990), foreign language learning techniques includes three categories, namely decontextualized, semi-contextualized, and fully contextualized. Though Oxford and Crookall's classification is mainly used for vocabulary learning, it can also be applied to grammar learning. Multimedia-aided grammar learning belongs to semi-contextualized or fully contextualized learning. Under such environment, students are fully activated and encouraged, and teachers' role will transfer from simple imparting knowledge into the role of giving directions, inspirations and answering questions etc.. The students are given more opportunities to think, discuss, reflect, engage in task-based activities about grammar, even do some inquiry learning or learn automatically in their spare time. At the grammar automatic stage, with the aid of multimedia platform, students will apply their grammatical knowledge into their practice subconsciously or consciously and reach the stage of their grammatical output automation.

V. CLASS PRACTICE OF THE GRAMMAR AUTOMATIC OUTPUT MODEL UNDER NON-NATIVE ENVIRONMENT

In order to imply the Grammar Automatic Output Model into practice, on the first grammar class of a new semester, I ask the sophomore to write an article within 100 words, using as more subject clauses and conjunctions as possible. More than one third of the students only selected "that, which, who and what" for connecting clauses, none of them using "when, where, how, why" to connect subject clauses, let alone "however, how often, how soon, how far" and other conjunctions.

In China, most college students are familiar with the three categories of subject clause connections: ① subordinate conjunctions "that" and "whether"; ② the connecting pronouns "who, what, which" (including whom, whose, whoever, whomever, whatever, whichever); ③ "where, when, how, why (including whenever, wherever, however, how many, how much, how long ...). Though they've acquired the related explicit grammatical knowledge, just because of lacking the process of internalization, they cannot make use of them freely in their speaking and writing.

In order to check the applicability of Grammar Automatic Output Model under non-native environment, basing on students' present grammatical knowledge and the aid of multimedia, we carefully select some films, TV programs, live broadcast, newspapers, long and difficult sentences in the novels, etc. to our grammar class. Create native-like

environment for foreign language learners and let them feel and experience these grammatical rules and their vivid usages subconsciously, even unconsciously. For example, in helping students internalize and output the present tense and past tense, we use some clips taken from the movie "Home Alone II"

(K: abbreviation for Kevin; M: abbreviation for Mary)

…

M: I wasn't always like this.

K: What were you like before?

M: I had a job. I had a home. I had a family.

K: Any kids?

M: No, I wanted them. But the man I loved fell out of love with me …

The above example clearly shows the comparison between "past tense" and "present tense". From the conversation, we can easily conclude that Mary has no job and no home now. "No, I wanted them" means that she wanted to have a child in the past, but now she doesn't want to. This simple past tense conveys that Mary has been hopeless, no longer want children. From the vivid dialog of the movie, it is easy for students to internalize the comparison between the two tenses.

Then I asked my students to infer the implication of "You studied very hard last year" (In certain context, it means "You don't study hard this year.), then encouraged them to distinguish the differences between "You studied very hard last year" and "You study very hard this year". In order to help students internalize and output past tense automatically, I asked them to freely output some vivid examples such as "I loved you", "I was a top student when I was in senior school." This kind of teaching can not only arouse students' enthusiasm, shorten the time of their grammar automatic input and output, but also can help them lay a solid foundation for improving their automatic grammar output competence.

…

M: I was afraid of getting my heart broken again. Sometimes you can trust a person…, and then, when things are down, they forget about you.

This sentence is a typical example of flexible usage and transition from present tense to past tense. We can ask students to analyze the reason of the tenses change, then ask them to distinguish the differences between the two tenses (The former part of the sentence is past tense because it describes Mary's state in the past; the latter part adopts present tense because it indicates the objective facts of common people.).

…

K: Maybe they're just too busy. Maybe they don't forget about you, but they forget to remember you. People don't mean to forget. My grandfather says if my head wasn't screwed on, I'd leave it on the school bus.

The above sentence states the objective fact, so it adopts the present tense. Kate also uses subjective mood to achieve his conversational purpose. Obviously, this discourse-based grammar teaching is effective in helping students acquire grammatical points.

Comparing with the traditional grammar teaching method that grammatical rules are directly delivered to students, we can clearly find that the English grammar automatic output model basing on multimedia gives students more opportunities to observe, analyze, discover and use grammatical knowledge under non-native environment, which to a certain degree, helps foreign language learners narrow down the gap between their grammatical knowledge and grammatical competence.

VI. CONCLUSION AND FURTHER RESEARCH

It is obvious that applying ACT model into foreign language learners English grammar automatic output can, to a certain degree, benefit students' grammatical competence improvement, but there are still some problems to be solved. On one hand, it's not easy for teachers to collect appropriate teaching materials from films, TV programs, live broadcast, or newspapers. On the other hand, at present we still have no relatively ideal textbooks for improving foreign language learners' grammatical competence, which requires grammar teachers to spend a lot of time and energy selecting suitable teaching materials, finding grammar points, and guiding students to internalize the related grammatical rules. Therefore, cultivating students' grammatical automatic output competence under non-native environment only limits to college students who have strong sense of self-study and already have a basic command of explicit grammatical knowledge which, to some extent, hinders the application of this grammar automatic output mode.

In addition, just because of the differences between L1 and FL learning, it's easy for L1 learners to reach the grammar autonomous output stage. But to foreign language learners, internalizing the explicit grammatical knowledge into implicit grammatical competence is not an easy process, in fact, they do not really reach full automatic output in language output.

What's also cannot be neglected is the difference between spoken and written grammar. Traditionally, the spoken language has been regarded as relatively inferior to written language in grammar teaching, and for many centuries grammarians have taken the written language as a benchmark for standard grammar. In fact, language is in use, and spoken grammar, especially grammar in communication, will also be emphasized in our grammar teaching, for the aim of grammar teaching is to improve students' grammatical competence, not just their grammatical knowledge.

How to narrow the gap between foreign language learners' explicit grammatical knowledge and their grammatical competence under non-native environment and improve their grammar automatic output competence still needs further studies.

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Postmodern Influence in Contemporary Persian Literature

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Abstract—In late 20th century postmodernism flourished in Europe and influenced many eastern writers, especially Iranian writers. In Iran, postmodernism began with Bahram Sadeghi; however, none of the literary critics considered Sadeghi and his followers as postmodern writers (Taslimi, 2004, p. 80). This article intends to focus on some of the Iranian writers such as Moniroo Ravanipoor, Siroos Shamisa, Aboutorab Khosravi then, it will trace some of the postmodern features in their stories. One can trace magical realism, fragmentation, merging of reality and fiction which are the most important features of postmodernism in the selected writers' short stories.

Index Terms—postmodernism, Iranian short story, postmodern features

I. INTRODUCTION

This article intends to focus on six Iranian writes and shed light on one of their short stories. It intends to give information about Persian literature and the way postmodernism mingles with it. The six selected writers are contemporary Iranian Writers; i.e. they are born in 20th century. As postmodernism has too many different features; i.e. the features which critics like Ihab Hassan mentioned for postmodernism, some of the features which are more repetitive in the selected short stories come into consideration in this article.

For the first time in 1870, John Watkins Chapman used the term postmodernism in order to describe the paintings of his era which were different from the classical paintings. The term postmodernism was used in literature in 1960s and got its climax in 1980s; however, "most of the literary historians believed that postmodernism has started since 1960 and at the same time one can forget about the date, for example, the reader finds a novel which was written in 1950s and had postmodernist features" (Payande, 2003, p. 153). Not only political, social and economical events but also events such as world wars, loss of faith, disbelief in grand narratives especially Christianity, Kennedy's assassination, consumerism and the presence of media led to the advent of postmodernism in literature. As literary texts reflect historical, social and political events of each period (Tadayoni, 2009, p. 24), American and European writers intend to write and reflect people's doubts, terror and horror in postmodern era.

Critics such as Ihab Hassan, Linda Hutcheon, David Lodge and John Barthes presented their theories on postmodernism and applied them to literary works. Unlike inappropriate social, historical and political situations for this school of thought, many eastern writers, especially Iranian writers, supported postmodernism and wrote their own works. Based on the theorists' idea, the most important features of postmodernism are "ontology, disorder in time sequence, paranoia, uncertainty, loss of identity,…" (Tadayoni, 2009, p. 27-28). However Ihab Hassan asserted that postmodernism, like other schools of thought, does not have a fixed meaning; therefore, there is no unanimity of votes about its meaning among the critics (Yazdanjoo, 2002, p. 99).

The term 'postmodernism' was first used in the *1960s* by literary critics such as Leslie Fiedler and Ihab Hassn, who noted the erupt of the modernist movement and tried to characterize what was coming next. During the early and mid 1970s the term gained a wider currency, encompassing first architecture, the dance, theater, painting, film, and music, and then contemporary culture and society as a whole (emphasis added, Simons and Billig, 1994, p. 15)

In the avalanche of articles and books that have made use of the term since the late *1950s* postmodernism has been applied to a wide different levels of conceptual abstraction to a wide range of objects and phenomena in what we used to call reality (emphasis added, Bertens, 1995, p. 3)

This article intends to focus on the advent of postmodernism in Persian short stories From Bahram Sadeghi to Simin Daneshvar, Goli Taraghi, Shahrnoosh Parsipoor, Siroos Shamisa, Moniroo Ravanipoor, and Aboutorab Khosravi. These writers wrote different novels and short stories and this article will shed light on one of the short stories of each writer and then focus on its postmodernist features.

As Ihab Hassan mentioned postmodernism has so many different features:

Modernism	Postmodernism
Romanticism/ Symbolism	Pataphysics/ Dadaism
Form (conjunctive, closed)	Antiform (disjunctive, open)
Purpose	Play
Design	Chance
Hierarchy	Anarchy

Mastery/ Logos	Exhaustion/ Silence
Art object/ Finished work	Process/performance/happening
Distance	Participation
Creation/ Totalization	Decreation/ Deconstruction
Synthesis	Antithesis
Presence	Absence
Centering	Dispersal
Genre/ Boundary	Text/ Intertext
Semantics	Rhetoric
Paradigm	Syntagm
Hypotaxis	Parataxis
Metaphor	Metonymy
Selection	Combination
Root/ Depth	Rhizome/ Surface
Interpretation/ Reading	Against Interpretation/ Misreading
Signified	Signifier
Lisible (Readerly)	Scriptible/ Writerly
Narrative/ Grand Histoire	Anti-narrative/ Petitie Histoire
Master Code	Ideolect
Symptom	Desire
Type	Mutant
Genital/ Phallic	Polymorphous/ Androgynous
Paranoia	Schizophrenia
Origin/ Cause	Difference-Differance/ Trace
God the Father	The Holy Ghost
Metaphysics	Irony
Determinancy	Indeterminancy
Transcendence	Immanence (Hassan, 1985, p. 123)

This article will focus on some postmodernist features like fragmentation, open ending, and shattering of the boundaries of fiction and reality.

II. ANALYSIS

Bahram Sadeghi (1936- 1984) was born in Esfahan. The most important theme of his stories is the absurdity of urban life. He wrote *Teaching at Stirring Spring* in 1962. From the very beginning, the narrator addresses the reader and asks him/her to follow the narrator throughout the story in fact, "The narrator's presence and his dialogue with the reader is an important factor in the story" (Abedini, 1990, p. 220). "Let's assume, if you agree, that both of us are in the class" (Sadeghi, 1970, p. 204). From the beginning, the reader is engaged in all the events and the repetition of "we" and "you" emphasize the reader's engagement in the story. Then, the narrator emphasizes the fact that it is just a story and it is not the real life "do you prefer the story to be more formal and near to reality" (Sadeghi, 1970, p. 204)? Mahmoodi asserts that "postmodern writers know that the story is the reflection of the illusion of reality. Sadeghi mocks at reality and believes that the whole reality is just an imagination" (Mahmoodi, 1998, p. 169). This style of story telling reminds the reader of *If a Winter's Night a Traveler* (1979) by Italo Calvino; in this novel the narrator addresses the reader repeatedly and asks him/her to follow the story. In *Teaching at Stirring Spring* the reader assumes that there is a class in which students are present, but the teacher is late, neither the students nor the teacher see each other, the faces are like shadows and when the students leave the class, the teacher only sees their ghostly movement and even "those who sit in the first rows can not see the teacher" (Sadeghi, 1970, p. 206).

The story reflects the disintegrated mind and the identity crisis which the western postmodern writers emphasize in their works. In the class, the only visible person is a blonde, blue eyed girl who fascinates all the students ;however, this fascination is not as vulgar as postmodern love, all the students think about "her sensual lips" and even the narrator imagines her dancing and asks the reader whether she should continue dancing. The reader follows the story until the blonde girl intends to leave the class because she does not want "him to wait" for her; therefore, she is the first student who leaves the class and the identity of the boy remains ambiguous to the end of the story. The teacher is not aware of the students' absence and only at the end of the story understands that no one stays in the class except an old man.

Sadeghi "expresses painful satire in his works and this satire deals with human beings who have different physical and mental problems" (Mahmoodi, 1998, p. 169). In this story, the narrator addresses the reader and it emphasizes the fictional nature of the story. Moreover, postmodern love and identity crises are the most important features of postmodernism which are represented in this story. The presence of postmodern features maintains that although literary critics do not consider Sadeghi as a postmodern writer, one can consider him as the father of postmodernism in Persian literature.

Bahram Sadeghi's works and style influenced later writers and one of them is Simin Daneshvar. Simin Daneshvar (1921- 2011) was born in Shiraz. She was the fist woman writer who wrote Persian stories professionally. She wrote *a City like Heaven* in 1981 and *the Man who Does not Return* is chosen from this book.

This fragmented story deals with Mohtaram and Ebrahim's life who live with their two sons, Mammady and Ahmadi. In many cases, nineteenth and twentieth century writers focued on one character in a specific situation, and the writer represented the protagonist in one moment rather than following him through different times" (Taheri, 2000, p. 75) ; however, based on Lodge's view, postmodern stories "do not have any unity" (Payande, 2003, p. 165). In the first fragment, Mohtaram looks for her husband, but she returns home hopelessly. The second fragment of the story is devoted to the characters' past; when Mohtaram was a young woman and got married to Ebrahim. The third part of the story deals with the hopeless narrator who asks the reader to choose an ending among the narrator's suggestions; however, at the end the narrator decides that Ebrahim should return home and wait her. The story is fragmented and it reminds the reader of *Snow White* (1967) by Donald Bartheleme which was written in fragments too.

In the third part of the story, the narrator confesses that all the events are fiction and there is no reality. Postmodernist works "destroy the boundaries of reality and fiction" (Payande, 2003, p. 167). At the same time "Mohtaram's story is finished" (Daneshvar, 1982, p. 154) and the narrator asks the reader to choose among the suggestions for the ending of the story. Therefore, one concludes that unlike the classic stories in which the narrator ends the story himself and dominates the whole process of writing, in this story the reader cooperates with the narrator and it is one of the features of postmodernism because "postmodern novels do not have a fixed ending" (Payande, 2003, p. 161). The narrator asks some questions "should I oblige her to break her children's piggy bank? Is it good to permit her to go to the police officer? Should I force her to work as a servant" (Daneshvar, 1982, p. 155)? These questions keep out the story from its classic works and emphasize uncertainty. In the classic stories, the story shows the writer's dominance over the story. One should notice that in Daneshvar's works "events or characters' destiny are not important, but the most important feature is revealing new and invisible aspects of life which attract the reader's attention" (Payande, 2003, p. 46).

In this story, features like fragmentation, laying bare the device and open ending are represented which are the important features of postmodernist works. Goli Taraghi (1939), was born in Tehran, wrote a book named *I Am Chgvara* which was published in 1969. *The Journey* is selected from this book.

This story deals with a professor whose leg is amputated from his knee by a surgery. Horror dominates the whole story and magical realism plays an important role in the story. When the narrator says "all his parts of body are disintegrated" (Taraghi, 1969, p. 49) strange event takes place which never happens in reality. Epistemological questions are asked in the story which relates it to the modernist stories. Brian McHale notices that postmodernist works deal with ontological questions whereas modernist works focus on epistemological questions (1987, p. 8-9). The professor murmurs "sir, non-existence exists or non-existence does not exist? Existence was first nothing or it was always everything" (Taraghi, 1969, p. 50)? In this part, he asks ontological questions. In fact, ontology deals with species, their hierarchies and their differences and similarities.

The story is full of magical realism and when the reader continues reading, he notices this feature "their dried faces are like old and frozen mummies" (Taraghi, 1969, p. 53). All the descriptions reflect the main character's horror when he deals with the horror of amputation. When he intends to describe his father in law's exhaustion, he declares "all his parts of body are disintegrated, it is as if with the first wind his head will be cut and his hands and feet will be fallen on the ground" (ibid. 49).

Besides, the repetition of the word "suspicious" gives mysterious atmosphere to the story. The main character asks philosophical questions and he does not have any communication with others that is the reason why their movement is disgusting to him; therefore, he asks philosophical, epistemological and ontological questions and the more he asks the more he dives into uncertainty. As the result of social and political development and the advent of philosophical views, short stories focus on human beings and their position in the world" (Mastoor, 2005, p. 4). "Everything turns around him and he goes down and down with crabs, he moves his hands and feet in order to come to the surface, but he cannot" (Taraghi, 1969, p. 55), in this part the boundary between reality and dream is blurred. When he is frightened he thinks that he is changed into a "cow" or a "crab". His foot is amputated, but he pretends that this event is not important to him, but one can trace the sign of his lost identity as the result of his lost foot in his unconscious. He feels lonely "and his loneliness reflects modern man's situation that sees himself alone at the center of the universe" (Dehbashi, 2004, p. 230). Dehbashi believes that "existentialism dominates the whole story" (ibid. 286) and existentialism is related to epistemology. As mentioned before, horror dominates the story and this horror is related to existentialism because the man sees himself alone that is the reason why this story deals with "philosophical disappointment" (ibid. 297), i.e. there is no help for the characters in the universe.

In 1991, Siroos Shamisa (1948-) ,who was born in Rasht and wrote many different books and articles, wrote *The Mirror and Three Other Stories* and this article will discuss *The Mirror*. From the very beginning, uncertainty and doubt dominate the story when the narrator suspects his wife and intends to know her secrets. The doubt atmosphere covers the story; however, at the end the reader cannot understand anything. As the result of the presence of too many spies in the society in late 20th century, doubt and uncertainty were dominant in western postmodernist literature. Moreover, there were too many illegal institutions that worked very easily. In this story, the narrator acts like a detective and intends to unravel the truth in order to know whether his wife betrays him or not. The events take place in

dreamy-real world and the borders between them are blurred. For example, the narrator maintains that "even once I saw the rooster prays and it seems that the rooster cries and I get happy as the result of his cry, I can never forget that event" (Shamisa, 1991, p. 11). Not only the boundaries between reality and dream, but also the boundaries between the genders are broken "some hens like roosters" enter the story or when the fortune teller went to the door "(he) saw a man and when (he) called him, he turned and (he) saw the disgusting face of a woman" (ibid. 13). Even the doubt that the fortune teller and the woman are the same remains ambiguous to the end of the story and it reflects the postmodernist world in which many questions remain unanswered.

As it is mentioned before, the narrator acts like a detective to unravel his wife's betrayal; however, the fortune teller is more interesting for him and the narrator intends to know his secrets.

Besides, the magical realism adds to the effect of uncertain atmosphere of the story. When the narrator says "people talk about the weather in their stories, but they are disappeared and they went to the sky like smoke" (ibid. 14); this sentence, unconsciously, reminds the reader of *One Hundred Years of Solitude* (1967) by Gabriel Garcia Marquez who is the master of the magical realism, in his novel one of the characters suddenly go to the sky, disappear and do not return to the story; "this story reveals new ways of connection with outside world of the story and outside world of the language" (Yazdanjoo, 2002, p. 39).

One can notice the identity crisis in the story too "the fortune teller had a wife whose name was Soofieh, perhaps. It is not clear who she was, where she was born or when she died" (Shamisa, 1991, p. 14). In fact, the identity crisis and perplexity belong to modernist stories that are strengthened in postmodernist stories; western people who passed two world wars and became familiar with Darwin's theory of natural selection and Freud's theory of the fragmentation of the mind, knew that their existence is fragmented. Brian McHale in postmodernist fiction emphasizes the importance of the theme of love and death in postmodernist stories (1987, p. 219-232). As death dominates European society, it enters the stories; moreover, love whether pure or sensual is emphasized in postmodernist stories. In this story, some women are prostitutes. The narrator suspects his wife; however, at the end of the story he swears that his wife is innocent and his wife is opposite of prostitutes "in the third stage of that house, there was a prostitute who dances all the time and it is not clear whether she was the fortune teller's wife or his daughter" (Shamisa, 1991, p. 15). "People said paradoxical things about her and even they said that she was a lesbian" (ibid. 15). As the story continues, mirror imagery is strengthened "at the center of the mirror, there was an ambiguous space like a meadow that no one never goes there" (ibid. 37). Mirror is an image which is repeated in Borges' stories and it is the symbol of infinity. In this story, mirror indicates the infinity too and the narrator is entangled in the mirror. At the end of the story, the narrator loses his identity in the mirror and he is fascinated by the endless space of the mirror. Not only the mirror, but also the image of allies and their twists are the same images that Borges uses to imply infinity. To the end of the story, magical realism and the blurring of reality and fiction are repeated which add to the suspicion and at the end the narrator cannot get out of the mirror. The reader is confused at the end of the story because it is not clear how the narrator enters the mirror and how he cannot get out of it. Even the reader does not know where the boundary of reality and fiction is and even he does not know whether there is any boundary between them or not.

Aboutorab Khosravi (1956) was born in Fasa. His works tend to surrealism and postmodernism. He wrote *Havyh* in 1991 and *Nightly Nightmares* is selected from this book. From the beginning of the story, the choice of each character's name attracts the reader's attention. "Borhani (Reasoning) was a mystic, Sotoude (Appreciated) was the shafiite muslim and Rasekh (Determined) was paradoxical" (Khosravi, 1991, p. 41). In the characters' name and their point of view, there is a big contrast. The mystic approaches God by love; however, reasoning approaches God by reason. Here love and reason put together and these names clarify the way these people believe in the truth of death. In fact, "Nightly Nightmares" is the story in which death dominates the whole story. All the characters talk about Fathi's death, but none of them knows "how he died"; therefore, suspicion dominates the story; moreover, Sotoude blurs the boundaries of death and life "he was sure that Fathi will return and solve the problem" (ibid. 42).The metamorphosis is another feature of this story as Rasekh sees Fathi turned into a ram. Besides, one can notice blurring of the boundaries of reality and dream in the following conversation:

I said: "Mr. Fathi, it seemed that you were dead".

Borhani said: "death is not real".

Rasekh laughed and said: "Mr. Fathi, it seems that I killed you" (ibid. 44).

Alive people talked to the dead man and boundaries of death and life, reality and dream are shattered and at last, the reader does not understand the real reason of Fathi's death.

Besides these writers, Shahrnoosh Parsipoor (1945), who received the price at the 18th feminist conference in the United States as the selected writer, wrote *The Heat in the Year Zero* in 2003 and *A Good Place* is chosen from this book. The story begins simply and mysterious and surprising events portrayed normally. For example, Ghashange cleans the room and suddenly she sees a man in the mirror; it is a kind of magical realism. Magical realism means that real events coalesced with strange and improbable events. The story continues in this way, then boundaries of reality and dream are blurred "the walls keep out until the space grows bigger and bigger" (Parsipoor, 2003, p. 40). In fact, no boundary is respected in this story and everything is chaotic and at the end of the story the reader is confused because he does not understand who the man was and what kind of relationship this man and woman had.

All the events entangled until Ghashange gets melancholic. From all around the house, there smells the smell of baby's corpse. In addition to the blurring of boundaries of reality and dream and the use of magical realism, fragmentation of the story adds to the reader's perplexity. "Reading postmodernist novel means facing the fragmented events and thoughts" (Payande, 2009, p. 99) which are the features of this short story. As it is mentioned, there are some writers whose works can be categorized as modernist and postmodernist simultaneously and Parsipoor is one of these writers. The features like fragmentation, blurring of reality and fiction, and magical realism are postmodernist, whereas Ghashange's melancholia is a modernist feature.

Moniroo Ravanipoor (1954), was born in Bushehr and most her stories take place in south of Iran too, wrote *Syria, Syria* in 2004 and *The Fourth Person* is selected from this book. The narrator starts the story with doubt "now he just wants to know the fourth person" (Ravanipoor, 2004, p. 101). From the first sentence on many questions come into the reader's mind, and then the mirror imagery indicates infinity. He hears three men's cry "the fourth person lives in the mirror" (ibid. 102). The narrator knows that these three men carry a coffin and ask the narrator to join them, but at the end of the story the reader does not understand whether they were dead who come into life or they were alive and carry a coffin. Even the narrator is frightened by their face and like postmodernist science-fiction stories, the narrator describes their smile "as a big hole in their face which intends to eat everything and he escapes […] a smile which intends to explode and scatter everything" (ibid. 104).

Mirror imagery indicates infinity and Borgesian twisted corridors add to the uncertainty and doubt; therefore, the reader cannot understand whether these three men were human beings or the other species "and how long it takes to understand that these men were wooden" (ibid. 10). Moreover, from the narrator's body some plants grow. In this story which is a kind of science- fiction story, boundaries of reality and dream, and death and life are blurred.

In postmodernist literature, not only the boundaries between reality and dream but also the boundaries between modernism and postmodernism are blurred. In fact, "there is no precise line which separates modernism and postmodernism" (Yazdanjoo, 2002, p. 18). In fact, one can consider postmodernism as the follower of modernism; however, it is sometimes parody of modernism. There are many modernist writers who wrote postmodernist fictions too. In Iran, Ali Taslimi considers Moniroo Ravanipoor as both a modernist and a postmodernist writer (2004, p. 56). However, there are some other writers like Goli Taraghi who is considered as a modernist writer by the critics and the existence of postmodernist features in her works indicate that there is no certainty in the classification of writer's style of writing.

III. CONCLUSION

As it is mentioned, postmodernism applied to different disciplines like, painting, cinema, and especially literature. American and European writers wrote about postmodern condition in their novels, short stories and poems. This article sheds light on the history of Iranian postmodernism from Bahram Sadeghi to Moniroo Ravanipoor. Payande believes that social, political and economical conditions in Europe and America lead to the development of postmodernism, whereas, in Iran the writers imitated western works; therefore, as a result of the lack of social and political conditions, postmodernism does not develop in Iran. "Blind imitation of the new style that does not have any cultural background in our country" is an obstacle in the development of Iranian postmodern literature; however, one should not ignore Iranian writers' attempt to found Iranian postmodernism in Iran (Payande, 2009, p. 122).

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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Learning Text by Heart and Language Education: The Chinese Experience

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Abstract—**Learning text by heart is a traditional practice in Chinese literacy education. After tracing its development in ancient Chinese literacy education, the article explores how learning text by heart was transferred to foreign language education against the background of the history of English language teaching (ELT) in China. The use of textual memorisation in learning English in recent decades is then surveyed along with a brief discussion of the legendary popularity of *New Concept English*, a UK-imported textbook series. It seems that learning text by heart, contrary to the prediction of foreign experts, is still widely practiced in China as a way of learning foreign languages. This calls for teachers' professional commitment to guiding the students in terms of making good use of this traditional learning practice.**

Index Terms—**China, learning text by heart, history of English education, New Concept English**

In recent years, Chinese learners' foreign language learning strategy has received enormous amount of attention among language researchers and teachers (e.g. Gao, 2006, 2007, 2008; Gu, 2003; Jiang & Smith, 2009; Wen, 1996). Text memorisation , as one of the frequently mentioned learning strategies by Chinese learners is drawing increasing interest among Chinese scholars (see Ding, 2004, 2007; Ding & Qi, 2001; Long & Huang, 2006; X. Yu, 2009, 2010). This body of research, which largely focuses on the potential facilitative role of this practice in second language acquisition from a psycholinguistic perspective, attempted to make a positive reappraisal of learning text by heart as a learning device. However, there is a lack of documentation in literature as to how this traditional practice in Chinese literacy education has been built up through the history of English language teaching (ELT) in China.

This article attempts to address the gap through tracing the historical origins and development of textual memorisation in both Chinese literacy education and foreign language education. I will begin the paper by delineating a rough picture of how learning text by heart was practiced and why it had been heavily emphasised in traditional Chinese literacy education. Then, I will discuss how learning text by heart was transferred to and ingrained in foreign language education in relation to the history of ELT in China. After that, I will move on to survey the use of learning text by heart in learning English in recent decades along with a brief discussion of the legendary popularity of *New Concept English*, a UK-imported textbook series. Finally, I will offer suggestions for foreign language teachers and pose directions for future research.

I. TEXT MEMORISATION IN CHINESE LITERACY EDUCATION

A. The Practice

Learning Chinese through meticulous study of some Chinese classics till one can learn them by heart has been the pattern that traditional literacy education follows for hundreds of years. Despite the fact that memorisation of classics was highly valued in the literacy education of ancient China, literature on how learning text by heart was practiced remains sparse. A western scholar mentioned it in passing in a book on Chinese tradition:

The Four Books ['The Great Learning' (*Da Xue*), 'The Mean' (*Zhong Yong*), 'The Analects (*Lunyu*) and 'Mencius' (*Mengzi*)] … were for six centuries (A.D. 1313-1905) used as school primers, to be recited and memorised, and as the basis of the civil service examinations which selected bureaucracy. (De Bary, 1960, p. 113)

In essence, learning through text memorisation occupied an important place in the traditional, Confucian education prior to the advent of modern China in the 20th century. Boys from wealthy families were said to start their literacy education as early as the age of three using three textbooks: (1) the Trimetrical Classic (*sanzijing*), which 'contained three-character lines of verse consisting of 1,068 characters; (2) the Thousand Character Essay (*qianziwen*) which 'consisted of 1,000 characters in lines of four characters each with no character repeated throughout the entire book'; (3) the Hundred Names Primer (*baijiaxing*), which 'contained 400 family surnames' (Cleverley, 1985, p. 16). The boys were first required to read these books aloud repeatedly and then expected to memorise them verbatim.

Boys of seven and above were sent to private family school (*Sishu*), starting with the writings from the Confucian Canons which are usually grouped as the Five Classics (*Wu Jing*)[1] and Four Books (*Si Shu*). Students were made to memorise these texts through reciting, drilling, memorising and checking understanding until they were ready to tackle

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[1] The Five Classics are 'The Book of Changes' (*Yi Jing*), 'The Book of History'(*Shu Jing*), 'The Book of Poetry' or 'Odes' (*Shi Jing*), 'The Ritual' (*Li Ji*), 'Spring and Autumn Annals' (*Chun Qiu*). Tradition ascribes the authorship or editorship of most of The Five Classics and Four Books to Confucius, but in fact they are a collection of writings from widely different times (Price, 1970).

the imperial civil service examinations (or *keju*). According to Unger (1982, p. 69), a boy on average memorised a new 200-character passage every day for six years and he would have memorised textual materials up to over 400,000 characters by the time he reached age 15. It was documented that Chiang-Kai-shek (1887-1975, former Chinese nationalist leader), when at the age of nine, 'had read and memorised the four Confucian Classics [Four Books]… After that came the Confucian Canons [Five Classics]' (Pakula, 2010).

We can find how such recitation and memorisation was performed in the private family school in the following excerpt:

After the teacher finishes his explanation and checks with the students to see if they have correct comprehension, the students are required to read the text just learned 100 times: slowly at first, then a bit faster. The text should be read with rhythm, correct pauses and accurate use of the four tones. If any student cannot perform the reading-aloud properly, another 100 times of reading are required of him. (Shu, 1961; Chinese original)

A more vivid picture of how learning text by heart was conducted in the classroom is offered by Price (1970):

Texts were committed to memory, with the aid of liberal physical encouragement and much noise. When successfully mastered they were recited by the individual student, back to his teacher, facing the class. The English pronunciation of the word used for this system of learning by heart, *bei*, or to 'back' a text, suggests well the sound of a busy classroom, with each pupil reciting at full voice his peculiar passage. (Price, 1970, p. 95; emphasis [italics] original)

'Liberal physical encouragement' can mean such exaggerated actions as swaying one's body (especially head) slowly to accompany the rhythm of recitation. This traditional practice had such a long-lasting influence that it was still in existence in the early decades of the 20th century. This can be attested by the brief mention of the way of studying Chinese in the biography of Madame Chiang Kai-shek (1998-2003), the former first lady in Taiwan:

She [Madame Chiang Kai-shek] was … in favour of engaging an old-fashioned scholar to tutor her several hours a day in the classics and calligraphy. She memorised her lessons in the traditional way of schoolchildren, chanting them aloud while rocking the body rhythmically. The tutor was 'terribly strict, and expects me to accomplish the almost impossible,' she wrote … She persevered in her studies for many years, later translating Chinese folk tales and stories from history. (Tyson Li, 2006, p. 43)

It needs to be pointed out that this scenario took place in late 1910s[2], decades after the introduction of science in the modern sense from the West beginning in the middle of the nineteenth century. As a result of the One-Hundred-Day Reform Movement in 1889, a series of reform measures were undertaken in education, such as the establishment of natural sciences as part of the school curriculum, new-type schools replacing academics of classical learning, and the abolition of the 'eight-legged' essay (Fan & Cohen, 1996). The downplay of classical learning and 'eight-legged' essay, the existence of which might, as will be discussed in the following section, had largely been encouraging text memorisation, can hardly predict the dying of learning text by heart. The far-reaching influence of the tradition of textual memorisation has been substantiated by the fact that it continued to be used in Chinese language education up to the second half of the twentieth century, probably even today. For example, Yu MinHong[3], a celebrated educator and English teacher who was born in the 1960s, wrote:

In primary and secondary school, all that we had were several thin textbooks. Without any other books to read, we had to recite the texts again and again − so much so that I could recall them till now as if they were carved in my heart. (M.-H. Yu, 2008; Chinese original)

To his disappointment, most of the texts memorised then were about political propaganda. Interestingly, this did not arouse his aversion to the way of learning texts by heart. On the contrary, he commented, 'If only those elite texts on the essence of Chinese culture were included in the textbooks! I believe the memorisation of those classic passages can benefit us for a lifelong time' (ibid). This belief was even transferred to his philosophy of foreign language learning[4].

The limited documentation of the practice of memorising textual materials, especially classics seems to suggest that this traditional learning habit has palpable Chinese characters inherent to its make-up, characteristics as deeply ingrained as the historical process that developed it was long and slow (Simpson, 2008, p. 382).

B. Reasons for Heavy Use of Text Memorisation

Emphasis on text memorisation can be said to be historically rooted in the Chinese tradition in education, for it is associated with the Confucian educational philosophy that exalts and worships 'established text', and the fact that '…memorization is seen as a significant part of learning in the Confucian tradition' (Lee, 1996: 36).

Confucianism, as a politico-ethical doctrine, is regarded as conservative by modern Chinese scholars who have noted

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[2] Madame Chiang Kai-shek went back to China in 1917 after having been studying in America for ten years. Her parents insisted that she hone her fluency in Chinese when they found that she had difficulties in communicating in her native tongue.

[3] Yu MinHong is the founder and president of New Oriental Education and Technology Group (more commonly New Oriental). He is honoured as the 'Godfather of Study Abroad' among Chinese students. Founded in 1993, New Oriental has grown from a class of only 30 students to China's largest private education service provider with more than three million student enrolments in over 20 schools all over the nation. New Oriental was listed on the New York Stock Exchange in September 2006, the first private education company to achieve this feat. (Source: Xinhua, 2006)

[4] He noted, I have been frequently asked the question of how to learn English well. I can give my full answer in just one sentence: learn by heart any one well-written textbook as fluently as possible. I cannot, of course, recommend the Bible for the fear that people would take me as a preacher. (M.-H. Yu, 2008; Chinese original)

that traditional Confucian schooling usually confined learning to dogmas printed in the textbooks (Ding, 1987). Books, especially those writings which form the Confucian canon, enjoyed the status of 'absolute and uncontested authority' (Hayhoe, 1989, p. 12) for thousands of years as they are believed to be

… an embodiment of knowledge, wisdom and truth. Knowledge is 'in' the book and can be taken out and put inside the students' heads. Hence the reverence with which books are treated, the value they are assigned, … (Maley, 1983, p. 98)

In order to acquire this value, intellectuals had to memorise the classics, and recite and explain them in a way that conformed to the orthodox interpretation (Ding, 1987, p. 51). Therefore, respect for authority and enthusiasm about the value of books, to a great extent, have encouraged the practice of learning text by heart.

An equally, if not more, important contributing factor is the examination system, which some Western scholars have called the Chinese Imperial Civil Service Examination (*keju*) system. Being used for selecting the ruling bureaucracy of China during the long period from the Tang Dynasty (A.D. 618-906) to the late Qing Dynasty in 1905, this system had far-reaching backwash effects. According to the document ('Ancient Education', "Ancient education," 1998), in the Tang Dynasty, the main subjects of the examination were writing and study of classical books. The examination testing knowledge of the classical books followed the method of filling in blanks. Usually one page of a book was chosen and several lines would be omitted. The candidates were required to fill in the missing lines. Alternatively, they might be required to explain some of the lines in the book. The form and content of the examinations might vary in different times, but what is consistent in the traditional selection system prior to the advent of modern China in the 20th century is the great importance attached to the memorisation and elaboration of the classics. In most cases, all a candidate had to do during the exam was to write a lengthy essay on a quotation from the classics. This essay was expected to conform to the standard interpretation and from the Ming Dynasty onwards, had to be written in a rigidly formalised style (known as 'eight-legged' essay or *baguwen*) that was also modelled after the classics.

Summing up, the Imperial Civil Service Examination set the required standard of 'mastery of the classics' as its measure, actually judging the quality of the candidate in accordance with his ability to recite fluently both the texts and their annotations. Little else apart from classics was required in the exam and therefore little else was imparted in traditional schooling (cf. Cleverley, 1985; Spence, 1990). As a result, the need to be able to recite or memorise the officially recognised classic works was paramount.

II. TEXT MEMORISATION IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

Although a plethora of records document the history of China's foreign language education (see, e.g. Adamson, 2004; Hayhoe, 1984, 1992; Price, 1970, 1979; Shu, 1961), there is a dearth of accounts of the folk practice of learning text by heart in foreign language learning, especially in the first half of the 20th century. A brief review of the historical development of English language teaching (ELT) in China, however, may shed light on such issues as when and why text memorisation gained its momentum in history as well as our understanding of what is happening in present-day ELT in China. Foreign language education is discussed in this section, even though throughout this paper a primary (although not exclusive) focus is on the teaching/learning of English due to English's unchallengeable status of being the 'first foreign language' in China (Cheng, 2000; Ge, 2003).

A. A Historical Perspective

For nearly fifty years prior to the founding of People's Republic of China in 1949, two stages are identified in terms of the development of ELT (Wang, 1986, pp. 153-154). The first stage (1902 –1922) is characterised as the 'Japanese model' where reading and translation are much emphasised. The second stage (1922-1949) is said to bear the feature of language teaching in Western countries due to the influence of middle schools run by foreign missionaries. There was a 'continued, though ambiguous, emphasis on English' (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002, p. 54) throughout the early years of the twentieth century, however, the consequences of widespread foreign language expertise became increasingly 'ideologically suspect' (Ross, 1992, p. 242) and some scholars even called for the removal of English and other foreign languages from the school curriculum (cf. Tsang, 1967).

In post-1949 modern China, the fluctuating fortunes of ELT have been seen as a 'barometer of modernisation' (Ross, 1992, p. 239). In the early fifties (particular during 1953-1956), there was an abrupt shift from English to Russian for political reasons. English as a subject was deleted from the school curriculum and Russian became almost the only foreign language taught in colleges and universities. Consequently, the Soviet Union exercised a strong influence on foreign language education in China, some of which, for instance, the five-step approach (cf. Penner, 1991; C.-C. Yu, 1984) is still seen even today although it was said to be taking on Chinese characteristics after China broke ties with the Soviet Union (Simpson, 2008, p. 383). Methodologically, the grammar-translation method was adopted to train massive numbers of people to learn Russian with emphasis on vocabulary, translation and grammar in order to understand the revolutionary ideology (Ng & Tang, 1997). Beliefs in foreign language teaching at that time may be best summarised by three-centeredness: teacher-centeredness, textbook-centeredness and grammar-centeredness (see, e.g. Campbell & Yong, 1993; Ding, 1987; Rao, 1996; Ross, 1993; Schoenhals, 1993; L.-X. Tang, 1983). The salient role of textbook at that time is reflected in the following account:

The basis of the method used was a text which was memorised by the students, and in a high proportion of cases

understood with the aid of translation. (Price, 1970, p. 181)

It seems that learning text by heart was naturally integrated into foreign language teaching and learning as a result of the widespread use of grammar-translation method as well as the traditional value attached to textbooks. In what characterizes foreign language teaching approach in China, according to a foreign expert,

A text is not read for meaning but deciphered for extending the vocabulary lists to be learned by heart and for refining the mastery of grammar, supposedly the law of that language. (Scovel, 1983, pp. 105-106)

Following the first intimation of Sino-Soviet tension in the mid of 1950s, there was a slow shift back from Russian to English, which can be termed the 'English Language Renaissance' (Wang, 1986, p. 154). This time, a four skills approach (speaking, listening, reading, writing) was advocated to replace 'deaf and dumb' (*longzi, yaba*) grammar-translation methods (Ross, 1992). Experimental English textbooks used in 1965 were found to be indicative of moves towards oral language production (Audiolingualism) to replace the former emphasis on grammatical rules (Price, 1979). The audio-lingual influences, together with drills and substitution tables, became popular (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002). For instance, English textbook series (e.g. English book (1-4), Ministry of Education, 1961) contain a number of dialogues and significant amounts of oral practice, having features – superficially at least – akin to those of Audiolingualism, which was emerging internationally as a preferred second language pedagogy at the time (Adamson, 2004, p. 88). Although the actual implementation of the teaching reform was restricted due to the inability of the government to find qualified English teachers (Ministry of Education, 1984), it can be speculated that the introduction of Audiolingualism may in a way encourage or firm up the practice of learning text by heart. Despite its indigenous origin, textual memorisation is arguably associated with Audio-Lingual Method (ALM) methodologically[5] probably because both of them emphasise on accuracy as a desired outcome and memorisation as a useful learning strategy (Hu, 2002, p. 102).

The Cultural Revolution beginning at the mid of 1960s led to a nearly stagnant status of English teaching in China because the teaching of English was outlawed for a time. When it was allowed again, the teaching of English was to serve the purpose of cultivating students who are 'both red and expert' (communists and professionals), that is, to teach them enough language to learn the socialist perspective without being tainted with 'bourgeois ideas' (Ford 1986, cited in Simpson, 2008). A turning point in the fortunes of English came when Chairman Mao mentioned in passing in 1968 that '[i]t is good to know English' (quoted in Unger, 1982, p. 282). English was then made to reappear on the school curriculum around 1969 (L.-X. Tang, 1983) with the belief that '[a] foreign language is a weapon in the struggle of life' (a quote from Karl Marx). Not surprisingly, the texts chosen reflect the great concern for transmitting political messages with little attention to pedagogy as '[t]extbooks always began with 'Long live' and ended with 'Quotations' [from Chairman Mao]' (L.-X. Tang, 1983, p. 44). Creative use of the language was thus called into question when the approved method and materials for learning was reciting quotes from Mao's Red Book or Communist newspapers (Simpson, 2008) such as 'Never forget class struggle!' or 'Young educated people must go to the countryside for re-education!' (Wang, 1986, p. 154). The importance of verbatim memorisation in such a socio-political environment is, however, out of question.

After a decade of hiatus in the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976), English was again seen as important in the reform and modernisation of China although there were occasional fears that it would bring cultural contamination or 'Spiritual Pollution' (Adamson, 2004; Jin & Cortazzi, 2002; K.-S. Li, 1995). The demise of the Cultural Revolution marked the beginning of what Sun (1996) calls 'the Development period' (from1977 up to now), during which Grammar-Translation (GT) and Audiolingualism (ALM) revisited China with the re-entrance of foreigners (Han, 1992). The formal status of foreign language teaching, especially English, rose again in the early 1980s. Studying English is currently prestigious and ELT flourishing in the nation (Dzau, 1990a; Niu & Wolff, 2004).

It is clear from the preceding review that a considerably long period in the history of foreign language education in contemporary China is characterised by 'discontinuity' and a lack of coherent foreign language policy due to social turmoil and tightened political control (see Adamson, 2004 for a fascinating history of English and English teaching in China, especially how political concerns have continuing influence on the English language curriculum). Interestingly, in terms of methodology, foreign language teachers seemed to be able to enjoy the freedom of choosing whatever teaching method they prefer, probably because textbooks are produced with great concern for transmitting political messages with scant attention to pedagogy (Adamson, 2004). When Chairman Mao reinstated the policy of '[l]etting one hundred flowers blossom, letting one hundred schools compete' in the 1950s, it also served as a guiding principle in solving the controversy over the methodology of teaching in China. Chinese open-mindedness in this regard is summarised as follows:

The Chinese concept is that anything that is really bad, or does not work, will eventually die out in the process of competition. Every method has some reason in it, and every new method is developed out of some element from older ones. There is no such thing as absolutely right or good. Methodology is seen as both an art and science. To a great extent, it permits teachers to exercise their individual gifts and talents. (C.-C. Yu, 1984, pp. 34-35)

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[5] In investigating ELT practices in secondary-level classrooms in China, Hu (2005: 645) categorises 'Memorization of dialogues & texts' into ALM. Although the Chinese version of audiolingualism (in which emphasis is attached to written language and literary classics) is interestingly contrasted with the original Western version which was developed to enhance conversational proficiency (cf. Lado, 1957; Lado, 1964), it is undoubtedly domesticated in a painless way in the Chinese culture of pedagogy in contrast to the cultural resistance to CLT in China (see Hu, 2002 for a detailed discussion).

It is not surprising that pedagogy reflected in English textbooks published in 1960s (cf. English book (1-4), Ministry of Education, 1961; English book (1-6), Ministry of Education, 1965) did not fit any of the major international English language methods (Adamson, 2004). In fact, any method can be used in English teaching in China, 'from the ancient Chinese tradition of recitation, memorisation, to grammar-translation, pattern- and structure-drill, communicative exercises, or eclecticism[6]' (C.-C. Yu, 1984, p. 35). New features of ELT in post-1949 China may include the amalgamation of a range of pedagogical approaches. Based on the English textbook series (Book 1-3) published in 1960, Adamson (2004, p. 59) noted that the intended pedagogy in these books is 'a blend of the Structural Approach and the Grammar-Translation Method which merges Soviet principles and traditional Chinese English Language teaching practices'. Along with China's reorganising its approach to foreign language education after the schism with the Soviet Union, many changes arose and some of these changes came from the grassroots (Adamson, 2004). Learning text by heart, an indigenous practice transferred from the traditional way of learning and teaching classics may thus easily find its place in language teaching methodology especially under the particular social, economic and linguistic circumstances which have strongly influenced the teaching of English in China since the 1950s.

Based on sporadic mentions of text memorisation in literature, we should surmise that this practice in foreign language learning and teaching is likely to have been continuously existent throughout the discontinuous development of ELT in China. In a case study of foreign language teaching in China conducted in 1960s, Price described how the students made efforts to rehearse the texts for memorisation:

Apart from hearing the recorded text a number of times and repeating it in various ways in class, the students spent many hours reading it aloud. (Price, 1970, p. 182)

… …

As they get up early in the morning, sounds of reading can be heard near the classrooms and in the sports ground. (Guangming Ribao [Guangming Daily] cited in Price, 1970, p. 182)

It seems that the traditional method of acquiring Chinese literacy − 'reading aloud for memorisation' has been practiced in foreign language teaching and learning at least in the past decades. Interestingly, Price appeared to be predicting the disappearance of this practice by saying '[t]hat such traditional methods die slowly will be attested to by foreign teachers recently working in China'. Is the practice dying, then?

B. Current Situation

Although Confucian authoritarian education has long fallen into disfavour in modern China and the status of text memorisation as a learning method has thus been challenged (Ding, 2004), the practice of memorising textual materials among Chinese learners seems to be dying hard. Xu GuoZhang (1915-1994), a highly influential foreign language educator had taken 'to recite repeatedly for memorisation' (*long du er neng bei song*) (Xu, 1999) as his maxim of learning English. It is not surprising that memorisation of paragraphs, poems and idioms becomes a regular exercise for learners throughout the whole textbook series (titled *XuGuoZhang English*) Xu has chief-edited. Though this four-volume English textbook contradicts Western culture in many ways, it dominated English study in Chinese university for 39 years ("English Craze Leaders," 2002).

Zhao ShiKai (born in 1920s), a leading linguist in China, noted:

Learning texts by heart is extremely helpful to me. It works much better than memorising individual words in the sense that memorising on the basis of whole passage or at least whole sentence enables us to better understand word meaning, grammar and even rhetorics. The so-called text linguistics and pragmatics we study today are all included in the text. (Zhao, 2002, p. 11; Chinese original)

The experience of learning texts by English heart was, however, not confined to the older generations of English learners. In the online NNEST (Non-Native English Speaker Teachers) caucus forum, I read the following account of an English lecturer born in 1970s:

… when I started to learn English, I did start to develop a flair for learning texts by heart. Fine combing of grammar points, pattern-drills, and **learning texts by heart finally led to my good performance in English in the entrance examinations for higher learning institutions.** So I landed at an English Department. (Y.-Y. Li, 2008; English original; emphasis added)

Li's case is perhaps not atypical of the younger generation of Chinese English learners who employed learning texts by heart as one of their main learning strategies and eventually surpassed their peers in English learning. For instance, a Chinese scholar who was also born in the 1970s mentioned in passing in his thesis:

I started learning English in junior middle school at the age of 12, **memorised words and texts** for the National College Entrance Examination, and later majored in English at a university on the Chinese mainland. (Gao, 2007, p. 8; English original; emphasis added)

A decade later, learning English through text memorisation seems to be exerting continuing influence on Chinese learners. A college student who born in the 1980s was convinced after searching on internet that '[r]ecite as many English passages as possible' might be one of the 'best tools possible' for learning English (see X. Yu, 2010 for a case

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[6] In the mid 1980s, efforts were made in secondary schools to reconceptualise foreign language education's 'three-centeredness': teacher-centeredness, textbook-centeredness and grammar-centeredness. Attempt to dislodge the authoritarian hold for teacher, text and grammar-translation methods on foreign language teaching are commonly described by secondary school teachers as 'diversification' or 'eclecticism' (*duoyangxing*) (Ross, 1992).

study).

Today, rather than a dying practice, learning text by heart seems to be still widely practiced in schools throughout China (Ding, 2004; see also Rao, 1996; Hu, 2005; Jin & Cortazzi, 2002). Students may spend hours memorising texts and some teachers require individual students to recite these texts in class or in the teachers' offices (Jin & Cortazzi, 2002). More than half of the participants in a recent study on Chinese learners' strategy use reported the use of memorising and reciting texts to learn English as either an obligatory or voluntary practice in their secondary education in mainland China and their continued effort to memorise English texts or lyrics even when they were studying in a leading English medium university in HongKong (Gao, 2007, p. 159). Learning text by heart as a folk practice seems to be regaining attention from language educators and pedagogical experts in the last decade as more and more cases of successful English learners were reported who claimed to have intensively employed this practice as a learning strategy (see, e.g., Ding, 2004, 2007; Huang & Qi, 2005; Wen, 1996; X. Yu, 2010, 2011). One example in point is that a widely used textbook series for non-English majors at tertiary level, *College English − Integrated Course* (Y.-H. Li, Zhang, & Wang, 2001), set in each unit a regular assignment of learning by heart several (usually 3 to 4) paragraphs in the text. This may epitomise an official recognition of the value of this traditional way of learning.

C. Learning Text by Heart, Intensive Reading and New Concept English

If the traditional approach to ELT in China is indeed a 'curious combination of the grammar-translation method and audiolingualism, which is characterised by systematic and detailed study of grammar, extensive use of cross-linguistic comparison and translation, memorisation of structural patterns and vocabulary, painstaking effort to form good verbal habits, and emphasis on written language, and a preference for literary classics' (Hu, 2002, p. 93), this approach can be best understood through the Chinese practice of 'Intensive Reading'[7]. This practice consists in

taking students through a text on a word by word, phrase by phrase basis, explaining points of vocabulary, syntax, style and content along the way − rather like the explication *de texte* in the classic French tradition, examination of the language it contains. (Maley, 1983, p. 98)

'Learning sparsely but well' was believed to be a practical and economic way to facilitate language acquisition (Rao, 1996, p. 462). This Soviet tradition of teaching approach, concerning itself with the fine details of language, has been dominant in ELT in China for decades till now. As some scholars (e.g. Cortazzi & Jin, 1996a; Sampson, 1984) pointed out that the Intensive Reading Course is a product of particular social, economic and linguistic circumstances which have strongly influenced ELT in post-1949 China and thus inherent in the fabric of Chinese society. The pervasiveness of 'intensive reading' in Chinese foreign language education and the 'intensive study' view that 'the passages should not just be read for meaning, but also parsed and recited' (Adamson, 2004, p. 69; see also Scovel, 1983, pp. 105-106), may, in no small measure, legitimatise and consolidate the practice of learning text by heart.

If 'intensive reading' has become institutionalised as part of a 'Chinese culture of learning' (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996a, p. 184), and it concentrates attention on a necessarily small number of texts in order to squeeze each text dry (Maley, 1983) or learn them by heart, the importance of learning/teaching materials can never be overemphasised. An interesting phenomenon associated with learning text by heart that is mentioning is the wide use of *New Concept English* (Alexander, 1967) among millions of Chinese English learners. Recalling his English learning experience in college, Tang Jun, the most expensive professional manager in China[8] born in the early 1960s, wrote in his biography:

I set a goal for myself. That is, I must learn one text by heart each day. In this way, I memorised all the texts in the first three books of *New Concept English* series. (J. Tang, 2008; Chinese original)

New Concept English[9] is a popular UK-imported textbook series which has been used in secondary and tertiary institutions, especially private English training schools. Its vast impact on English teaching and learning in China is such that there is an emergence of a *New Concept English* industry, inclusive of textbooks, supplementary materials, multi-media products, and training programmes (P.-Y. Li, et al., 2004). To the best of my knowledge, it is very likely to be the textbook whose texts have been mostly memorised by Chinese learners (cf. Ding, 2007; Gao, 2008). There is an anecdote which was told by a Chinese netizen and also quoted by a few of my participants in a recent field study to support their beliefs about learning text by heart as well as their worship for the book series:

I heard that there was some guy from Peking University. He memorised all the texts in *New Concept English* book 1, 2, 3, and 4. Later, he went to study in the United States. His professor thought that he copied people's works in writing since he believed that no Chinese could write such native-like essays. To prove his innocence, he asked his professor to name a text in the *New Concept English* textbooks. And he retold it using the exact words ... (Bababa, quoted in Gao,

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[7] 'Intensive Reading' is a popular practice in China of carefully analysing the structural and semantic content of a text in detailed and meticulous fashion (see Cortazzi & Jin, 1996a, 1996b; Dzau, 1990b for more discussion). Over the years, it has been subject to much comment and debate. While some scholars that English teachers in China should move beyond 'intensive reading' to more extensive and communicative activities (e.g. Cotton, 1990; Everett, 1990; Liu, 1994; Maley, 1983; Meyer, 1990), others defend the continued use of 'intensive reading' in ELT classrooms (see Harvey, 1990).

[8] Tang Jun was crowned as China's 'emperor employee' with an annual salary of 100 million RMB, or 14 million U.S. dollars. He had been working in Microsoft for ten years and was appointed president of Microsoft China in 2002. (Source: crienglish.com, 2008)

[9] First published in 1967, *New Concept English* not only swept the western world but also quickly became the most popular English course in China. In 1997, a new edition was published. This edition was written specifically to address the needs of English learners in China. Since its publication, the sales of the four main books alone, not to mention the support components (supplementary materials and multi-media products), have exceeded 7 million copies. Book One was reprinted 50 times by the summer of 2004. (Source: P.-Y. Li, Ethridge, Yang, & Alexander, 2004)

2008, p. 441)

While the story is likely to be an imagined incident which is at best for us to read for fun, the following reflection by Li PengYi, the President of the Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press (FLTRP) in China may deserve our attention:

My personal connection with *New Concept English* started 25 years ago, when I first began to learn the language, at the age of 23. We all know that learning a foreign language is a formidable challenge for adults. But *New Concept English* inspired my interest and build up my confidence. Even today I can still recite some passages I studied back then, …. (P.-Y. Li, et al., 2004, p. 21)

As the best-recognised classical English course book, *New Concept English* has been enjoying a legendary and continual success in China and 'fully established Louise Alexander [the author of *New Concept English*] as the indisputable ELT guru in China'[10] (cf. P.-Y. Li, et al., 2004; McArthur, 2002). The enduring popularity of the book series may lie in the fact that it is not only just a source of information; 'it is a pedagogical tool' (P.-Y. Li, et al., 2004, p. 25):

Carefully sequential, consistent, and punctuated with unambiguous directions to both teacher and student, it [*New Concept English*] is perceived as a model of how teachers can guide students to use English actively while simultaneously learning systematic and lexical knowledge. (Ross, 1992, p. 246)

In addition to skilful compilation, the attractiveness of the book series may largely be attributable to careful selection of its texts, which, according to some participants in a recent research (cf. X. Yu, 2011), are much more interesting than the domestically compiled textbooks. There are many good stories in this course book which easily engage the learners' curiosity, surprise and feelings (P.-Y. Li, et al., 2004) through shared humanity across cultures. I was surprised to discover in a research fieldwork that a state school in a municipality was using *New Concept English* series as their formal textbooks and students were required to memorise some texts or paragraphs selected from this book. This is not only a sign of moving from state-determined towards client-determined in terms of choosing textbooks for ELT in public schools, but also an indication of the public recognition of *New Concept English* in China. The phenomenal success of *New Concept English* in China, however, cannot be explained independently of the fact that 'intensive reading' is integrated in EFL teaching at all stages of learning so that a selection of good textbooks is an especially important component of a well-run course in which hours can be spent on explaining, analysing, paraphrasing, reading aloud and retelling the text, until 'the students very nearly, if not literally, learn very word by heart' (Rao, 1996, p. 462).

D. A Few Words to Teachers

It has been documented in literature that many Chinese students have study habits that would appal Western EFL methodologists and teachers. While certain study habits and conceptions of learning have indeed proven to be obstacles to linguistic development or seriously irrelevant to modern foreign language education, some may be somewhat effectual in Chinese context if they are taken to good use. Methods must be examined and the value of each ascertained, depending on their merit in the Chinese setting (Wu, 1983).

Although it is widely believed that many of the limitations on Chinese students' learning of English stem from the use of rote-memory strategies (Rao, 1996), a number of Western researchers (e.g. Pennycook, 1996; Sowden, 2005; Watkins & Biggs, 1996) have been convinced that memorisation can lead to high levels of understanding if applied appropriately. Certain elements of traditional Chinese method 'have been useful and effective, and so they should not be discarded altogether' (G.-Y. Li, 1990, p. 110). For instance, recent empirical studies show that the practice of learning text by heart not only potentially helps the learner to learn fixed expressions or collocations for subsequent productive use, cultivating 'a feel for language' and develop the habit of attending details of language (Ding, 2007), but psychologically enables the learner to build a sense of achievement and self-confidence (X. Yu, 2011). However, it can be potentially insalubrious to the improvement of students' 'quality of life' (Gao, 2009) if the quantity and quality of textual materials are not appropriately controlled. I would thus like to suggest that, for learners who have sufficient reasons to do it or do not mind doing it at all, the teacher should be encouraged to explore techniques or adaptations to maximise the benefits and minimise the side-effects of the practice in foreign language teaching. For example, teachers may 'empower learners' by working with them in terms of choice of materials so as to make such an experience personally meaningful to them.

III. CONCLUSION

The purpose of the article has been to inform the reader of the practice of learning text by heart in Chinese language education in terms of its historical origins and development as well as current situation. Contrary to the prediction of foreign experts, learning text by heart seems to be still widely practiced in China as a way of learning foreign languages. This calls for more research to investigate why and how this traditional practice is being employed as a learning and/or teaching device in Chinese foreign language education. For instance, a qualitative inquiry into how learning text by

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[10] Louis Alexander's vast impact on English teaching and learning in China was reflected in the fact that a bronze statue was raised in his honour in the grounds of the Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press (FLTRP), one of China's largest schoolbook publishers. The inscription on the base of the state reads: '… The man who cracked the linguistic code of the English language and made it learnable for millions of students worldwide through New Concept English and many other course books' (P.-Y. Li, et al., 2004: 20).

heart is perceived by Chinese learners and teachers may shed light on such issues as how the learners can benefit from this practice and what potential problems or difficulties they might encounter. In addition, successful cases of the use of text memorisation in foreign language learning may be carefully studied to demonstrate how 'active memorisation' (as opposed to 'passive memorisation') (X.-P. Li, 2005) or 'good memorisation' (as opposed to 'bad memorisation') (Duong, 2006) can be achieved. More importantly, future research is expected to explore how Traditional Chinese Method (TCM) can be exploited for good use, i.e. how repetition, recitation, mimicry and memorising may be squared with more active and participatory approaches to develop communicative skills (Watkins & Biggs, 1996).

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A Corpus-based Approach toward Teaching Collocation of Synonyms

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Abstract—the aim of the study is to provide insights into the use of the corpus-based approach in L2 classes. The study aimed at comparing the effects of the corpus-based approach with the effects of the traditional approach on learning collocations of near-synonymous pairs. The study was run on 2 groups of L2 learners. One group named experimental group studied with concordancing and the other group named the control group studied with the traditional approach. The participants in each group were similar in terms of their proficiency and collocation competence. During the study, the first group was taught through concordancing materials taken from BNC as the concordancing, whereas the control group was taught the collocations explicitly. The instruments used for data collection were a pretest, a posttest, a prewriting and a postwriting. Through running a *t* test and descriptive statistics, the results revealed a difference between the two approaches about their effect on the comprehension and production of collocations of synonyms. The study has some implications for L2 learning and teaching that are discussed in the last part of the study.

Index Terms—collocation, synonym, corpus-based approach, traditional approach, writing

I. Introduction

Collocations are stable forms of language consisting of two or more than two words. According to Firth (1957, p. 181), "collocations of a given word are statements of the habitual or customary places of that word." Collocations abound in the English language, and their importance for L2 teaching and learning has been increasingly recognized. It might be admitted that collocations have not yet been generally integrated into L2 teaching materials and, as a consequence, not been given serious consideration in English classrooms (Souza Hodne, 2009). According to Nesselhauf (2003, cited in Souza Hodne, 2009), teaching of collocations as well as the difficulties that L2 learners have with collocations is not investigated well yet. By the invention of concordancing, concordancing is used for lexicography (Sinclair, 1991), L2 research (Carter & McCarthy, 1999), and L2 teaching (Lewis, 1997). Concordancing has been used for the following purposes: studying multiple meanings of words and comparing the collocations of near-synonyms (Chan, 2002). But according to Souza Hodne (2009), relatively few studies have associated corpora, teaching, and textbooks. Chambers (2005) observes a need for integrating corpora into L2 teaching, confirming that corpus consultation will become a complement to textbooks.

Writing has always been demanding and difficult for L2 learners. According to Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000, p. 141), even skilled L2 learners have problems writing. One of the problems of these learners is the use of collocations (Brashi, 2005; Parastuti, 2008). Zhang (1993) stated that collocations are the parameter of L2 learners' writing quality. He further suggested that the use of collocations distinguishes between good and poor and native and nonnative writings.

Another problem of L2 learners is the application of near-synonyms, especially their collocations. Near-synonyms are pairs of words with similar meanings, but different collocations. *Strong* and *powerful* are two examples of near-synonyms. *Tea* can be *strong,* but not *powerful* (Zarei & Gholami, 2007). The semantic differences and implications of synonyms are not easily recognized and often fail to be acquired by L2 learners

So, this study aimed to investigate the production and comprehension of collocations of near-synonyms, and the following research questions were formulated:

1. Is there any significant difference between the effects of the corpus-based approach and the traditional approach on L2 learners' comprehension of collocations of near-synonyms?

2. Can corpus-based approach improve L2 learners' production of collocations?

These following null hypotheses were also formulated in line with the above questions:

• H_{01}: There is no difference between the effects of the corpus-based approach and the traditional approach on L2 learners' comprehension of collocations of near-synonyms.

• H_{02}: Corpus-based approach cannot improve L2 learners' production of collocations.

II. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Firth (1957, p. 181) coined the word collocation, when he said "you shall know a word by the company it keeps." Collocations were given more attention when he said that the words get their meanings in combination with other words.

There are many definitions of collocations that overlap to some extent. Palmer (1933) defines collocations as the combination of more than one word that must be learned as a whole, not in isolation. Sinclair (2003) defined collocations as the combination of two items for the production of native-like language.

The concept of collocation includes lexical collocations and grammatical ones. Grammatical collocations are those that consist of an open class word (noun, adjective, and verb) and a preposition or grammatical structure such as an infinitive or clause (Benson et al., 1997). They recognize the following types of grammatical collocations:
• Noun + preposition: *admiration for*
• Noun + infinitival to: *feel a need to do something*
• Noun + that-clause: *they reached an argument that they will do it.*
• Preposition + noun: *by chance*
• Adjective + preposition: *fond of music*
• Adjective + infinitival to: *it is important to go there*
• Adjective + that-clause: *they were sorry that she had an accident*

Lexical collocations, on the other hand, do not include grammatical structures like prepositions. Nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs are parts of lexical collocations. Some examples of this category are *compose music*, and *make an impression.*

Grammatical competence, communicative competence, and collocational competence are some competencies involved in learning an L2. Collocational competence is often neglected in the area of L2 learning. Lewis (2000) argued that L2 learners may be good at the area of communicative competence, but they need to increase their collocation competence.

In order to be able to speak idiomatic English, L2 learners need to know many collocations (Bahns & Eldaw, 1993). He also stated that it would not be necessary for L2 learners to use many collocations in speech or writing, but that knowing the right collocations and using them in a right way is more important.

A. Concordancing and L2 Teaching and Learning

Concordancing has made changes in L2 teaching and learning. It has also changed the way of language teaching and learning (Cheng et al., 2004). The use of concordancing is a way to show that L2 learners can have access to authentic language through corpus and they can discover language patterns (Bernardini, 2002; Johns, 1991). The corpora can, for instance, be used for developing learning activities. According to Granath (2000, cited in Bernardini, 2004), corpora can be used in grammar and some other aspects of language. Tribble and Jones (1990) argued that concordancing shows authentic examples of different parts of a language and helps L2 learners to discover different meanings, usages, and collocations of different words.

The corpus approach is the use of concordancing (Gilquin & Granger, 2000). There are some studies on the advantage of concordancing in L2 teaching and learning. Supatranont (2005) used concordancing in comparison to the traditional approach to teach vocabulary to engineering L2 learners. The main findings of her study were that the L2 learners' average scores in the experimental group who were exposed to vocabulary through concordances were significantly higher than those in the comparison group.

B. Research on Collocation and Concordancing

Collocations are important aspects of L2 learning, but as Crystal (1992) stated, they cause difficulty in mastering L2 languages. Halliday and Hassan (1976) called collocations the most difficult part of lexical learning (1976). Ellis (2001), Moon (1992), and Nation (2001) state that collocations are an important aspect of language use and they differentiate native and nonnative speakers.

Sinclair (1991, cited in Jafarpour & Koosha, 2006) argues that collocations are major features shown in concordances that are not presented completely in a dictionary.

Hill (2000) emphasizes the teaching of words with their collocations, and he says that students know, for example, the words *hold* and *conversation*, but may not know the collocation *hold a conversation*. There are many studies on the importance of collocations in an L2 (Lewis, 1997; Mounya, 2010), and the importance of concordances in teaching collocations is emphasized, too. Bahns (1993) stated that one reason that L2 learners lack receptive and productive knowledge of collocations is because of teaching methodology. Brown (1974) suggested a remedy that if the instructors choose collocations as the unit of practice instead of lexical items combined with grammar rules, then nonnative speakers can read and speak using collocations. According to him, one way to shift the teaching focus to language collocations is by using concordances to highlight these structures. One of such studies was conducted by Le (2010). His study employed two groups: one with concordancing and the other without concordancing. In this study, the L2 learners were asked to identify miscollocation. The result of the study was significantly in favor of the concordancing group.

There are many studies on the effect of concordancing on learning collocations, but most of these studies are conducted on grammatical collocations than lexical ones. One of these studies is the one conducted by Jafarpour and Koosha (2006), investigating the effect of corpus on the collocation learning of Iranian L2 learners. The results of their study turned positive in comparison with the traditional method. Their areas of investigation were collocations of prepositions. Other kind of these studies are the ones conducted by Sun and Wang (2003) and Wang (2002) who tried to investigate how concordancing affect learning collocations, but their study was bound to grammatical collocations: verb + preposition collocations.

Wei (1999) suggested that more attention should be paid to lexical collocations, as these collocations include a wider range of words and they create more problems for L2 learners than grammatical collocations.

C. Research on Concordancing, Collocation, and L2 Writing

L2 learners face a major problem in writing. They do not know which words can be combined to form correct language. Therefore, there are a large number of miscollocations in their writings (Hill, 2000). According to Hill (2000), L2 learners often lose mark in their writings because they do not know the most common collocations of the words that are necessary in their writing. Studies on collocations in L2 writings conducted by Bahns and Eldaw (1993) as well as Youmei and Yun (2005) revealed that even advanced L2 learners have difficulties producing collocations.

The problem is mostly due to the approaches of teaching writing that emphasizes grammar. Some different methods (e.g., process approach, genre approach, and product approach) have been developed for effective instruction in writing. Among these different approaches, some have been concerned with the end product: Correct grammar and correct lexis and some have been concerned with the process of writing. None of these approaches have emphasized the importance of collocations in writing, and because collocations are central in vocabulary, an approach is needed that emphasizes this part of language. So, L2 learners make collocation mistakes in their writing because their instruction had been grammar focused and there had been no instruction of collocations. So, L2 teachers should attract L2 learners' attention to collocations because grammar and individual words are not sufficient in language proficiency.

Teaching collocations, as claimed by Cowie (1981), helps L2 learners in fluent writing. It facilitates L2 writing and makes it easier, more precise, and more natural.

Most studies on collocation production have used either cloze tests (Al-Zahrani, 1998) or translation tasks (Farghal & Shunnq, 1999; Nesselhauf, 2005), so they are restricted in nature. An example of these studies is the one by Brashi (2006). He compared L2 learners' comprehension and production of verb-noun collocations using productive and receptive tests. The results revealed that the L2 learners were more proficient in comprehension than in production. Ying and Hendricks (2003) conducted a study in which they tried to raise the L2 learners' collocation through collocation awareness raising and investigated its effect on L2 learners' writing. They reached to positive results that collocation awareness-raising increased the quality of the L2 learners' work. Most of these studies have reached to the conclusion that collocation production causes great problems for L2 learners.

Ying (2009) performed a study on Chinese L2 learners. He aimed at examining the relation between collocations and coherence in writing. He concluded that there is a relationship between the correct use of collocations and coherence in writing. To overcome the problem, collocational knowledge of L2 learners should be developed to raise L2 proficiency. As a result, writing will become more fluent, precise, and meaningful because the learner knows collocations needed for writing.

The study conducted by Anthony (2006) was about the role of concordancing in writing instruction. In the study, L2 learners had to investigate the way in which language is used in natural contexts. He found the result that exposing L2 learners to language via context is more beneficial than just presenting language to them out of context.

The correct use of collocations is a parameter of advanced writing. There are a lot of miscollocations in L2 writings. This problem can be solved by raising L2 learners' attention to them.

Technology can be used as a way to increase L2 learners' knowledge of collocations and, at the same time, their writing. Having discussed the importance of writing, the role of collocations in writing, and the invention of concordancing, there are few studies on the use of concordancing in L2 writing. Few studies are conducted to show how technology helps L2 learners in approaching their writing process.

Yoon (2008) run a study with six L2 learners to investigate the effect of concordancing on L2 learners' writings. He reached to the conclusion that concordancing could increase the knowledge of collocations of L2 learners and also concordancing helped them solve their writing problems.

D. Synonyms

There are few studies on the importance of synonyms, collocations, and L2 learning, although the important role of collocations in L2 teaching and learning is identified. L2 learners should tell the difference between words with similar meanings. They should find collocation differences of near-synonyms and their frequent use. Near-synonyms cannot be substituted with one another.

The studies that focus on the erroneous use of near synonyms are limited in number (Lombard, 1997). Lombard's own study just focuses on the incorrect application of synonyms, but not on how to teach collocations of synonyms to L2 learners. Partington (1998) stated that presenting language through concordances to L2 learners can help them discriminate among semantically similar items that have different collocations.

Martin (1984) stressed the importance of teaching synonyms and their common collocations to L2 learners. He stressed that teaching vocabulary via a list of synonyms ignores the differences among synonyms and causes L2 learners to consider two synonyms as interchangeable. He said that teaching synonyms and their collocations offer them the chance to compare and contrast new words and their collocations.

Yeh et al. (2007) employed concordancing to help L2 learners in lexical choice. Through concordancing, they could present the collocations of synonyms to L2 learners and reduce their problems of collocations of near-synonyms. They said that by collocations L2 learners can compare and discriminate among near-synonyms.

III. METHODOLOGY

In the study, teaching collocations of near-synonyms and L2 learners' comprehension and production of collocations were studied in two different approaches: the traditional approach and the corpus-based approach.

A. Participants

At first, 100 male and female L2 learners, aged 20-23, took the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency (MTELP). Based on their scores, 90 were selected to participate in the study. In the next stage, the participants were given a test of collocations. The aim was to homogenize them in their collocation knowledge. The test was designed by the researchers and piloted for its reliability and validity. The researchers selected the participants above the mean score of the collocation test. Among these 90 participants, six were excluded from the study as they were not comparable with others in terms of collocation knowledge. Then, in the final stage, the participants were randomly divided into two groups: experimental and control.

B. Materials

The participants were given the MTELP. After that, they were presented with a test of collocations. In the next stage, they wrote on a topic which served as their prewriting and a test of collocations based on their errors in prewriting. This test served as their pretest. Then, they went under treatment and were given the same test as their posttest. They were also asked to write on another topic. This writing was their postwriting. The tests are provided in the Appendixes A, B, and C.

C. Procedure

In the next stage, the participants were asked to write on a topic familiar to them, which served as their prewriting. After the prewriting, a test on collocations of synonyms was given to the participants to identify their knowledge of collocations of synonyms. The test was a two-choice test in which the participants were asked to choose the correct answer between the two choices provided. This test was given as the pretest and had 20 items with its reliability at 0.89. The reliability was estimated through KR-21 formula. After that, the researchers began the treatment. The materials were developed to raise the participants' knowledge of English collocations. The materials consisted of different types of synonyms and their collocations along with the collocation exercises. The data for the experimental group were provided using BNC as the concordancing software. The aim was for the participants to explore the L2 patterns, and as part of their exercise, they were given new words with their synonyms to look up their collocations. The participants did the exercises by observing contexts of words in concordances. The printouts were given to the participants in the following format.

```
      merchant family, Crist was married with two SMALL children, was study
ing law and 'had no great ambition'
002.                              □                            one of the fastest-
growing areas of training. Individuals, SMALL firms and international corpo
rations are turning to it
003. □   poetry remained his first love, his output was comparatively SMALL
 - there will be about 90 poems in the edition of his w
004. □   a in Business Studies is the flagship course offered by the SMALL,
 independent Cambridge Business College. The diploma,
□
```

In this way, the participants in the experimental group could observe the different uses of the adjective *small* and compare them with the uses of its synonym *little* which were used interchangeably in their writing.

```
          and I thought Rudy Bond and his band of tuneful ward
heelers made " LITTLE Tin Box" even better than it was done by the New York
 cast; all

009. ☐    dds thus appear favorable that the secretary's neck may be spared.
 @ # LITTLE RESISTANCE# @ CAMBODIA'S chief of state, who has been accused o


010. ☐    citizens a voice in the operation of their government and their par
ty. # LITTLE WAR, BIG TEST# Both Mr. K's have so far continued to speak sof
t

011. ☐    "cur" and "puppy" among other things, and at the crisis of his fi
t a LITTLE foxterrier stands before him and howls into his face.
```

In comparison, the control group was taught in traditional way. In other words, they were taught collocations explicitly by the teacher. They were given a definition of collocations, examples of different types of exercises, along with follow up exercises. The exercises were traditional such as matching words with their collocations, multiple-choice exercises that asked the participants to choose the correct collocation for each word, and correction exercises that asked them to correct the mistakes of given sentences. The materials for this group were taken from *Oxford Collocations Dictionary* (2005).

• Example # 1: *Correct these sentences.*

► Many people were damaged in the earthquake.

• Example # 2: *Choose the correct collocation.*

► I didn't know what to do when I got into my car and could not ….. my car. Start/begin

After the treatment, the posttest was administered to determine the effect of instruction. The pretest and the posttest were similar in number and content, but the place of the items on the pretest was different from the posttest. And, for the second hypothesis—the effect of instructions on the production of collocations—the study used postwriting after the treatment.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

At first, an independent *t* test was performed on the pretest scores of the participants to see whether they had any differences at the beginning of the study or not. It was hypothesized that the participants were not different at the beginning of the study in terms of their collocational competence. The result of the *t* test showed that there were not significant differences between the two groups at the beginning of the study. Table 1 is the presentation and discussion of this result:

TABLE 1
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE *T* TEST FOR THE PRETEST SCORES OF BOTH EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t* test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	*Sig.*	*t*	*df*	*Sig.* (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal Variances Assumed	.000	.990	.222	82	.825	.09524	.42957	-.75931	.94979
Equal Variances Not Assumed			.222	80.444	.825	.09524	.42957	-.75956	.95004

As it is evident from Table 1, the *p* value is not significant at $p < .05$. It means that the result of this test is not significant, and the null hypothesis that there will be no differences between the participants at the beginning of the study is not rejected. So, the participants were almost similar at the beginning of the study.

In the second stage, to see whether the participants had any progress at the end of the study or not, one paired-sample *t* test was run on the pretest and posttest scores of the experimental group and one on the scores of the control group. The hypothesis was that they will not progress toward the end of the study. The results are provided in Tables 2 and 3:

TABLE 2
PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST ON THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	*t*	*df*	*Sig* (2-tailed)
Pair 1 Experimental Pretest Posttest	-1.59524	1.96381	.30302	-2.20721	-.98327	-5.264	41	.000

As the significance of the study shows the study is significant at $p < .05$, meaning that the above hypothesis is rejected and the experimental group has progressed toward the end of the study.

TABLE 3
PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST ON THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST SCORES OF THE CONTROL GROUP

	Paired Differences							
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper	*t*	*df*	Sig (2-tailed)
Pair 1 Control Pretest Posttest	-.38095	1.71012	.26388	-.91386	.15196	-1.444	41	.156

The result of the *t* test is not significant at this part, so the above hypothesis is not rejected. It means that the control group had no progress at the end of the study, and the traditional approach could not raise the collocation knowledge of L2 learners.

As mentioned in the Methodology section, the first research question was a comparison of the learning effects of the corpus-based approach and the traditional approach in terms of comprehension of collocations. It was hypothesized that there would be no significant differences between comprehension of collocations in the experimental and control groups. To test this hypothesis, a collocation test was given to each group. A *t* test with ($p < .05$) was performed to examine the learning effects of the corpus-based approach and the traditional approach on collocation learning. Table 4 shows the result of the *t* test carried out to test this hypothesis:

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T TEST FOR THE POSTTEST SCORES OF BOTH EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances								
			t Test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval	
	F	*Sig.*	*t*	*df*	*Sig.* (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal Variances Assumed	.011	.040	3.561	82	.001	1.30952	.36775	.57796	2.04109
Equal Variances Not Assumed			3.561	81.742	.001	1.30952	.36775	.57792	2.04113

On testing this question, it was found that the *p* value was significant at $p < .05$, indicating that the two approaches were different. The results of the *t* test shows that the participants performed significantly better when they were taught through concordancing than the time they were taught without concordancing.

In a selection of the prewritings collected for the data analysis, a total of 343 collocation errors of synonyms were collected, and it was found that 180 (52.47%) were incorrect in the prewriting of the experimental group and 163 (47.53%) were incorrect in the prewriting of the control group. The data were analyzed against concordancing:

TABLE 5
COLLOCATION ERRORS OF SYNONYMS IN THE PARTICIPANTS' PREWRITINGS

Groups of the Study	Number	Percentage
Experimental Group	163	47.53
Control Group	180	52.47

From the prewritings, it is concluded that there was little difference between the experimental and control groups in number of the collocation errors of the synonyms.

After the treatment, their postwritings were analyzed using concordance. A total number of 139 collocation errors of synonyms were collected, and it was found that the number of collocation errors of synonyms in the postwritings of the experimental group was 54 (38.84 %) and that of the control group was 85 (61.16%). The results are provided in the Table 6:

TABLE 6
COLLOCATION ERRORS OF SYNONYMS IN THE PARTICIPANTS' POSTWRITINGS

Groups of the Study	Number	Percentage
Experimental Group	54	38.84
Control Group	85	61.16

As shown in Tables 5 and 6, the comparison of the participants' prewritings and postwritings shows that when the participants were taught through concordancing, they could use collocations more appropriately. The results show that the number of collocational mistakes in the postwritings of the experimental group was less than those of the control group. After studying the essays, the researchers found that the participants made fewer collocation errors of synonyms

when using the corpus for learning and when they were taught through concordancing approach than when they were taught though conventional approaches.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Collocations, the cooccurrence of words, play an important role in language learning. According to Bahns and Eldaw (1993), collocational knowledge is necessary in fluent speech and writing, but it is difficult for L2 learners to acquire this aspect of language. Nesselhauf (2003) stated that even advanced L2 learners have difficulty with collocations and the frequency of the problems shows that L2 learners need instruction in these aspects of language.

Based on the findings of the study, the concordance-based method had more effect on collocation knowledge of L2 learners. The better comprehension and production of the participants in the experimental group is related to the efficiency of the method employed. In the corpus-based approach, collocations are highlighted in context, and L2 learners are told to pay attention to them. Attention to the context of the collocations gives L2 learners this knowledge that they cannot put any words they like next to each other in every context and different contexts need different collocations.

The study is in line the studies that have found the advantage of the corpus-based approach over the traditional approaches (Jafarpour & Koosha, 2006). Jafarpour and Koosha conducted a study on the collocation learning of Iranian L2 learners and found positive relations between concordancing and collocation learning. The positive effect that the corpus-based approach had on the experimental group in terms of comprehension of collocations suggests that L2 learners' collocational knowledge and the way collocations are learned are closely and positively related.

Le (2010) also studied the effect of concordancing and traditional approach on the identification of miscollocations. The result of his study was strongly in favor of concordancing. Emphasizing the importance of collocations, Brown (1974) stated that more attention can be placed on collocations by using concordances to highlight collocations for the L2 learners.

There are a lot of other studies on the favor of concordancing and collocation learning (Le, 2010; Liu & Jiang, 2009; Mounya, 2010). All these studies are in line with the present study and argue the importance of collocations over other methods on collocation learning of L2 learners.

L2 learners are not good writers, and one of the problems they encounter in their writing is the use of collocations. Collocational knowledge leads to fluent writing among L2 learners (Zhang, 1993). The problem is when L2 learners try to express themselves using collocations. They do not know how words go together. As it is evident from the current study, even advanced L2 learners have problems with collocations in the L2. They had a lot of problems with collocations in their prewriting. So, teaching collocations to L2 learners improves their writing. Corpus helps them learn the correct usage of words that is a problem in their writings.

In this study, the corpus was more effective in developing writing fluency of L2 learners. With the corpus-based approach, the L2 learners had access to authentic language through corpus and they could find their mistakes from the corpus. The reason is that corpus makes collocations more apparent to L2 learners. As Cobb (1999) states, when L2 learners search for the data themselves, they learn and remember them better and more. Also, teaching collocations to the L2 learners through the concordancing improved their collocational competence, reduced their miscollocations, and increased their awareness of how to combine words in order to be natural.

The literature is full of studies which show the positive relation between collocation teaching and writing proficiency. Mounya (2010) and Ying and Hendricks (2005) found the existence of a positive relation between L2 learners' use of collocations and writing proficiency. Mounya (2010) conducted an experiment to raise the L2 learners' writing proficiency by developing their collocational competence through an explicit teaching of collocations. Their pretest was full of collocation errors. After teaching collocations and conducting the experiment, he reached to the conclusion that teaching collocations would raise L2 learners' writing proficiency.

Conducting a study on the relation between collocations and writing fluency, Zhang (1993) reached to the conclusion that the collocations are among the factors that distinguish good and poor L2 writings.

Unfortunately, there are few studies on the relationship between concordancing and writing fluency. Anthony (2006) and Yoon (2008) are a few examples of such studies. To investigate the effect of concordancing on L2 learners' writings, Yoon (2008) conducted a study on six L2 learners. The result of his study was that concordancing increased awareness of the importance of collocations among L2 learners and caused them to pay more attention to collocations in their writings.

In the study conducted by Anthony (2006), the role of concordancing in writing was investigated. According to him, concordancing allowed L2 learners to observe L2 in context rather than in isolation which is more effective.

The present study supports the studies mentioned above, as it concludes the efficacy of concordancing over the traditional methods in improving the writing skill among L2 learners. The results of the study are also in line with the findings of Thurstun and Candlin (1998) who found the beneficiency of the corpus-based approach in teaching collocations and their use in writing.

Regarding teaching collocations, both groups progressed at the end, but the progress of the experimental group was more than the progress of the control group. All in all, the results of the study show that the corpus-based approach plays a positive role in L2 learners' learning and writing fluency and improves the quality of their writing. Differences

in L2 learners' performance on collocation tests and their improvement in writing are related to the corpus-based approach. The writing proficiency of L2 learners improves as they discover the collocations of the words intended.

APPENDIX A COLLOCATION TEST

Direction: *Choose the correct choice.*
1. What do you ….. for a living? do/make
2. He arrived exactly at 11, ….. on time. Bang/exactly
3. They have no time. They work from ….. to dust. day/down
4. You'll forget it ….. by. When time comes/as time goes
5. What was wrong with him? He ….. drunk. got/became
6. Nobody in my class has ….. a lesson so far this year. missed/failed
7. You should always check your work carefully in case you have ….. some mistakes. done/made
8. I've been studying French for 6 months now, but I don't feel like I'm ….. progress. having/making
9. She placed her keys ….. on the table and sat down. slowly/gently
10. ….. a decision on whether to go or not to go is difficult for him. taking/making
11. It's nice to get out into the open/fresh air. I need a breath of ….. air. fresh/open
12. The health authority has ….. its decision and will now allow the treatment to go ahead. moved/altered
13. Excuse me, would you mind ….. a photo of me and my friend? take/catch
14. She is a ….. smoker. No wonder she coughs so much. heavy/strong
15. There was only a ….. wind, but it still blew a tree down in my garden. light/weak
16. I wish you would stop ….. such a mess in the kitchen. doing/making
17. He ….. a bad accident when he fell asleep while driving. He caused/made a bad accident when he fell asleep while driving.

APPENDIX B COLLOCATION PRETEST

Name: ………………   Group: ………………..
Direction: *Choose the correct choice.*
1. Single parents ….. children without a partner's support are entitled to financial help from the government. grow/raise
2. I've never been very successful at ….. plants. raise/grow
3. Jack has already ….. a very good reputation as a talented lawyer. achieve/win
4. I hope your flight is on time tomorrow. Safe….. . trip/journey
5. He has to stay at home and take care of his wife. His wife is …….. a baby. expect/wait
6. The film ….. in a surprising way. begin/start
7. I don't have any ….. right now; in other words, I'm unemployed. work/job
8. My ….. brother is five years old. little/small
9. Because I was in a hurry, I took a ….. shower and went out. fast/quick
10. Are you satisfied with your new teacher? I'm ….. satisfied. downright/completely
11. Can you ….. the difference between these two pictures? tell/say
12. Facing a problem, many decide to ….. suicide. undertake/commit
13. The lion started to ….. when it heard the dog barking. roar/shout
14. At first her eyes filled with horror, and then she ….. into tears. burst/blow up
15. Let' go to (a)n ….. restaurant. I don't like this restaurant. open air/fresh air
16. I need a ….. computer. This one is too slow. strong/powerful
17. Everest is the ….. mountain in the world. highest/tallest
18. She placed her keys ….. on the table and sat down. slowly/gently
19. He was ….. by the movie. moved/affected
20. It's nice to get out into the open/fresh air. I need a breath of ….. air. fresh/open

APPENDIX C COLLOCATION POSTTEST

Name: ………………   Group: ………………..
Direction: *Choose the correct choice.*
1. He was ….. by the movie. moved/affected
2. I've never been very successful at ….. plants. raise/grow
3. Jack has already ….. a very good reputation as a talented lawyer. achieve/win
4. The film ….. in a surprising way. begin/start
5. Because I was in a hurry, I took a ….. shower and went out. fast/quick
6. I need a ….. computer. This one is too slow. strong/powerful
7. I don't have any ….. right now, in other words I'm unemployed. work/job

8. Are you satisfied with your new teacher? I'm ….. satisfied. downright/completely

9. My ….. brother is five years old. little/small

10. I hope your flight is on time tomorrow. Safe ….. . trip/journey

11. Can you ….. the difference between these two pictures? tell/say

12. Facing a problem, many decide to ….. suicide. undertake/commit

13. The lion started to ….. when it heard the dog barking. roar/shout

14. At first her eyes filled with horror, and then she ….. into tears. burst/blow up

15. Single parents ….. children without a partner's support are entitled to financial help from the government. grow/raise

16. Everest is the ….. mountain in the world. highest/tallest

17. Let' go to (a)n ….. restaurant. I don't like this restaurant. open air/fresh air

18. She placed her keys ….. on the table and sat down. slowly/gently

19. He has to stay at home and take care of his wife. His wife is ….. a baby. expect/wait

20. It's nice to get out into the open/fresh air. I need a breath of ….. air. fresh/open

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Functionalism Theory Applied in C-E Translation of Chinese Food Culture Text

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Abstract—**According to functionalism theory, the translation is a reproduction process of source text in target language, observing the target culture. The target language features in terms of contents, sentence structure and lexis should be considered as criteria to adapt the source text before translating. The source text elements that do not fit in target culture should be revised or even neglected in translating so as to transfer the flavor of source text while not violating target culture.**

Index Terms—**functionalism, C-E translation, food culture, text**

I. INTRODUCTION

Recent years witnesses the prosperity of China's economy. At the same time, China's economic and cultural communication with other nations is accordingly on the increase. More and more foreigners become interested in the Chinese culture. As an indispensable part of the Chinese culture, Chinese food has gained its fame worldwide. With a great growth of the number of people abroad fascinated by Chinese food, an accurate English translation of the Chinese food culture text becomes a must for it facilitates the entry of the Chinese food products into the international market and the efforts to help boost China's tourism that is well beginning to attract custom from overseas. To know more about the Chinese food, foreigners are not only expected to appreciate the flavor of each dish but also to understand the history and the food culture behind it.

Nowadays, there are studies of the translation of Chinese food by many scholars from different perspectives，but it seems that most of them simply focus on how to translate the names of dishes, which ignores the importance of the study on how to deliver the essence of Chinese cuisine—the Chinese food culture. This research is devoted to the C-E translation strategy and evaluation of Chinese food culture text from a functionalism perspective, hopefully bridging the Chinese food culture and western perceptions by providing accurate translations.

II. FUNCTIONALISM THEORY AND C-E TRANSLATION OF CHINESE FOOD CULTURE TEXT

A. Functionalism Theory Applied in Translation Strategy

The functionalism theory believes that a proper translation is an endeavor to maintain the flavor of source text during the language transfer while not violating the target language system. In other words, a good translation should deliver the source text meaning as well as the source-culture imbedded in the language and the audience of the target language and target-culture feel the same way as the source text audience about the text. But it seems impossible for audiences from different culture with different language system to share the same information and affection of a text if the translation is conducted simply in a coding way where faithfulness principle in translation is deduced into word-to-word translation. Therefore, the functionalism defines that the translator is not the sender of the source text message but a text-producer in the target culture who adopts somebody else's intention in order to produce a communicative instrument for the target culture, or a target-culture document of a source-culture communication (Nord, 2006). The translator recreates the text in target language by keeping some source-text information or linguistic elements invariant and adapting the rest to the receivers' background knowledge, expectations and communicative needs or to such factors as medium-restrictions and deixis requirements (Nord, 2001). Consequently, from the functionalism perspective, the translation strategy of Chinese text into English is not mainly restricted to source text information but also needs considering how to bridge the western culture and Chinese culture conveyed in the text.

B. The Functionalism Impact on C-E Translation of Chinese Food Culture Text

As a general rule in functionalism, texts are not produced just in order to be translated but to fulfill certain communicative purposes for a specified source language audience (Nord, 2006).Chinese food, as one world-known Chinese culture factor, is appealing to westerners both because of its taste and the exotic Chinese food culture. The C-E translation of Chinese food culture text becomes most demanding for the communicative purpose of translation is to promote Chinese food culture. The reception of a text depends on the individual expectations of the receivers, which are determined by the situation in which they receive the text as well as by their social background, their world knowledge and their communicative needs (Nord, 2006). Thus, the translation strategy of Chinese food culture text focuses on the reproduction of an English text introducing the Chinese food culture in a manner adapted to the westerner's

expectations of food culture texts, their knowledge of the western food introduction format and their communicative needs. To achieve this goal, the translation starts with the processing of source text and target profiles. Nord (2001) states that "the comparison between the source-text and target profiles shows very clearly what source-text information or linguistic elements can be kept invariant and what has to be adjusted to the requirements of the translation purpose". The following research will make a contrast between the source-text (Chinese food culture text) under the Chinese food culture and the target profiles (western food culture text) under western food culture, by which the processing of source text and target profiles can be accurately done during translating.

III. THE CONTRAST BETWEEN CHINESE AND WESTERN FOOD CULTURE TEXT

By analyzing the data from a variety of Chinese food culture text and Western food culture text, the research comes up with a contrastive summary to characteristics of each food culture text in terms of content composition, sentence structure and lexis function. The data quoted below chiefly derived from three samples on each side. (The samples are listed in appendix)

A.   The Contrast in the Composition of Content

The Chinese food culture text usually covers the school of the cuisine, the ranking of the dish, the history or stories about this dish, the taste, the special serving manner(if provided), the improvement of the technique preparing this dish and the naming of this dish. Among them, the school of cuisine, the ranking, taste, cooking technique and serving manner differ from the rest in the nature of content. The former is closely related to the physical feature of the food while the latter attaches importance to the legendary anecdotes of the food. TABLE I. shows the rate of the numbers of the physical feature and anecdote sentence in the three samples.

TABLE I.
RATE OF PHYSICAL FEATURE CONTENT AND ANECDOTE CONTENT IN CHINESE TEXT (UNIT: SENTENCE)

Sample	Physical feature		Anecdote			Rate
	Taste	School of cuisine	History	Improvement	Naming	
(1)	1	1	4	1	1	2 : 6
(2)	1	1	2	3	1	2 : 6
(3)	0	1	3	1	1	1 : 5

Obviously, according to the figure, the anecdotes prevail in the Chinese food culture text over the physical features. The historical stories overweigh the introduction to the school of cuisine, taste and cooking technique.

As to the content of the western food culture text, it usually contains four parts: region of origin of this cuisine, ingredients, naming of this cuisine, the history or stories about this dish. To facilitate the contrast to Chinese food culture text, the mentioned four parts of the content can also be categorized into two types: the physical feature of food and the anecdotes. The analysis in TABLE II concludes that the physical features spend more sentences than anecdotes in the western food culture texts. It reaches more than half which is sharply increasing from the Chinese food culture text rate. The anecdotes in the western food culture texts are still attached to the introduction of physical factors of the food.

TABLE II.
RATE OF PHYSICAL FEATURE CONTENT AND ANECDOTE FEATURE CONTENT IN WESTERN TEXT (UNIT: SENTENCE)

Sample	Physical feature		Anecdote		Rate
	School of cuisine	Ingredient	History	Naming	
(4)	2	2	3	2	4 : 5
(5)	1	2	0	1	3 : 1
(6)	2	3	3	1	5 : 4

To sum up, in the composition of content, the Chinese and English food culture texts may be observed to cover the region of origin of the cuisine, cooking, naming of this cuisine, special features. As compared with the Western food culture text, the Chinese food culture text cares more about the detailed history, such as the time of the invention of a dish, the related historical figures and events, the improvement of the dish which leads to old stories. On the contrary, the English food introduction gives priority to content such as the ingredients, the skills by which to prepare a dish. Therefore, to compare the Chinese and western food culture text in terms of the composition of content, a tremendous difference is that the Chinese food culture text attaches much importance to the anecdotes of the food, such as the time of the invention of a dish, the related historical figures and events, the improvement of the dish which leads to old stories, all of which may be considered cultural background of the cuisine but less relevant to the direct information about the cuisine itself. But the Western food culture text talks much more to the point for it puts a lot of weight on introducing the ingredients, taste, the skills by which to prepare a dish and how to cook and eat the food which are more directly related to the food itself.

B.   The Contrast in Sentence Structure

The sentence structure of the Chinese food culture text is characterized by the use of two sentence types. The first

type (type 1) is sentences where some of the clauses possess different subjects in the framework of "Subject+V1+V2 … Subject1+V3+V4…" and the second type (type 2) includes sentences where the clauses are put together in the framework of "Subject + V1+V2…", sharing the same subject. This phenomenon is reflected in TABLE III.

TABLE III.
THE DISTRIBUTION OF TWO SENTENCE TYPES IN CHINESE TEXT

Sample	Type 1	Type 2
(1)	d. e.	a. f.
(2)	a. d.	a.c.f.
(3)	d.	a.c.

Similarly, by analyzing the sentence structure of western food culture texts, the research pinpoints two features about western food culture texts' sentence structure: massive use of sentences in passive voice, the employment of complex sentences or simple sentences with modifiers and inserted elements. The application of these two sentence types are clearly recorded in TABLE IV.

TABLE IV.
THE DISTRIBUTION OF TWO SENTENCE TYPES IN WESTERN TEXT

Sample	Passive voice	Complex sentence
(4)	a. c. g. i. j.n.	g. h. i.k
(5)	a.b.e	c.e
(6)	a.e.g	a.b.c.e.f.g

To make a contrast in sentence structure, the Chinese food culture text differs a lot from their western counterparts. Firstly, the sentence structure of the Chinese texts is changeable and variegated in nature because as can be observed the subject of the sentence shifts from time to time. The clauses of a Chinese sentence possess different subjects which can be described in the framework "Subject+V1+V2…Subject1+V4+V5…" not clearly indicating in which way they are related to one another, which reinforces a scholarly claim that Chinese is a language of parataxis where language elements are put together without using many connective devices (Liu, 2001). In order to convey complicated meanings and information, the Western food culture text, however, bring in complex sentences and simple sentences filled with inserted elements and post-modifiers so that layers upon layers of meanings can be readily identified, with the subject of the sentence stretching on consistently, presupposing the subjects of the clauses in a way grammatically and texturally possible. Secondly, whereas in Chinese sentences clauses may often be observed to share one subject, appearing in the "Subject+V1+V2…" pattern, which conforms to the fact that lack of the subject of a sentence is a constant thing in Chinese (Hu, 1994), the opposite may be said true of the case with English sentences where almost every clause, to say nothing of a sentence, starts with the subject as a point of departure.

C. The Contrast in the Function of Lexis

The diction used in the Chinese food culture text can be roughly categorized into three types according to function. The first type, known as referential lexis, covers the words for providing essential information, that is, for informing the reader of the objects and phenomena in the real world. The second type, namely cohesive lexis, contains the words for bringing about coherence and transition of the text by functioning as cohesive devices. The third type, called beautifying lexis includes the words for enhancing the atmosphere, beautifying the language, invigorating the objects or phenomena or/and expressing the text producer's attitude toward them. To simplify the calculation in lexis rate, the first type is also defined as informative lexis while the second and third type is also combined to be referred as functional words which mainly help to smooth or beautify the text but not aims to provide any essential information of the food culture.

In TABLE V., the typical lexis in the three Chinese food culture text samples are put in the three types.

TABLE V.
THE DISTRIBUTION OF LEXIS OF DIFFERENT FUNCTION IN CHINESE TEXT

Sample	Referential function	Cohesive function	Beautifying function
（1）	北京烤鸭(Beijing Roast Duck)、中国(China)、宋(Song Dynasty)、元(Yuan Dynasty)、三百年(300-year-old)、炙鸭 (grilled dusk)、烧鸭(roast duck)、朱元璋(Zhu Yuanzhang)、南京(Nanjing)、炭火(coal)	进一步(further)、单单 (only)、已有(already)、更(even)、随之(along)	首屈一指(be second to none among)、佳肴(exquisite)、酥香肥美、肥而不腻 (fleshy, delicious, but not greasy)
（2）	涮羊肉(Instantly Boiled Mutton in a Mongolian Fire Pot)、羊肉火锅(Mutton in Fire Pot)、北京(Beijing)、元代(Yuan Dynasty)、忽必烈(Kublai Khan)、宫廷(the Palace)、千叟宴 ("One Thousand Elderly Men Feast")、民间(every household)、十七世纪中叶(the middle of 17th century)	逐渐(gradually)、便 (consequently)、从此 (ever since)	颇具(so boast for)、逼近(impend over)、津津有味((racily)、喜开颜笑(be excited)、大设(luxuriously held banquet)、大震(well-known)、食趣(the fun of eating)、热烫鲜美(delicious and fresh)
（3）	安徽(Anhui Province)、凤阳(Fengyang city)、明朝(Ming Dynasty)、朱元璋(Emperor Zhu Yuanzhang)、酿豆腐 (Preserved Beencurd)、洪武豆腐(Emperor Hongwu's beencurd)、饭馆(restaurant)、厨师(chef)、老板(the restaurant owner)	就(then)、后(ever since)、便 (consequently)、已有 (there have been)、经常(occasionally)、时常 (sometimes)	系(namely)、驰名于世(world-famous)、名菜(exquisite dish)、风味(flavor)

In TABLE VI., the three types of lexis are calculated in two groups: informative lexis and functional lexis.

TABLE VI.
RATE OF INFORMATIVE LEXIS AND FUNCTIONAL LEXIS IN CHINESE TEXT (UNIT: WORD)

Sample	Informative lexis	Functional lexis		Rate
	Referential lexis	Cohesive lexis	Beautifying lexis	
(1)	10	5	4	10 : 9
(2)	9	3	8	9 : 11
(3)	9	7	3	9 : 10

Following the same categorization of lexis with the Chinese food culture text, the lexis used in the western food culture text is recorded in TABLE VII.and TABLE VIII which applies the format of TABLE V and TABLE VI.

TABLE VII
THE DISTRIBUTION OF LEXIS OF DIFFERENT FUNCTION IN WESTERN TEXT

Sample	Referential function	Cohesive function	Beautifying function
(4)	Paella,Spain,Valencia,eastern Spain,rice...chicken, pork, shellfish, fish,eel,squid,beans,peas,pepper artichokes,	it, however, or, and, but,	internationally-known, as many as, essential, wonderful, romantic
(5)	Mexican; avocado; chilies; lime; lemon juice;tomatoes;spring;onion; cilantro(coriander) ;" guacamole" ;"agucate"; "mole"; cities; Monterrey; garnish; dish; red; white; green stripes; flag.	so; and; or; so that	none
(6)	Porto people, tripe recipe, Caen's, Lyonnaises, or the callos à Madrilenã, Prince Henry, caravel, Ceuta, wooden barrel, vessel, black pepper, sausage, fat chicken	Although, them, then, later on, not only but also, and, or	none

TABLE VIII.
RATE OF INFORMATIVE LEXIS AND FUNCTIONAL LEXIS IN WESTERN TEXT (UNIT: WORD)

Sample	Informative lexis	Functional lexis		Rate
	Referential lexis	Cohesive lexis	Beautifying lexis	
(4)	16	5	5	16 : 10
(5)	22	4	0	22 : 4
(6)	12	7	0	12 : 7

Concerning the lexis, in both the Chinese and Western food culture text, the words used can be categorized into three types: words for the communication of information, words for bringing about the coherence and consistence of the text and words for enhancing the atmosphere, beautifying the language or/and expressing the text producer's attitude. But the different proportion of each type used in the Chinese and Western food culture text shows that the Chinese food culture text attaches much greater importance to the functional words for beautifying the language, enhancing the atmosphere than to the informative words, while the Western food culture text takes information words over the other types.

IV.   THE PROBLEMS IN C-E TRANSLATION OF CHINESE FOOD CULTURE TEXT

In the preceding studies, we have presented a more or less detailed study of the content, sentence structure and lexis factors in the Chinese and western food culture text and explored respectively the characteristics of the Chinese and the

western food culture text from the lexical, structural and cultural perspectives. It is obvious that the Chinese food culture text differs greatly from the western food culture text in content, sentence and lexis which are closely related to the different cultural backgrounds. As to translating the Chinese food culture text into English, it is insufficient to start from the source-language elements and transfer it sentence by sentence, phrase by phrase, or word by word. In the functionalism translation theory, the translation starts on the pragmatic level by analyzing the target text skopos, that is, by deciding on the intended function of the translation. The second step is the analysis of the source text. A distinction is then made between those text elements of the source text that will have to be preserved and the ones that must be adapted to the target addressee's background knowledge, expectations and communicative needs. Therefore, to judge the English translation of the Chinese food culture text, the author should examine if the target text successfully adapts the text elements of source text to the target addressee's cultural expectations, thinking patterns and language, if the target text conveys the essence of the source text as well as fulfill the translation skopos. Put it simple, in English translation of the Chinese food culture text, the forming of target text should confirm to the characteristics of English food culture text and contents of original Chinese texts should be adapted according to the translation functions when put in the target text. The neglect of these factors results in many translation problems occurring in the English translation of Chinese food culture text. The case study below will showcase the specific malpractice in translation and hopefully lead to working out some translation strategies applicable to the translation of such texts.

A.   The Case Study on Translation Problems

One Chinese food culture text –Yifu Fried Noodle is provided originally in Chinese below accompanied with a trial on its English translation.

清人伊秉绶任惠州知府，为官清廉，从不趋炎附势，当地乡绅都惧怕他(1)。一次伊知府过生日，众乡绅都知道知府喜食面条，于是不约而同送上的寿礼都是面条(2)。这下伊知府为难了，看着堆积如山的面条不知如何是好(3)。忽然灵机一动，决定将寿筵都改为吃面条(4)。于是吩咐厨师将面条煮熟后，分给大家吃(5)。由于决定的突然，厨师手忙脚乱，误将面条投入烧热的大油锅中，于是将错就错，将全部面条炸过之后，连煮带炒，送上餐桌(6)。大家吃过后都说"好吃"(7)。知府非常高兴，将剩下炸过的面条为每条乡绅打包回家(8)。此菜流入了民间，形成了现今的"干烧伊府面"(9)。

Yin Bingshou, of the Manchurian ethnic minority, served as governor of Huizhou(1). He was honest and upright, and never curried favor with the rich and powerful(2). Local gentry were afraid of him(3). On his birthday, wealthy people gave him an enormous amount of noodles as a birthday gift since they knew he loved noodles(4). The governor then and there decided to serve noodles to the well-wishers(5). Disrupted from their routine birthday preparation, the cooks mistakenly put the noodles into pots filled with oil for deep-frying, instead of putting them in pots with water(6). The guests admired the fried noodles for being "tasty"(7). Delighted, the magistrate asked the guests to take home any fried noodles they could not finish(8). On this basis, developed the recipe for fried noodles, or so it is said(9).

－Chinese Cuisine Recipes and Their Stories pp35

This is a typical C-E translation of Chinese food culture text the author randomly picked from "Chinese Cuisine Recipes and Their Stories" which is a bilingual book designed for oversea tourists and gourmets. This translation could be reviewed as follows.

In order to select the translation-relevant elements from the source text above, the differences between the source text and its intended target text should be listed out. This source text is a Chinese introduction of the dish 干烧伊府面 (fried noodles), covering the related historical figure-伊秉绶 (Yi Bingshou, governor of Huizhou) and the story about the dish. The target text is directed at the English speakers who are interested in the Chinese food. According to what may often be observed in the English food culture texts, the focus is not on historical figures and stories but on such content as the cooking procedure, taste, ingredients which provide the tangible elements about this dish. Therefore, the target text receiver expects to acquire more information about how to cook the Fried noodles and how they taste like and how the fried noodles are invented. So the content of the target text cannot be expected to conform wholly to the source text and some points should be slightly adjusted. Sentences 2-6 which tell readers the invention story and the cooking procedure should therefore be translated without missing out a tiny part the information while the first sentence functioning as an introduction of the historical figure 伊秉绶 (Yi Bingshou, governor of Huizhou) can be more precise in the target text.

Moreover, in the source text, some sentences are structured with the subject shifting from one clause to another so that the sentences seem chockablock with the disordered information (See Sentences 1, 2 and 5). To comply with the English language grammar rule that a sentence contain one subject only and it is a consistent whole dominating the whole sentence by referring to the other subjects, if any, of the clauses of the sentence in the co-ordinate or subordinate order, the translator should put all the clauses in the hierarchy where they each kept in its position start with their own subjects that relate to one another and to the subject of the sentence in the required order. Briefly, the translator can either make them several sentences or apply the compound and complex English sentence structure when handling them in translation. In the following are some specific ways to assess the quality of the translation and to improve the work:

Sentence 1 in the source text introduces the historical figure, Yi Bingshou, governor of Huizhou's title and personality which should not be the focus of the whole text when translated into English. So the translator should have put it in a short and precise way by deleting unnecessary the information such as "*of the Manchurian ethnic minority*".

And in the clauses "为官清廉，从不趋炎附势", the second one "从不趋炎附势"is a further explanation of "为官清廉". In translation, "be *honest and upright*" will do because it covers the meaning of "never curried favor with the rich and powerful", a part of the sentence proved redundant. Therefore, to better translate Sentence 1 in the source text, the target text should delete "*of the Manchurian ethnic minority*" and "*never curried favor with the rich and powerfu*l" and combine Sentences 1, 2 and 3 into a compound sentence.

Sentences 2-9 in the source text which tell readers the invention story of the fried noodles and the cooking procedure and how they overspread should have been translated with no tiny part of the information missed out. But this target text misses two important points: one is why noodles are served at the birthday party which is told in Sentences 3 and 4 of the source text and the other is the fact that the fried noodles have been introduced to every household which is mentioned in the last sentence of the source text.

Based on the analysis above, a revised version of target text is provided:

As governor of Huizhou in the days of the Qing dynasty, Yin Bingshou, was so honest and upright that local gentry were afraid of him. On his birthday, wealthy people gave him an enormous amount of noodles as a birthday gift since they knew he loved noodles. The governor then and there decided to serve noodles to the well-wishers. Disrupted from their routine birthday preparation, the cooks mistakenly put the noodles into pots filled with oil for deep-frying, instead of putting them in pots with water. The guests admired the fried noodles for being "tasty". Delighted, the magistrate asked the guests to take home any fried noodles they could not finish. On this basis, developed the recipe for fried noodles, or so it is said.

B.   The Summary of Common Translation Problems

The problems existing in the English translation of Chinese food culture text can be summarized into language, structure and function. At the linguistic level, words for beautifying the language, enhancing the atmosphere in the source text are translated in English only by replacing them with certain "equivalent" or "synonymous" in English and some subject-shifting sentence structures in source text are simply translated into several simple English sentences, failing to adopt typical English compound sentence structure with inserted elements and post-modifiers. As for the structural problems, the loose textual structure of source text devotes most to the introduction to historical stories about the cuisine which are mistakenly saved in the target text without omitting any tiny information. Finally, the English translation of Chinese food culture text is done without clear translation function in advance. Consequently it often ignores the importance of adapting source text to English thinking pattern and the features of western food culture text.

V.   The Translation Strategy of C-E Translation of Chinese Food Culture Text

The assessment is from beginning to end coupled with the author proposing some translation strategies based on the functionalist approaches which are shown in the following:

A functionalist translation process should start at the pragmatic level by deciding on the intended function of the translation. As the function, intention or the purpose is determined, all the other things have to be made to align with it. Furthermore, such process entails the target reader orientation, that is, the translation must be adapted to the receivers' background knowledge, expectations and communicative needs.

Accordingly, when handling the content and composition part, the translator is advised to do away with the part devoted to detailing the unimportant person or place's name and irrelevant detailed information in contents of introduction to the long historical stories about the cuisine. But for famous figures and their titles, supplement explanatory clauses are needed so as to achieve the communication function.

At the sentence level, the translator may use the simple sentence construction, aided by various language elements such as words or phrases as post-modifiers, words or phrases as inserted elements and words or phrases as the adverbial of cause, manner, time and etc and, in a few cases, complex sentences.

At the lexis level, the translator has to make sure that the essential information is kept in the process, to neutralize the cultural connotations of some cultural words and the exaggerative effects those words for enhancing atmosphere and/or beautifying language might produce, simply by using plain language to convey the meanings and by shortening the words or phrases.

VI.   Conclusion

As has been demonstrated throughout the study, translation is the production of a functional target text maintaining a relationship with a given source text that is specified as an offer of information in a new situation according to the translation purpose. It is the specification of the function of the source text or its elements of content or structure that permits the translator to decide whether or not these elements are an appropriate means of performing the intended function of the target text. Therefore, the source text shouldn't be translated word by word but only translation-oriented elements of it should be picked out from the excessive information in Chinese food culture text and translated into English text, considering the translation function of promoting Chinese cuisine, English thinking pattern and the features of Western food culture text. The English translation of Chinese food culture text should adjust the source text in some way, such as omit the words for beautifying language and redundant modifying, summarize the long historical

stories and delete the unimportant person or place's name, supplement explanatory clauses for famous figures and his title, reconstruct textual structures where it is necessary.

APPENDIX A   CHINESE FOOD CULTURE TEXT SAMPLES

The sentences indicating physical feature of the Chinese and western food culture text are underlying with '≈≈' while the sentences indicating anecdotes are underlying with '_____'. And each sentence is marked with alphabet.

(1). a.北京烤鸭是首屈一指的中国名菜佳馔，已有三百多年的历史。b. 如果单单追溯烤鸭的起源，那就更早了。c. 宋、元两朝，已有关于炙鸭、烧鸭（均为烤鸭）的文字记载。d. 公元一三六八年，明太祖朱元璋建都南京，宫廷御厨采用炭火烘烤，烹制南京湖鸭，使鸭子酥香肥美，肥而不腻，被皇府取名为"烤鸭"。e. 朱元璋死后，燕王朱棣称帝，并迁都北京，烤鸭技术也随之带到北京，并得到进一步发展。f.到了清朝，烤鸭成为乾隆皇帝、慈禧太后以及王公大臣们所喜爱的宫廷菜，正式命名为"北京烤鸭"。

Beijing roast duck is second to none among Chinese traditional delicious food with a 300-year-long history. Dating back to the original of Beijing roast duck, its history would be earlier. In Song Dynasty and Yuan Dynasty, the written records about some kinds of roast duck had appeared. In 1368, Zhu Yuanzhang, the first emperor of Ming Dynasty, set up his capital in Nanjing, where the royal chef used coal to roast Nanjing lake ducks soft, fragrant, fleshy, delicious, but not greasy, so that they were called "roast ducks" by the royal palace. After the death of Zhu Yuanzhang, his fourth son, Prince Yan, Zhu Di became the king and then moved the capital to Beijing. So the technology of roasting ducks was brought to Beijing and developed further. In Qing Dynasty, roast ducks became the royal dish favored by King Qian Long, Queen Mother Ci Xi and other royal families and officials. So finally this dish was officially named as "Beijing Roast Duck".

Guide to China-Delicious Foods (Cui Zhiyu, Xu Beili, 2002:)

(2). a. 涮羊肉，又称羊肉火锅，是北京传统名菜，它颇具食趣，食者自己动手，边涮、边蘸调料食用，热烫鲜美。b. 涮羊肉起源于元代。 当年元世祖忽必烈率军南下，一日，敌军逼近，伙夫来不及烧饭，只能把已切成薄片的羊肉在沸水里一烫，再拌些调料。c. 将士们吃得津津有味，忽必烈喜开颜笑，便把这道菜叫作"涮羊肉"。d. 十七世纪中叶涮羊肉传入北京。e. 嘉庆年间，宫廷曾大设"千叟宴"，用火锅一千五百个。f. 从此，"羊肉火锅"之名大震。而"涮羊肉"逐渐走向民间则是在清光绪年间。

Instantly Boiled Mutton in a Mongolian Fire Pot is a famous traditional cuisine in Beijing. It also can be called Mutton in Fire pot. It is really fun in eating, you can DIY-boiling the mutton while dressing the seasoning and eat. It is heat and delicious.Instantly Boiled Mutton in a Mongolian Fire Pot resourced from Yuan Dynasty. At that time, the first king, Hubilie led his army down northward. One day, because of the force of enemy, the chefs of Yuan's army had no time to cook. They only put sliced mutton into boiled water and dressed some seasons. However, generals and soldiers enjoyed it very much. Kublai Khan was excited so he named the cuisine " Instantly Boiled Mutton in a Mongolian Fire Pot".In the middle of 17th century, the boiled mutton was brought in Beijing. In the year of Jia Qing, a feast called "thousand men feast" was taken place in the Palace, which used 1,500 fire pots. From now on, "Mutton in Fire Pot" became famous and the public accepted boiled mutton. Overall, in the period of King Guang Xu, Qing Dynasty, Instantly Boiled Mutton in a Mongolian Fire Pot became popular.

Guide to China-Delicious Foods (Cui Zhiyu, Xu Beili, 2002:8)

(3) a. 洪武豆腐系安徽凤阳传统名菜，已有六百多年历史。b. 明朝开国皇帝朱元璋年幼时，因家境贫苦，靠乞讨度日。c. 凤阳城内一家小饭馆的老板可怜他，就经常送一些酿豆腐给他食用。d. 朱元璋当上皇帝后，时常想起具有家乡风味的酿豆腐，便把饭店的老板和厨师召入皇宫，为他专门制作此菜，称为"洪武豆腐"，驰名于世。

Bean curd has been a famous dish for more than 600 years in Fengyang, Anhui Province. When he was young and long before he became emperor, Zhu Yuanzhang lived by begging. A small restaurant owner in Fengyang took pity on the boy and often gave him some bean curd for food. After Zhu became the founding emperor of the Ming Dynasty, with the reign title of Hongwu, he missed the bean curd from his own town that he had eaten during his childhood. So he had the owner and cook of the small restaurant brought to the palace to cook this dish for him. Since then it has been known as Emperor Hongwu's Bean Curd.

Chinese Cuisine Recipes and Their Stories (Zhang Enlai.2001:128)

APPENDIX B: WESTERN FOOD CULTURE TEXT SAMPLES

(4). a. Paella is currently an internationally-known rice dish from Spain. b.It originated in the fields of a region called Valencia in eastern Spain. c. Today paella is made in every region of Spain, using just about any kind of ingredient that goes well with rice. d. There are as many versions of paella as there are cooks. e. It may contain chicken, pork, shellfish, fish, eel, squid, beans, peas, artichokes or peppers. f. Saffron, the spice that also turns the rice a wonderful golden color, is an essential part of the dish. g. There is an old story of how the Moorish kings' servants created rice dishes by mixing the left-overs from royal banquets in large pots to take home. h.It is said by some that that word paella originates from the Arab word "baqiyah" meaning left-overs. i. However, linguists believe that the word paella comes from the name of

the pan. j.It is made in - the Latin term patella, a flat plate on which offerings were made to the Gods. k.The stories of servants creating dishes from the King's left-overs are romantic, but we know for certain that it was not until the mid-nineteenth century that modern paella was created in an area around Albufera (a bay south of Valencia). l.At lunch time, workers in the fields would make the rice dish in a flat pan over a fire. m. They mixed in whatever they could find - such as snails and vegetables. n. For special occasions, rabbit and later chicken were added.

Source: http://spanishfood.about.com/od/maincourses/a/paella.htm

(5) a. Guacamole is a Mexican dip made of mashed avocados. b. It is flavored with chilies and lime or lemon juice, and often has chopped tomatoes, spring onion and cilantro (coriander). c. The word " guacamole" comes from two Aztec words-"agucate" meaning "avocado", and "mole" meaning "mixture". d. Some Mexican cities have their own way of serving Guacamole. e. In Monterrey, the tomatoes and onions are served as a garnish, so that the dish looks like the red, white, and green stripes on the Mexican flag.

Source: The Kids' Cookbook-- Recipes from Around the World (pp.14)

(6) a.The dish, Tripas àmoda do Porto, after which the Porto people are named has a long story. b. Although there are several tripe recipes -- such as the Caen's, Lyonnaises, or the callos à Madrilenã -- none of them has such an historical framing. c. The most popular version of the legend/story -- the one that has more supporters and historical evidence -- has its origin in the great adventure of the Discoveries. d. Porto-born Prince Henry needed meat to supply the caravels leaving to conquer Ceuta and asked his people to help him victual the vessels. e. The Porto people came forward and immediately filled the wooden barrels with salted meat, keeping only the tripe, which was then cooked in a thick stew with sausages and fat meat, and eaten with big slices of dark bread. f. Later on, the same man who had been responsible for the provision of the caravels, discovered new worlds, thus introducing a new ingredient – the butter bean. g. The dish became part of the history of a city, which is characterized not only by this juicy recipe -- with the flavor of cumin and black pepper, seasoned with homemade sausages and fat chicken -- but also by an altruistic gesture in a decisive moment of the Portuguese nation.

Source: http://www.a2zlanguages.com/Portugal/Porto/porto_food.htm

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Taiwanese Junior High School Students' Performance on Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract—**The main purpose of this study was to examine the vocabulary learning in productive and receptive skills by 181 grade 8 junior high students in Taiwan. The performance of students' vocabulary learning on four skills was indicated. The instrument included a vocabulary assessment test. There were 40 English words adopted from Kang Hsuan, Nani and Joy junior high school English textbooks. It involved four parts, listening, speaking, reading and writing. The results reported that significant differences were showed among students' four skills on vocabulary learning. Most subjects were good at listening to the sound of the words. On the other hand, most subjects were failed in pronouncing the English word. Pedagogical implications and suggestions were referred following.**

Index Terms—**vocabulary learning, four skills**

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary plays a crucial role in listening, speaking, reading and writing. As Wilkins (1972) stated, "Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed (p.111)." Limited vocabulary will hinder the ability of non-native speakers to express their ideas and converse; if listening to others, they will not fully comprehend what the speaker is saying; if reading, they will not be able to understand the text; writers will not be able to fully express what they want to share. Hence, learners with an adequate vocabulary are able to put things into context, thereby deriving a deeper understanding of everything said (Stahr, 2008; Neuman & Dwyer, 2009).

According to the TOEIC and TOEFL tests, the official data show that Taiwanese students' English abilities are still behind compared with those in other Asian countries such as Singapore, Hongkong, China and South Korea (Educational Testing Service, 2006). An in-depth investigation into the approaches used by Taiwanese English teachers has shown that in elementary schools, English classes use role play and games to motivate students. The focus of English learning is on speaking and listening, so students lack training in reading and writing. Whereas, from junior high school to university, de-contextualized materials are used in English classes and there is a strong test-orientated policy. During this period, students are required to focus on reading and writing. The aim of English learning is passing tests. "Repetition and drilling' is deemed the only way to learn English. Under this learning environment, students always rely on short-tern retention rather than long-term retention. Because English is taught in imbalance way, students consider that learning English is more fun and interesting in elementary school. After entering junior high school, gaining admission to good schools, getting high scores and achieving teachers' and parents' expectations are the main goals of students. They only want to know the right answers and practice drills. They are not interested in applying English in their daily life, so there is a decreasing chance for them to achieve a positive outcome regarding EFL learning environment. In Taiwan, which has engaged in English teaching for many years, it is incredibly important that EFL students have the abilities connected with four language skills of the target language. Most Taiwanese people have recognized that English is a bridge to connect to the world. Regardless of its importance in the school exams, the competence of using language is crucial when searching for a job and conducting business with people from different countries.

As a result of the declining birthrate, higher education degrees and the financial tsunami, the family structure has changed. The old idea of raising many children who would help the family is no longer applicable. According to a recent report (Ministry of the Interior, 2011), the birthrate is 0.895. This number indicates that the birthrate in Taiwan is now less than one child per woman. However, parents' educational backgrounds and knowledge development have been increasing. According to the official data (Council of Labor Affairs, 2009), there were about 70,000 university students in 1995. In 2008, there were more than 230,000 university students in Taiwan. In this current generation, children will get more educational resources. Parents will spend more time and money on cultivating their children's education. The learning environment and social structure have changed significantly during the past five decades.

Under the test-originated policy, students' motivation is generally low for English learning. Most students are strong at repetition and drilling. In this learning process, although they learn many words, students' overall language abilities are still behind. Therefore, it is necessary to explore how individual EFL junior high school students learn vocabulary

through four skills. The researcher addressed two research questions as follows:

1. Is there a significant difference in the vocabulary learning process in productive skills by individual junior high school EFL students in Taiwan?

2. Is there a significant difference in the vocabulary learning process in receptive skills by individual junior high school EFL students in Taiwan?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Vocabulary Acquisition

Brown (2007) asserted that ELLs do not always have an adequate knowledge background when absorbing information from textbooks and that having an appropriate grade-level vocabulary in the language learning process is important. Longo and Curtis (2008) reported that students who understood the meanings of various words had a better comprehension than students who knew less. Merely acquiring an abundance of words is not necessarily enough; Broady (2008) posited that a knowledge of vocabulary was not supposed to be limited to memorization or definitions, and the depth of processing should be more fully integrated. Neuman and Dwyer (2009) claimed that the teaching of vocabulary went beyond the identification or labeling of words. It should aid learners to fully comprehend the meaning of a word and the notions it represents. Wallace (2007) indicated that extensive reading played an essential role in acquiring a large vocabulary. The breadth and depth of vocabulary development was connected to reading and listening comprehension. Lee (2009) maintained that children who have a rich vocabulary at an early age were more likely to show better language achievement. As evidence, he maintained that vocabulary played a significant role of literacy development. Furthermore, Anthony (2008) stated that input was crucial for all language learners and is the key for facilitating language output. The input experience of native language acquisition and second language acquisition are similar. Both input and output are important for students to become proficient language learners. Teachers have to give students opportunities to receive new information, and encourage students to verbalize this information. In addition, Nation (2003) revealed that a person's first language represented a significant focal point between communication intent and text, and a crucial factor regarding the four language skills. Nation (2003) provided four steps for learning across the four language skills under equal conditions: meaning focused input, meaning focused output, language focused learning and fluency development. Although language learners have less opportunity to handle the second language outside the classroom, it is still necessary to focus on the second language in the classroom. If this process is followed thoroughly and consistently, the environment will be beneficial and effective for the successful learning of a second language. Using the modes of both input and output, students are made aware of using the second language correctly.

With reference to vocabulary, Tseng and Schmitt (2008) proposed that vocabulary size precedes lexical ability. They maintained that students must be equipped with the opportunities to use the vocabulary they have learned. Gu (1994) reported that vocabulary size could predict a learner's overall language abilities and that there would be certain failure if words learned did not combine both form and meaning. On the other hand, vocabulary acquisition would be successful if learners applied words and associated them with real situations. Also, Stahr (2008) proposed that vocabulary size was important in listening, reading and writing, and that there was a strong correlation among them. Anthony (2008) stated that vocabulary was the fundamental element in speaking and writing. Ma (2004) proposed that a sufficient vocabulary size could assist learners' in their written expression, especially in the case of beginners; however, reading comprehension was most dependent on vocabulary size (Stahr, 2008; Neuman & Dwyer, 2009; Wallace, 2007). Learners with an adequate vocabulary were better able to understand the contexts. Also, learning the meanings of additional words was not only important for increasing, but also created opportunities for teachers to foster students' word recognition skills (Palumbo & Sanacore, 2009). On the other hand, Lo, Wang and Hsia (2006) asserted that vocabulary size was not a decisive factor in learning language; they recommended that learners should acquire vocabulary within practical situations rather than memorizing isolated words as this would be more effective.

B. Effective Vocabulary Instruction

Brown (2007) ascertained that even native speakers find it difficult to understand decontexualized texts. ELLs who did not acquire an adequate background or understanding about what they are reading would find it difficult to be successful readers and would find it more difficult and frustrating than if they were native speakers; he suggested methods to develop ways of scaffolding and accommodation which would assist them in comprehending the contents. Previous studies have proved that learning words related to a specific topic is more effective than learning lexical sets (Thornbury, 2003; Palumbo & Sanacore, 2009; Brown, 2007). Longo and Curtis (2008) suggested that the direct instruction of the meanings of words taught to students who were struggling with reading was efficient. They further suggested that language teachers should provide multiple opportunities for students to understand the meaning of words from relevant texts. Palumbo and Sanacore (2009) maintained that content-area materials were to be regarded as a guide for teachers to enhance students' comprehension and to broaden their deeper knowledge. They reported that teaching vocabulary directly and dealing with rare words, usually by using content materials, was a beneficial exercise for students. Wallace (2007) emphasized that it was necessary to make sure that ELLs know the meaning of basic words as the lack of vocabulary would impede their comprehension of the text. He also suggested that the process of review and reinforcement in their target language was crucial to improve language ability. Furthermore, conducting teacher-directed

language development activities and requiring students to read aloud, would improve students' speaking skills.

Phillips, Foote and Harper (2008) were interested in effective instruction for vocabulary development and expressed the opinion that, currently, many teachers' vocabulary teaching is ineffective as they use the method of merely copying the definition of words as their main strategy to teach students new words. To break this inefficient method, they examined five effective vocabulary learning strategies which could be used in class: selecting words, graphic organizing, logic and prediction, synonyms and antonyms and classifying words. They maintained that the purpose of these five recommended strategies was so that the students would learn the full meaning of a given word and learn to use words in meaningful ways through listening, speaking and writing. Teachers need to give students enough opportunities and time to absorb and apply related words from input and output. Making sure students comprehend the full meaning of words instead of being given merely a surface definition, is required. Myers and Chang (2009) ascertained that an approach of grammar instruction and English–Chinese translation is commonly demonstrated by Taiwanese English teachers in Taiwan. In their study, they affirmed that these methods impede students in acquiring an adequate vocabulary. They suggested that employing a multiple-strategy-based approach would stimulate students' vocabulary acquisition and production, and used techniques such as word maps, semantic maps and verbal-visual word association. From the results of interviews, it seems that these had positive outcomes on students' reading, listening, speaking but little effect on writing competence. Griffith and Ruan (2007) identified that the instruction of story innovation was a useful and beneficial strategy to reinforce students' vocabulary and fluency development. The process linked word knowledge and oral reading fluency, and it would aid students in becoming successful readers. By repeating this practice with their favorite reading books, students' literacy development would be improved. Kindle (2009), in his discussion of the role of teachers and the methods they employ, found that reading aloud was an efficient way to teach vocabulary. Huyen and Nga (2003) suggested that learning vocabulary through games is an efficient way to conduct classes. Thornbury (2003) pointed out that using short blocks of text was a suitable approach to learning vocabulary with regard to the skills of listening, reading, writing, and speaking; it provided a strong model for learners to follow in their language learning. Elliott and Olliff (2008) promoted the use of signs to label items in the classrooms; they felt that it would be beneficial as children would then encounter those words frequently. Nixon and John (2009) maintained that a word-sort strategy was a useful way to develop students' critical thinking ability. By having discussions and doing activities in small groups of three or four, students' understanding and retention of words or terms would not be just through memorization.

C.   Spelling Skill and Phonological Awareness

Several previous studies have shown that phonological awareness is a predictor of reading and spelling development (Furnes & Samuelsson, 2011; Otaiba, Puranik, Rouby, Greulich, Sidler & Lee, 2010; Calhoon & Masterson, 2011; Arndt & Foorman, 2010). In addition, phonological awareness is related to the sound scheme of language. Former results have shown that a child who is poor at spelling words is likely to also be poor at reading (Otaiba, Puranik, Rouby, Greulich, Sidler & Lee, 2010; Arndt & Foorman, 2010). Arndt and Foorman (2010) established a positive connection between reading ability and spelling performance. As mentioned before, students who have reading difficulties normally have spelling problems as well; this seems to be linked to the ability of students to decode several letter – sound matches within the word. Perfetti (1997) explained that spelling was a linguistic skill which required "encoding linguistic forms into written forms. The linguistic units – phonological strings, morphemes, and words – are provided by the spoken language" (p.22). Early spelling skill was important so that any inaccurate letter – sound discernment could be identified and writing could be facilitated. Also, early spelling achievement was highly correlated with later spelling outcomes.

Dich (2009) claimed that spoken word recognition was related to orthography, phonology and literacy acquisition. Puranik and Apel (2010) also asserted that orthographic knowledge was a decisive factor in spelling performance; in evidence, they found that positive results in letter writing skills are related to children's orthographic knowledge development. Calhoon and Masterson (2011) pointed out that students utilized not only their phonemic knowledge but also alphabetic knowledge when they encountered words of which they were unsure. Therefore, developing phonemic awareness is a necessary basic skill to identify and apply the sound components when speaking and writing words. To improve students' spelling performance, teachers need to assess where students' were experiencing difficulties and then give them direct spelling instruction. Chen and Yeh (2004) indicated that training in the skills of spelling while focusing on meaningful words is an effective approach. Arndt and Foorman (2010) suggested that teaching spelling rules and patterns was necessary for enhancing students' spelling and reading knowledge. This essential knowledge would aid students in reading comprehension and in acquiring a larger vocabulary.

III.   METHODOLOGY

A.   Subjects

The subjects of this study were 181 grade 8 junior high school EFL students in southern Taiwan, all of whom had been learning English for at least three years. The researcher chose them form two public junior high schools.

B.   Instruments

In terms of the design of the vocabulary assessment test, the researcher initially picked 80 words from the three English textbooks. Kang Hsuan, Nani and Joy versions were adopted. Then, the researcher recruited 60 grade 8 junior high school students to do this test. According to the students' results, the researcher removed the top 25% correct answers and bottom 25% incorrect answers. There were the only 40 words presented in the vocabulary assessment test. Each correct answer scored 2.5 and the total score was 100. The vocabulary assessment test was categorized into four parts: listening, speaking, reading and writing.

C.   Procedures

There were four main parts to the vocabulary assessment test. To assess the internal test reliability, the researcher applied Cronbach's alpha to examine all questions. The results showed that the overall questions were at .95; for the separate parts, listening was at .96, speaking was at .93, reading was at .91 and writing was at .91.

In the beginning of the vocabulary assessment test, the researcher explained the main reason for doing these tests and then distributed the vocabulary assessment tests to the students. In the speaking part, each individual student had to pronounce the key word to the researcher. In the reading part, the students had to write down the Chinese meaning of the English word. In the listening part, the researcher played the CD and the students had to select the right answer from a multiple-choice. In the writing part, the students had to write down the spelling of the English word according to the Chinese meaning. The data collection procedure is given below (see Table 1)

TABLE 1
DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

Step	Data Collection	Time
1	Execute a pretest on 60 grade 8 junior high school students	
2	Select 181 grade 8 junior high school students in southern Taiwan	
3	Solicit the teachers' permission to do survey	
4	Explain the meaning of the vocabulary assessment test for each class	1 minute
5	Do the speaking test	25 minutes
6	Do the reading test	15 minutes
7	Do the listening test	6 minutes
8	Do the writing test	15 minutes

D.   Data Analysis

The data were analyzed by using descriptive statistics, pair sample t-tests and Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha was used to examine inter reliability of the vocabulary assessment test. Descriptive statistics included mean and SD. Pair sample t-test showed correlation and differences from each group.

IV.   RESULTS

1. Is there a significant difference in the vocabulary learning process in productive skills by individual junior high school EFL students in Taiwan?

TABLE 2
THE MEAN AND SD OF PRODUCTIVE SKILLS

Productive Skills	Mean	SD
Writing	50.64	33.22
Speaking	42.12	33.72

The result showed the mean of spelling the right English word was higher (mean = 50.64). However, the mean of pronouncing the right English word was lower (mean = 42.12) (see Table 2).
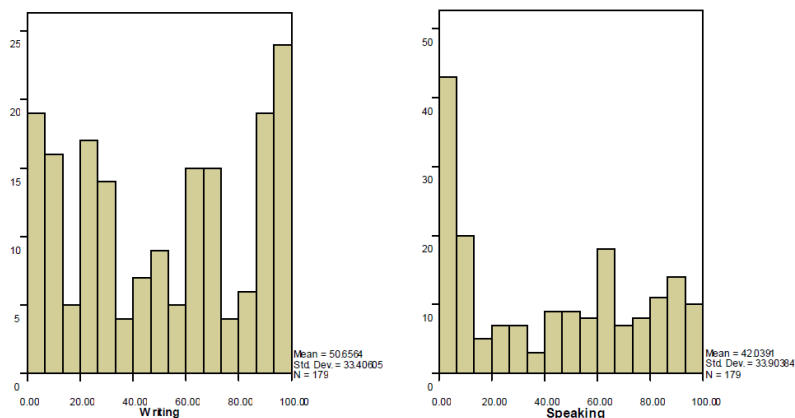

Figure 1: The distributions of students' performance in productive skills

In *Figure 1,* the histograms revealed the detailed results of the students' performance distribution in productive skills.

The results showed a moderate distribution for the Writing part. However, as *Figure 1* showed, most students achieved low scores on their speaking performance. Many students had difficulty in pronouncing the English words.

2. Is there a significant difference in the vocabulary learning process in receptive skills by individual junior high school EFL students in Taiwan?

TABLE 3
THE MEAN AND SD OF PRODUCTIVE SKILLS

Receptive Skills	Mean	SD
Listening	77.47	26.80
Reading	50.73	33.67

Table 3 showed that junior high school students were good at listening to the sound of the word (mean = 77.47). The performance of reading the English word and translating it into Chinese was moderate (mean = 50.73),
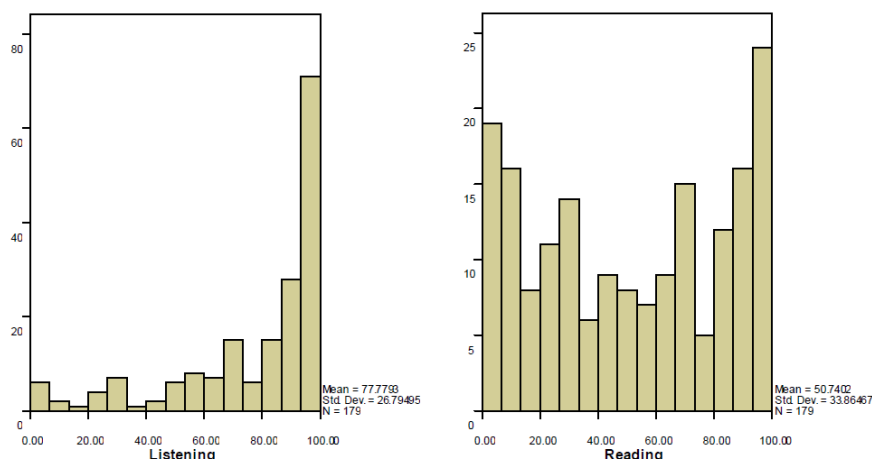

Figure 2: The distributions of students' performance in receptive skills

In *Figure 2,* the histograms revealed the detailed results of the students' performance distribution for receptive skills. Most students showed strong listening skills and the results revealed that most of the students got high scores for their listening part. Whereas, the results indicated moderate distribution for the reading part.

TABLE 4
THE RESULTS OF A PAIRED SAMPLES CORRELATION AND T-TEST IN PRODUCTIVE AND RECEPTIVE SKILLS

Four Skills	N	MR	SSD	Std. Error	Paired samples t-Test		
					t	df	Sig.
Speaking–Reading	181	.870	17.21	1.279	-6.727	180	.000*
Speaking–Listening	181	.756	22.11	1.643	-21.50	180	.000*
Speaking–Writing	181	.870	17.05	1.267	-6.724	180	.000*
Reading–Listening	181	.746	22.48	1.671	-15.99	180	.000*
Reading–Writing	181	.973	7.79	.579	.143	180	.886
Listening–Writing	181	.766	21.38	1.589	16.87	180	.000*

Note. * $p < .05$.

A paired samples t-Test was used to probe into whether there were significant differences among the six groups (see Table 4). According to the findings, there was a significant difference between speaking and reading ($p = .000 < .05$), between speaking and listening ($p = .000 < .05$), between speaking and writing ($p = .000 < .05$) and between reading and writing ($p = .000 < .05$). Finally, there was also a significant difference between listening and writing ($p = .000 < .05$). However, there was no significant difference between reading and writing ($p = .886 > .05$).

V. DISCUSSION

In terms of research questions, the findings showed that the junior high school students were strong at listening to the sound of words but poor at pronouncing the words. Reading and writing performance were moderate. This phenomenon was probably caused by current teaching styles. Test-orientated policy and grammar instruction were the main ways used in schools to motivate students to learn English. In Myers and Chang's (2009) study, they mentioned that grammar instruction and English-Chinese translation were usually approached in Taiwanese English classes. In this learning environment, students' language learning achievement would be impeded. Students seldom actually spoke English in class or after class. On the other hand, listening training was obviously done when students started learning English and students got used to identifying the sound of English words. Because their teachers would repeat words many times. Also, reading and writing skills were the main focus of language learning, especially in the test-orientated policy that has been implemented in Taiwan. It was probably because reading words and writing them down was stressed in

English tests. The difference between reading and writing performances in this research was not significant.

VI. CONCLUSION

Regarding the students' four skills on vocabulary learning, most students failed on verbalization. However, they were successful in their listening skills and could recognize the sound of words. In traditional Taiwanese culture, most Taiwanese students would be afraid of losing face and being laughed at by others if they spoke incorrect English. Under this kind of worse situation, most students prefer to be listeners during class, listening training is practiced more than speaking. Moreover, the English learning environment is still not well-developed in Taiwan. Students lack opportunities to speak English in their daily lives. This deficient situation still exists.

VII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

It is noted that speaking is the weakest part of the students' English language ability. The main point is that students still speak Chinese during English classes and this lack of practice will inevitably limit students' speaking skills. As Nation (2003) observed, even though language learners may have few opportunities to use their second language outside the classroom, using it during class-time is still necessary. If this process is performed thoroughly and consistently, the environment will be conducive to learning a second language successfully. Through input and output, students will become aware of how to use second language correctly. Therefore, it is important to give students enough opportunities and the encouragement to verbalize as often as possible. In attempting to create an environment conducive to learning the language, at least students should be expected to speak English in English classes. With such stimulations, students will be pushed to speak English, ensuring regular and ongoing progress.

VIII. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

First, the subjects were 181 junior high school students. The sample size was small. Therefore, the sample was not representative of all junior high school students in Taiwan. Second, grade 8 students were the subjects in this study; grade 7 and grade 9 junior high school students were not recruited. The results are not representative of all the students and can only explain the attributes of grade 8 junior high school students. Third, students from the northern, western and eastern areas were not considered. The southern area is only one part of Taiwan and the findings from this area cannot necessarily be extrapolated to other regions. Fourth, with the vocabulary assessment tests, only three junior high school English textbooks were adopted and the vocabulary assessment test only comprised 40 items. The results as interpreted in the current study might be different if adopting other versions of consisting vocabulary assessment test and a bigger vocabulary items were used. As mentioned, the verbal part of a vocabulary assessment test may cause the students to feel pressure. This variable could influence the students' speaking performance.

IX. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

First, there were only 181 junior high school students used in the research, which is not a big enough sample size. In future research, the sample size could be increased to explore whether sample size would influence the final results. Second, this study only recruited grade 8 students; grade 7 and grade 9 students were not recruited. Therefore, grade 7 and grade 9 students could be included in future research to examine the factor of different ages on vocabulary learning. Third, this study only recruited students from southern Taiwan. Future research could recruit students from northern, eastern and western areas of Taiwan to compare the influence of students from different areas on vocabulary learning. Fourth, the instrument of vocabulary assessment tests only adopted three junior high school English textbooks, and there were only 40 items in the vocabulary assessment test. A future study could adopt other versions and also a test with a bigger vocabulary base. The factor of different versions and the size of vocabulary assessment test may be significant and could influence the results of the whole research. With regard to the verbal part of the vocabulary assessment test, the stressful one-on-one situation could be changed by using a recording. This may decrease the students' pressure and their verbal performance may be improved.

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The Translation of Culture-loaded Tourism Texts from Perspective of Relevance Theory

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Abstract—The translation versions of tourism texts are playing an important role in attracting travellers domestic and abroad, and the Chinese government and translators are paying great attention on the translation of tourism texts. This paper is mainly about the relationship between the translation of tourism texts and relevance theory, discusses the cognitive principle of relevance and communicative principle of relevance and translation, and focuses on gloss translation , especially transliteration with internal gloss, which is more helpful to come up with an accurate 'equivalent' in understanding the corresponding information as well as the spread of the national culture.

Index Terms—tourism texts, relevance theory, optimal relevance, gloss translation, transliteration with internal gloss

I. Introduction

Since tourism texts can offer tourists or potential tourists a lot of information or therefore persuade them to travel to the area mentioned, tourism texts are attractive and informative, and play a very important role in tourism. In order to attract more tourists abroad or make the foreign tourists understand the scenery better, a lot of Chinese tourism texts are translated into different other languages, especially English. In the process of translating, the tourism texts concerning the local or native culture are the most difficult for translators. This paper aims to mainly discuss the translation of cultural-specific terms and expressions in Chinese tourism texts from the perspective of relevance theory.

II. Relevance Theory

The criterion proposed in *Relevance* is based on a fundamental assumption about human cognition. The assumption is that human cognition is relevance-oriented: we pay attention to information that seems relevant to us (Wilson, 1994). Relevance is defined in terms of contextual effect and processing effort. The core of relevance theory is about the nature and the process of human verbal communication. The audience can get many different kinds of comprehension to an utterance. However, it is impossible for the audience to accept all kinds of comprehension equally. In comprehension and interpretation of an utterance the audience is guided by relevance. The responsibility for avoiding misunderstanding lies in the speaker, so that all the hearer has to do is to go ahead and use whatever code and contextual information come most easily to hand (Wilson and Sperber, 1986, p.43). A logical implication can neither derive from the new information itself, nor from the context alone. The only way to drive an implication is by combining the new information and the context. Hence, we claim that newly-presented information is relevant in a context when and only when it achieves contextual effects in that context. Other things being equal, the greater the contextual effects are, the greater the relevance is.

Relevance theory holds that human communication intends to search for optimal relevance, i.e. to achieve adequate contextual effects without too much processing effort. When a speaker goes about communicating with others, he/she automatically intends to communicate the presumption that he/she will say something that is supposed to be optimally relevant to the audience.

Communication is achieved by the communicator providing evidence of his/her intentions and the audience inferring his/her intentions from the evidence, on the basis of the shared common knowledge. Relevance theory develops 2 principles about the role of relevance in cognition and in communication.

Cognitive principle of relevance: human cognition tends to by geared to the maximization and in relevance.

Communicative principle of relevance: every act of communication conveys a presumption of its own optimal relevance.

III. Relevance Theory and Translation

In the history of translation studies, several scholars on translation, such as House (1977), Gutt (1991), Toury (1980,1995), Newmark (1981/1988）and Venuti (1995) have greatly contributed to the development of translation studies in terms of practice and theoretical construction. Combining the relevance theory and translation, Gutt (1991) applied relevance theory to translation studies in his PHD thesis, *Translation and Relevance: Cognition and Context,* which is a widely-spread theory of linguistic pragmatics in recent years.

Gutt (1998) claims that the purpose of implicit translation, such as tourism texts, advertisements, is not to provide the source information, since the relevance of source information and the target information does not play any role, thus covert translation can be realized as a writing of a new text in a new language. However, the new text must be relevant to the source text in information expression. Hence, the process of translation is restrained by relevance theory, and translation is a process of dynamic manifestation-inference of the source language. A translator should presume the reporter's communicational act and search for optimal relevance that can be conveyed to the reader. On this basis, this paper addresses the cognitive account in term of relevance theory in interpretation and understanding of the acceptable translation of tourism text, especially the translation of the cultural-specific information.

IV. TRANSLATION OF CHINESE TOURISM TEXT

The most basic assumption of relevance theory is that every aspect of communication and cognition is governed by the search for relevance. As a theory of language communication, Relevance Theory is an ostensive-inferential interpretation, which involves the tertiary dynamic relationship between the author, the translator and the reader of the translated text. Translation from the relevance point of view employs the main concept such as "ostensive, inference and relevance" in translation, i.e. seeking optimal relevance anticipation in translating the source text to the acceptable and understandable text for foreigner readers. Translation should make it adequately relevant to the readers of the target texts by providing sufficient contextual effects; meanwhile, translation should produce the intended interpretation in an economical method of the possibility of least processing efforts.

A. The Ostensive-inferential Model and Translation

Tourism texts include a nation's historical and cultural background, and people's ways of living and thinking. Generally speaking, tourism texts are written for visitors who share the same or similar cultural background. Tourism texts are the ways to preserve and spread the culture of a nation or a community, which is always unique to that nation or community.

The aim of tourism text is often to attract the reader's attention and then make a sale, as well as preserving the unique culture. In translating tourism text with some original culture-loaded terms, relevance theory is playing important roles in making the translated text relevant to the cognitive environment of the foreign readers.

The translators are expected to generate presumptions of relevance in the target language which is similar to the ones originate from the source message. It is crucial to achieve the communicative goals between the source text author and the target text readers. Hence, there must be the adaptation process which helps the understanding of similar cognitive effects and inferences. The translator is supposed to help the target tourism text readers adapt their expectations to a new cultural environment. Therefore target tourism text readers can build new assumptions in the light of the contextual effects and understand the implicit information in the source tourism text.

In perspective of relevance theory, translation is regarded as communication. According to relevance theory, communication not only requires encoding and decoding processes, but also involves inference of the implicit information. As a means of communication, translation is also based on the human beings' inferential capacity. The intention of writer can be perceived by the readers because of the shared cognitive environment. The success of translation depends on, to some extent, the manifestation and mutual manifestation of both the translators' and readers' cognitive environment. The comprehension of the mentioned cultural information follows the ostensive-inferential model.

The code model provides the framework for a general theory of communication and verbal communication, while the inferential model describes comprehension as an inferential process. Thus translation has been described as a process of inferential recognition of writer's and translator's intentions. According to the code model, communicative function is the main function of language and the understanding of translation is achieved by encoding and decoding messages.

Some implicit information is context-dependent, which restrict the communicability of the literary texts in another context. In the process of translation, the translator must notice the restriction of dynamic context in the perspective of culture and history. In the ostensive-inferential process of translation, there are two kinds of communication involved, namely, the primary communication between the original author of the tourism text and the translator and the secondary communication between the translator and the target reader of the target tourism text. In the secondary communication process, the translator should make right assumptions of the target tourism text readers about their cognitive environment and estimate their cognitive facilities. The tourism text readers receive the encoded message and decode it to arrive at the meaning the translator intended. This can be visualized as follows:

Thought/intention of the author of the original tourism text⇒ encoded⇒ transmitted　⇒ decoded ⇒ intention/thought understood by the translator.

Translator's thought/intention ⇒ encoded ⇒ transmitted ⇒ decoded ⇒ intention/thought understood by the readers of the tourism text.

B. Optimal Relevance of Translated Text

Sperber and Wilson (1986) define a notion of optimal relevance which is meant to spell out what the hearer is looking for in terms of effort and effect:

An utterance, on a given interpretation, is optimally relevant if and only if:

(a) it achieves enough contextual effects to be worth the hearer's attention;

(b) it puts the hearer to no gratuitous processing effort in achieving those effects.

Relevance theory requires the optimal relevance of utterance and context in order to achieve the communicators' implicature. Translators are to choose the most relevant stimuli to manifest his interpretation and decoding of the intentions of the original text to the target reader.

The employment of relevance theory in translation can facilitate the understanding of information in the tourism text through their previous experience and knowledge. Optimal relevance guides the readers of the tourism texts to expect the contextual information needed for the correct decoding is readily accessible. If the context is right, the translated text is supposed to yield an interpretation that is worth the effort the readers has made in processing the information. The task of translators is to achieve the optimal relevance, so that the target readers can achieve adequate contextual effects without expending gratuitous processing effort, i.e. to ensure optimal relevance.

Considering the readers' perception of the cognitive environment, translators will make their translation acceptable by relating to the environment foreign readers are familiar with. Translators will design the translation in such a way that it "resembles the original closely enough in relevant respects' (Wilson & Sperber, 1988, p.137)

Since translation is the essential type of intercultural communication, cultural knowledge is quite important to translators. Basically, what the translator does is to take an object rooted in one culture and transfer it into a product of the code of another culture. Thus, part of the cultural knowledge the translator must deal with is knowledge of cultural models, but the translator must also know about the cultural values associated with language itself. Culture and intercultural competence and awareness that rise out of experience of culture, are far more complex phenomena than it may seem to the translator. The more a translator is aware of complexities of differences between cultures, the better a translator s/he will be.

Translators can either bring the reader to him or bring the writer to him. However, the translation of tourism text with culture–loaded information is different from the translation of other forms of translation in that specific culture and history in the tourism texts are supposed to be exposed to foreign readers or visitors. Since domestication is a practice that leads the readers to recognize their own culture in a text which has been produced in another culture (Venuti, 1995), foreignization should be employed in the translation of the tourism texts in order to retain the original flavor and spread the culture and history of a nation. However, foreignization, which tend to ignore the dominant cultural values in the target language, is likely to make it difficult for foreign readers to "go ahead and use whatever code and contextual information come most easily to hand"(Wilson and Sperber, 1986, p.43), and the optimal relevance is seldom achieved. Neither domestication alone nor sole foreignization in translation is effective in making the translated texts optimally relevant and acceptable for readers of different cultural backgrounds. The following is the method the author prefers to translate culture-loaded tourism texts, which could make the translated text optimally relevant to the cognition and background knowledge of the foreign readers.

C. Gloss Translation

Gloss translation is designed to permit the reader to identify himself as fully as possible with a person in the source language context, and to understand as much as he can of the custom, manner of thought and means of expression (Venuti, 2000), in which the meaning of the text in its original language is explained, sometimes in another language. As such, glosses can vary in thoroughness and complexity, from simple marginal notations of words one reader found difficult or obscure, to entire interlinear translations of the original text and cross references to similar passages.

In tourism text translating process, the translators intend to convey certain cultural message, which is actively helping the readers to recognize the translated texts. However, either the above mentioned domestication or foreignization can hardly make such message conveyed successfully and optimally, if the understanding of the message only depends on the knowledge of English alone. The writer of the original text was concerned for the text to be optimally relevant to the context shared by the native speakers of the language and himself, while he/she would not be concerned with the possible foreign readers whose context might not be optimally relevant. Hence, it is the translators' task to make the translated text be optimally relevant in the target context. The translation which best satisfies the readers' expectation of relevance would be chosen by readers while they are decoding the information mentioned in the translated tourism text.

Obviously, contextual effects do not come free and cost some mental effort to derive. The greater the effort the translators make, the higher the relevance will be. From the relevance-theory point of view, transliteration with internal gloss can guide the readers in their search for optimal relevance in understanding culture-loaded texts. The core relation between the translation and the original is one of interpretive resemblance, which is also defined as the sharing of implicatures and implicatures between the two texts. It is the reader's responsibility to familiarize himself with the

historical and cultural background of the text to ensure correct understanding. Through gloss translation, especially transliteration with internal gloss, the translator intervenes and provides various explanatory notes to the text to help the readers overcome the problem caused by the different social and cultural background knowledge in different nations or different communities.

For the translation of some culture-loaded information, gloss translation is a good method to achieve the manifestation and optical relevance by building new assumptions in the light of the contextual effects. Contextual effect, one of the two main factors of relevance theory controls the degree of relevance. It is the production of the interplay of the old message and the new message: the new message combines with the current contextual assumptions can produce new contextual implication; the new message strengthens existing contextual assumptions; the new message contradicts current contextual assumptions and eliminates the current contextual assumptions.

China is famous for its long history and beautiful scenery, with a lot of spots impressive and attractive. The translation of these spots is worth discussion. According to Hermans (1999), translation can and should be recognized as a social phenomenon, a cultural practice. Difference between cultures cause more complications for translators that the language structure itself does. The tourism texts with cultural-specific expressions are difficult to translate because they are deeply rooted in the culture and values associated with the source language. In the process of translating the Chinese tourism text into English, the translated text with corresponding gloss can be considered as the new message, while information in foreigners' cognitive environment is the old message. So the translator should make his/her translation yield greater contextual effects by making fewer processing efforts. Successful translations are to create similar or identical contextual effect for foreign readers in order to make the foreign readers understand the communicative intention of the original tourism text. The following are the 2 versions of translation of a sentence from the introduction of Imperial City, Beijing:

A: The Imperial City is a section of the city of Beijing in the Ming and Qing dynasties, and was surrounded by a wall and accessed through six gates, with the Forbidden City at its center, whose construction took 14 years, and was finished in 1420.

B.   The Imperial City is a section of the city of Beijing in the Ming and Qing dynasties, and was surrounded by a wall and accessed through six gates, with the Forbidden City at its center, whose construction took 14 years, and was finished in 1420, *72 years before Christopher Columbus discovered the New World.*

Obviously, Version B with gloss is relevant to the readers' cognitive environment, which ensures optimal relevance to facilitate the target readers achieve adequate contextual effects without expending gratuitous processing effort. Hence, translations should be oriented toward appropriateness and acceptability to language and culture of the target test readers.

Similarly, the following is an example of footnote and interlinear gloss, which offers further background knowledge for foreign readers' understanding of the language and corresponding culture:

Hanshan Temple①(Hanshan si), is located in Maple Bridge Town (Fengqiao Town) in the west outskirts of Suzhou, and was built during Tianjian Period of Liang Dystany (A.D.502-519) with a long history of more than 1400 years. It used to be one of the ten most famous temples in China. Hanshan Temple became well known after the Tang poet Zhang Ji wrote a famous poem when he passed by the temple on a small boat. Two lines of the poem reads, 'outside the Suzhou City wall, I heard the sound of Hanshan Temple bell onboard the boat and felt its midnight spell'. On 31 December every year, Hanshan Temple holds the event of Striking the New Year's Bell, during which the superior of the temple strike the bell 108 beats and visitors can enjoy themselves at various celebrations.

Note①: The Hanshan Temple is named after one of the abbots in this temple, whose holy name is "Hanshan".

As is shown in the above example, transliteration with internal gloss is also frequently employed in order to come up with an accurate 'equivalent' in understanding the corresponding information. *Zhu Geliang, Xi Shi, Li Bai* in Chinese are the typical examples, to whom a lot of famous sightseeing resorts are related. The translation of them or their stories needs attention of the translators and has great influence on readers and their understanding of original texts. Domestication of translating them into such familiar figures as King Salomon ,Helen, and Shakespeare will make the translated texts lose the original flavor and the purpose of spreading traditional culture in vain; while, foreignization of translating them directly into Chinese Pinyin will confuse the foreign readers. Thus, transliteration with internal gloss is effective in translation of the above information. If *Zhu Geliang* is translated as *Zhu Geliang, the Chinese wiseman in Three Kingdom period, Li Bai, the Chinese Shakespeare in Tang Dynasty; Xi Shi, Chinese Helen in Spring-Autumn Period,* both the relevance and maintenance of Chinese culture and history is achieved. Transliteration with internal gloss can widen the contextual knowledge of the target readers, which is helpful for the achievement of optimal relevance.

A translator aiming at optimal relevance must have intended to achieve some additional effects not achievable simply by translating literally. No attempt to bridge a wide cultural gap could erase the trace of the foreign setting, which results in expressions deeply imbedded in the very thought structure of the message. Transliteration with internal gloss can facilitate the cultural gap by manifesting the foreign trace, which improves the contextual effect. Take the famous sightseeing spots in Shaoxing, the hometown of Chinese great writer, Luxun as an example: *Bai Cao Tang* is translated as *Baicao Garden, a waste vegetable plot that made a paradise for little LuXun*; Such translation not only offers the background knowledge for understanding, but also retain the flavor in Chinese. *Tianchi (Heavenly Lake)*, and *Luti Cave*

(the Deer-hoop-shaped Cave) in Changbai Mountain in Jilin province are now translated with internal gloss in order to keep the original flavor of the culture involved. Similarly, one of the famous halls in Imperial City in Beijing, Taihe Dian is translated as *Taihe Hall (The Throne Hall of Supreme Harmony)*. Other examples are like *Zhong He Dian (Hall of Complete Harmony), Qian Qing Men (Gate of Heavenly Purity), Lu Gou Qiao (The MarcoPolo Bridge) Da Guang Yuan (The Grand View Garden) , Shi San Ling (The Ming Tombs), Yong Shou Gong (Palace of Eternal Life).* Such a way of translation enables translated text optimally relevant to the context shared by the foreign readers; Meanwhile, it will provide optimally relevant information, which is conveyed by the spot itself.

V. CONCLUSION

Translators are to break down the barriers caused by linguistic and cultural factors between different cultures and produce the translated texts, which are optimally relevant and easy for foreign readers to interpret. Relevance theory is a strongly effective and efficient principle which is likely to be employed to guide translation, especially the translation of tourism texts involving culture. Consideration and manifestation of the readers' perception of the cognitive environment will make the translation optimally relevance and acceptable. Gloss translation helps translators manifest their intention to achieve some additional effects not achievable simply by translating literally. From the perspective of spreading one country's language and culture, gloss translation, especially transliteration with internal gloss can help achieve the optimal relevance of cultural-load tourism text, and is a most efficient way to make foreign readers understand the source text, appreciate the original culture of the source text and dream to travel to the places which are mentioned in the tourism texts.

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An Analysis of English Translation of Collocations in Sa'di's Orchard: A Comparative Study

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Abstract—To most of the theorists, the aesthetic function of language is the most difficult function when translating it into another culture. In translation of poetry as a special type of aesthetic function of language, the translator deals with two parts; the form and the function. The emphasis put on each of these reveals the strategy that the translator has adopted. One problematic aspect of poetry is caused by the subtleties of language which are demonstrated differently in different cultures. In creation of these subtleties, definitely, linguistic tools are involved. Collocations are among these tools which allow the poets to use their wit. To translate collocations, translator should be aware of its features to recognize them in the poem and also its types in order to decide what approach to take.

Index Terms—form, function, aesthetic function, translation of poetry, collocation

I. INTRODUCTION

Literary translation is one of the hotly debated fields far from reaching a consensus as to whether a work of literature is translatable or untranslatable. The major problem in translating a piece of literary work especially in the form of poetry is unconventional linguistic devices employed by the poet to make it different from ordinary texts. These devices are mostly unique and specific to the poet and can be derived from a particular culture, religion, belief and so on. Therefore, they are used in totally different ways in different languages and cultures.

Collocations as one of these devices used by poets require considerable attention when appear in a text to be translated. Since they are considered one of the subtleties of language, we can guess how effective cultural information of the source text could be in grasping the meaning of collocations in that they are like many other aspects of language, highly culture-bound. This feature of collocations makes them complex and difficult to understand. Another reason for complexity of collocations when attempting to translate them lies in various ways they can be translated for different purposes. Thus, a translator should reach to a complete understanding of collocations and their contexts of use in both SL and TL.

A. What is a collocation?

Collocations are defined by Firth as linguistic phenomena to be meaning-based rather than grammar-based. Firth (1968), Halliday and Hassan (1976) claim that collocation is a group of words used to develop lexical cohesion of text and contain "a cohesive force". Regarding the degree of cohesiveness of lexical combination, Benson et al (1986) defines collocations to be "fixed phrases" stored in the mind.

In Sinclair's view (1991) a collocational structure is a co-occurrence of two or more words within a short space of each other in a piece of discourse. The notion of collocation is similarly referred to as a sequence of two or more consecutive words with a particular relation between them in a way that it has the characteristics of a single unit whose meaning cannot be extracted from the meaning or connotation of its components.

B. Grasping the Meaning of Collocations

Regarding the meaning of collocations, Stubbs (1995) recommends that "there are always semantic relations between node and collocates, and among the collocations themselves". It is noteworthy that Cruse (1989) defines collocation as "sequences of lexical items which habitually co-occur". According to him, these sequences shape a semantic constituent. Cruse believes context as a crucial factor in expressing the meaning of semantic constituents. He also claims that the transferred meaning is restricted to the context. Similarly, Firth (1957) argues that "you shall know a word by the company it keeps" Thus, in translating a text the translator should be careful about these relations since he either seeks to break them to use the components in a new context and new form or as an alternative, tends to find a suitable correspondence in TL.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Numerous studies have been carried based on collocations and collocational relations. Lyons (1997) believes that a collocation should be considered as a whole and that separating its components does not give a legitimate meaning equal to the combination of them.

Halliday and Hasan (1976) treat collocation as words used in lexical cohesion of text and contain "a cohesive force". In terms of the degree of cohesiveness of lexical combination, Benson et al. (1986) state collocations are "fixed phrases" stored in the mind. Taking the pragmatic view of collocation, Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) consider collocations as high frequency word combinations.

Cowie (1993) and Robins (1971) (cited in Herbst, 1996, p. 383) have defined collocation as the habitual association of a word in a language with other particular words in sentences such as white coffee, green with jealousy and maiden speech.

Regardless of any particular approach adopted, a number of studies e.g., Addison (1983); Dechert & Lennon(1989); Bahns & Eldaw, 1993; and Gitsaki (1996) were carried out using collocations from different dimensions. Addison(1983) in probing the concept of lexical collocations proposed these assumptions:

1) A text structure for a unit of discourse is analogous to that existing at the level of sentence.

2) A text form can become discordant if large enough samples of generically similar texts are examined.

3) An analogous text may be formed by studying the relationship between lexical collocation and topic/comment sequence.

Addison concludes that when a lexical set regularly occurs within the topic portion of sentences, the lexical set will be perceived as representing the point of the text, which can act as a whole theme of the text.

Some research has been conducted on the role of collocations in translation especially in translation of literary works and poetry. Recognizing the poet's style and his way of applying the lexical collocations can elucidate his attitude towards life

One of the most dominant characteristics of poets' compositions is the way they benefit from the lexical collocations. Sa'di took much advantage of lexical collocations to make his poetry more delicate and concise.

Most of the scholars of translation studies still stick to the notion of equivalence and believe that the more the translator makes use of equivalents of the source text terms in the target text the better will be the product of translation. These groups of scholars advise that in facing collocations, the translator must look for an equivalent collocation in the TL. This seems to challenging and time consuming and most of the time may be unproductive due to the cultural differences between SL and TL.

Newmark (1988) believes that the difficulty of translating collocations lies in two facts. First, the fact that there is an arbitrary relation between the collocates. Second, at least one of the components has a meaning not in a primary sense but in a secondary sense.

Baker (1992) mentions the arbitrariness between the constituents of a collocation and its meaning. She believes that we cannot talk of an impossible collocation since they can be frequently created. According to her, unusual combinations occur naturally because words tend to attract new collocate all the time. She states that the problem posed by collocations in translation is due to differences in the collocational patterning of the source and target languages. She lists five common pitfalls encountered in translating.

1. The engrossing effect of source text patterning
2. Misinterpreting the meaning of a source-language collocation.
3. The tension between accuracy and naturalness.
4. Culture-specific collocations
5. Marked collocations in the source text

Some Iranian scholars have also carried out research on the field. Mollanazar (1990) considered the role of collocations in translation. According to his studies well-structured combinations and normal sequences of words in source language change in the process of translation and become ill-structured in the target language. The abnormality created in the target text is due to the difference of linguistic features of collocations in SL in addition to the different meaning of the corresponding combinations in the two languages.

A similar study has been carried out by Shahriari (1997) about the restrictions of lexical collocations in translation. Different types of combinations of collocations which are equivalent in source and target languages are compared. Studies on the field of collocations and their importance in translation reveal that these investigations have a significant role in translation profession in that they form normal combinations and demonstrate unnatural ones.

III. METHODOLOGY

In this article, all the collocations used by Sa'di in his major work "Bustan" or "The Orchard" were examined and the translations of these collocations in two different translations were compared; One by Pazargardi, a Persian translator, and the other by an English translator, H. Wilberforce Clarke. The reason for choosing one Persian translator and one English speaker is to compare their translation to see the extent to which cultural information helps the translator

translate collocation and to understand which of the cultures are more helpful in translating collocations; the source one or the target one.

Among all the collocations examined, because of their abundance, fourteen collocations are selected to present the analysis. The examination revealed some of the techniques these two translators employed in addition to merits and faults of each technique. It may help the translators to become aware of different strategies devised by different translators in tackling with translating collocations in poetry.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Xas-o Xâr

که پاکیزه به مسجد باز از خاک وخس   گرفتم قدم لاجرم باز پس

PF[1]: Gereftam qadam lâĵaram bâz pas   ke pâkize be masĵed ?az *xâk-o xas*

PT[2]: Therefore, I decided to step out of it, for, a holy mosque should be free from *rubbish*.

ET[3]: I consequently took the retreating step, saying: The Masjid pure of *dust and chips* (myself) is well

The Persian translator has used the word "rubbish" equivalent to the collocation marked in the original verse. He preferred to translate the collocational structure into a smaller level which is word level. The collocation "*xâk-o xas*" is of the synonymous kind. Though *"xâk"* may be obvious to the translator, he fails to notice that *"xas"* completes the meaning of *"xâk"* in a way that together they mean something different from the meaning of each single word. *"xas"* changes the meaning of the collocation to "something unimportant which does not deserve any attention". Therefore, a meaning component is lost in the process of translation without any effort from the translator's side to compensate this lack of meaning. It seems when the translator fails to fully transfer the meaning of the collocation, he translates only one part of that collocation.

On the other hand, the English translator have not understood the meaning of the collocation and decided that a literal translation would suffice to overcome the problem. This latter point shows that the Persian collocation is a culture-bound term.

Havâ-o Havas

جوی نیکنامی نیندوخته   هوی و هوس خرمنش سوخته

PF: *Havâ-o havas* xarmanaš su:xte   ĵu:ye niknâmi nayanduxte

 PT: *Carnal desires* had burnt up his harvest, and he had not stored even one grain of good name

ET: His harvest (of life) *lust* and concupiscence burned, a grain of good repute ungathered

The Persian translator preferred to use the adjectival phrase "*carnal desires*" as a correspondence for the Persian collocation "*havâ-o havas*" and Clarke who has understood only the meaning of "*havas*" has translated the collocation as a single word *"lust"* and failed to translate the word *"havâ"*. The implied meaning of *"havâ"* in this context refers to the notion "wishing and desiring for something"

Ru:y-o Bar

نگون مانده از شرمساری سرش   روان آب حسرت به روی و برش

PF: Negu:n mânde ?az šarmsâri saraš   ravân ?abe hasrat be *ru:yo baraš*

PT: His head was bent with true shame, and tears were running down his *face and body*

ET: His head, in shame lowered, the water of remorse, with lamentation and desire running.

Pazargadi has translated the collocational term into "*face and body*". In the English phrase offered by him, *"body"* is considered as a correspondent for *"bar"* while this word means "*face*". The two words together refer to the head of the person. Clarke, on the other hand, sufficiently translated the collocation to nothing more than the mere notion of it. English translator ignored to translate the Persian collocation. The reason behind this decision is that since "*ru:yo baro sar*" all referred to head and face, he used the word *"head"* at the beginning of the sentence substituting for this collocation. The term "*from his head*" is the prepositional phrase for the verb "*running*" at the end.

Su:z-o Dard

که آن را جگر خون شد از سوز و درد   گر این تکیه بر طاعت خویش کرد

PF: Ke ?ân râ ĵegarxu:n šod ?az *su:zo dard*   gar ?in tekye bar ta?ate xiš kard

PT: For, *his heart bled* with *pain and regret,* while this one relied only on his devotion

ET: If the *liver of that became blood, through heart-burning and sorrow*, and if this one relied on his own devotion

In Persian culture, the term "*xun ĵegaršodan*" is used frequently as an idiom meaning "*to suffer problems*". It is not possible for the translator to present a word by word translation for most of the idioms are strictly culture-bound and this one is no exception. As we see, even the Persian translator failed to transfer the meaning of this idiom into English and this is because although he is acquainted with the culture of the source language, he is not well aware of that of the target one. As a result, he is consented with a literal translation. The point is that the literal translation given by the Persian translator has created a bizarre context which is not proper at all to convey the meaning to the English reader. The English translation is also unacceptable which is due to the unfamiliarity of the English translator with the

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[1] Phonetic Form

[2] Persian Translator

[3] English Translator

idiomatic expressions. This emphasizes the adherence of collocations to their related culture in addition to the importance of knowledge of idioms while translating a text of a culture distant from that of the translator.

?amre be ma?ruf va nahy ?az monkar

چو منکر بود پادشه را قدم   که یارد زد از امر معروف دم؟

PF: čo *monkar* bovad pâdešah râ qadam   ke y ârad zad ?az *?amre ma?ruf* dam?

PT: But when *indecency* is committed by the royalty, who will dare speak of *advising against awful deeds***?**

ET: When the foot of the prince is *wicked*, who is able to express a breath concerning the well-known *order?*

The collocation *"?amr-e be ma?ruf va nahye ?az monkar"* is originated from religious texts. Since it is not comprehensible to the English reader, both translators substitute a similar notion -more understandable to their readers- for that of the writer of the source text. In situations close to this one the translator considers transference of the gist of the writer's meaning as an adequate translation preferring it over a word by word translation. Despite the comprehensibility of the text translated, the delicacy of the poetry is lost in this technique. The reason is that collocating different words in a poem are done with considerable subtleties which are lost in translation.

Piš-o Pas

بسی گشت فریاد خوان پیش و پس   که ننشست بر انگبینش مگس

PF: Basi gašt faryâdxân *pišo pas*   ke nanšast bar ?angabinaš magas

PT: He kept on calling *here and there* for buyers, but not even a fly sat on his honey.

ET: Wandered much**,** *before and behind*, clamor-making, but, not a fly sate on his honey

As we see, two antonymous words came together to form this collocation implying *"in different places"*. Pazargadi has fully understood this and used a proper combination in the target language which is frequently used by the target readers hence understandable for and familiar to them.

The English translator not knowing what the combination means drew on a word for word translation which is neither adequate nor a proper instrument to transfer the meaning of the source text. Mostly, when there is a relation of synonymous, antonymous or hyponymous kind between the two words in a collocation, it is much difficult for the translator to deal with the meaning in the translation process specially, on the account that the two words are used successively with no space between them. In similar situations, when the two words of these kinds of collocations are separated, it is much easier to translate them.

Xoft-o Xiz

ز فریاد و نالیدن و خفت و خیز   گرفتند از او خلق راه گریز

PF: Ze fary âdo n âlidano *xofto xiz*   gereftand ?az ?u xalq r âhe goriz

PT: Because of his cries and moans and *his rise and fall***,** everyone took to his heels from him

ET: From his clamour, and lamenting, and *sleeping, and rising*, people took the path of flight from him.

This collocation is among those types which are rooted grammatically in verbs and due to the frequency of use, they have lost their primary meaning forming an idiomatic one instead. Pazargadi aware of the cultural maze of the source language has transferred it properly while Clark not knowing the idiomatic meaning of this collocation has contented himself with a word for word translation disregarding the idiomatic meaning of the collocation.

?as âye Kalim

عصای کلیم اند بسیار خوار   به ظاهر چنین زرد روی و نزار

PF*:* *?as âye kalim*and besyâr xâr   be zâher čonin zardryo nazâr

 PT: Like *Kalim's staff* they swallow profusely, though in appearance they are so pale and lean

ET: They are the *staff of Musa*, much-devouring, outwardly-so yellow of face, and emaciated.

The collocation in this verse is a Quranic one. So, the main point to have in mind in translating it is that understanding them needs Quranic knowledge and awareness of their historical background. In these cases, if the translator lacks awareness of the stories these collocations allude to, their efforts in translating them will possibly be unproductive. In the sentence above, the combination *"?as âye kalim"* will be understandable under the condition that the audience knows *"kalim"* is an appellation attributed to *"Prophet Moses"*. The English translator avoiding the difficulty which can be raised for his readers for not knowing this uses the name *"Moses"* instead of the word *"kalim"* while the Persian translator keeps the proper noun *"Kalim"* beside the miracle related to Moses (PBH) together implying the meaning known to the Persian speaker but not familiar for the English reader.

Gir-o D âr

نهیبی کز آن گیر و دار آمدش   گریز بوقت اختیار آمدش

PF: Nahibi kaz ?an *giro d âr* ?âmadaš   gorize bevaqt ?extiy âr ? âmadaš

PT: The fear caused by the shouts of catch thief, made him flee from there in time

ET: Through that *tumult*, fear came upon him, Flight, in season, became his choice

As we noticed earlier, one of the troubles that the translator faces when translating collocations, is related to those collocations originated from the verbs of the language. These terms prevent the translator from presenting a word for word translation. *"gir-o d âr"* means idiomatically *"in that situation"* which refers to the one in which a person was shouting. The translator explained the situation instead of using one single word or a similar group of words corresponding with the collocation in the source text.

Clark, on the other hand, brought one single word "*tumult*" which seems an acceptable referent for the reader to understand the collocation. Therefore, it functions better than the descriptive terms given by the Persian translator supporting the conciseness which is one of the major features of Sa'di's poems.

Donya va ?oqbâ

بزرگی که خود را ز خردان شمرد   به دنیا و عقبی بزرگی ببرد

PF: Bozorgi ke xod râ ze xordân šemord   be *donyâo ?oqbâ*bozorgi bebord

PT: A great one who thought himself little, would win greatness in *this world and the next*

ET: The great one, who reckoned himself among the small folk, carried a way greatness *in this and in the future world.*

In this collocation, the word "*donyâ*" refers to this world and "*?oqbâ*' refers to the other world or the life after death. It is supposed that the English readers are in one way or another familiar with the notion of life after death and a literal translation will be sufficient to transfer the meaning. But the two translators fail to notice that the terms "*the next world*" and "*the future world*" lacks the meaning component of the life which comes after death. This improper equivalence restrains the meaning and causes ambiguity and suspension of the meaning. The poet's purpose was to mention that such a person he describes is a loser even after his death.

Baytolharâm

بدو گفت سالار بیت الحرام   که ای حامل وحی برتر خرام

PF: Bedu goft sâlâre *baytolharâm*   ke ?ey hâmele vahye bartar xarâm

PT: The lord of *Baytool-Haram* told Gabril: O carrier of revelation, step nearer

ET: The chief of *the sacred house (of the Kaba)* spoke to him, saying: "Oh, bearer of the Divine Revelation! Move proudly higher"

The point worth mentioning about the difference between the two translators is that since the English one is sure his audience has very little knowledge about the terms related to Islam, he preferred to use the more familiar term "*Kaba*" instead of "*Baytool-Haram*" conveying the meaning in the best possible way. Pazargadi, on the other hand, overlooked the fact that his audience lack information about Islamic terms and inattentively used the same word as a proper noun. This technique makes the sentence unclear and difficult to understand.

Hu:r-o Pari

دو پاکیزه پیکر چو حور و پری   چو خورشید و ماه از سدیگر بری

PF: Do pâkize peikar čo *hu:ro pari*   čo xoršido mâh ?az sodigar bari

PT: They were as handsome and elegant as *nymphs and fairies*, and as glittering as the sun and moon, and superior to others

ET: Two pure forms like **"hu:r" and "pari"**, like the *sun and moon*, free from a third likeness

Contrary to the previous one, we see that in translating this collocation each translator has taken totally different approaches. The Persian one aware of the meaning of the words "*hur*" and "*pari*" substitutes them with the words with a close meaning in English language which are familiar to the readers. While it seems that Clark could not understand the meaning of the words and considered the two words as proper nouns and consequently transliterated them into English to overcome the obstacle. This is another approach that a translator may adopt when he is not able to get the meaning and as a result, free translation becomes difficult.

Lahv va la?ab

مرا دستگاه جوانی برفت   به لهو و لعب زندگانی برفت

PF: Marâ dastgâhe jâvâni beraft   be *lahvo la?ab* zendegâni beraft

PT: I have lost the glory of my youth and wasted my life in *worldly amusements*

ET: The recourses of my youth have passed, life in *play and pastime* passed

The collocation "*lahv-o la?ab*" is an Arabic combination. Understanding derived words requires a precise inspection carried out on the roots of the words. In Persian language, this collocation refers to fun and entertainment in a way that busies the person with trivial thoughts. Pazargadi has translated it into "*worldly amusement*". The adverb "*worldly*" is a proper descriptive term. The English translator could not get the implication of the term and consequently, translated each word separately resulting in a word for word translation which lacks some of the meaning components of the original collocation.

Xâs-o ?âm

ملازم به دلداری خاص و عام   ثناگوی حق بامدادان و شام

PF: Molâzem be deldâriye *xâso ?âm*   sanâguye haq bâmdâdâno šâm

PT: He was in constant sympathy with *high and low,* and praised God *mornings and evenings*.

ET: Assiduous in the consolation *of high and low*, a praise-utterer of God, *morning and evening*

This collocation refers to the two different social states; the high social class and the low one. Together the two imply the whole people of all social classes. The Persian translator understood the meaning but his efforts in transferring it into English was a failure. The English translator probably could not understand the meaning of the combination. Since both translators could not find a suitable substitution for the source term, they decided to use the words "*high*" and "*low*" to indicate the different social classes. Thus, we see that when translators are not able to find appropriate terms to transfer the meaning of the source text terms, they draw on the term which has the nearest meaning to the source term.

V. CONCLUSION

Regarding the subject of collocations and their importance in translation, the translator should take heed of some features of that collocation such as the constituents, the allusions behind them and the cultural implications transferred through collocations in translation of literary works when confronting a collocation. By investigating Sa'di's major work "Bustan" or as the west knows it "The Orchard", the abundance of collocations with a cultural or religious background in his poetry which he took advantage of to add to the delicacy and conciseness of his verse were observed. Through comparing two of the translations of his poems, the authors came to an understanding of the strategies employed by the two translators one Persian with a collocational information of the SL and the other an English speaker aware of the complexities of the TL and the target readers' culture. The aim was to find the different strategies they used and the merits and faults of each strategy. Through analysis of the selected collocations, the authors came to notice that although both of these types of information from the source culture and the target one are important, the translator should not fail to keep in mind the context of collocation as well as the cultural and religious differences between the two languages.

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Cognitive Context's Role in Discourse Interpretation

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Abstract—One of the main functions of language is to convey meaning between human beings, so how to use and interpret language appropriately is very important in communication. According to the dynamic study of context, firstly, this thesis discusses how language users actively manipulate aspects of context and produce favourable context to attain their communicative goals. It concentrates on the relations between cognitive context strucrization factors and discourse production. As different individuals in the society, such different factors as different cognitive ability, different educational and cultural backgrounds and different experiences in the social life will affect individual's cognitive context and discourse interpretation.

Index Terms—Relevance Theory, cognitive context, discourse, interpretation, optimal relevance

I. INTRODUCTION

Since Grice's theory about implicature was put forward, pragmatic inference and the interpretation of discourse has been the focus of the linguistic research. Many Linguists (Grice, 1975; Lewis, 1979; Searle, 1975etc) analyzed the relations between signals and the use of the signals from different angles. They held identical views that the relations between the information and intention of the signals were inference-based supra-signal relations. (Xiong Xueliang, 1999) Since the 1980s, Sperber and Wilson have begun to make some researches on the relations between language and signals from cognitive angle. Sperber and Wilson indicate that the traditional encoding-decoding process is attached to the cognitive-inferential process. In communication, by ostensive behaviors, the speaker makes his informative and communicative intentions manifest to the hearer and provide necessary evidences for him to infer from; according to the speaker's ostensive behaviors, the hearer infers from these evidences in order to search for the relevance. It is called optimal relevance that the utterance will have adequate contextual effects for the minimum necessary processing effort. Communication can be achieved because people unconsciously obey the principle of relevance when communicating … Every act of ostensive communication communicates the presumption of its own optimal relevance" (Sperber & Wilson; 1995)

In the process of communication, linguistic signals just provide the direction of achieving the information, help produce some similarities between the mental representations of the addressors and addressees, thus communicative effects can be achieved. Both the linguistic form of the discourse and the factors of context can influence the understanding of the discourse. Understanding of the discourse is a dynamic process. Under the influence of the dynamic context, a same discourse may have several different interpretations. How can the addressee choose the adequate one among them? Sperber and Wilson hold that it is the principle of relevance that guides the communication of human being. The addressor will use the inferential system, connect the literal meaning of the discourse with the possible implications and contextual assumptions, to find the innate connections between the discourses, or the optimal relevant explanations.

From the addressee's point of view, communication is an inferential process. The addressees always assume that the discourse is relevant to the existing communicative situation; its implications can be inferred by connecting the manifested information (discourse) with contextual assumptions. This chapter will have a discussion on how cognitive context influence the discourse interpretation.

II. DISCOURSE INTERPRETATION WITH CHOOSING AND CONSTRUCTING COGNITIVE CONTEXT

A. The Addressor's Restriction on the Cognitive Context and Discourse Interpretation

van Dijk (1975) thought that discourse could not be considered as an isolated and abstract linguistic variants we should connect that context if we want to have an overall description for it. Crystal (1991) claims that context includes the linguistic and non-linguistic background of a discourse. Within the framework of relevance theory, context is a set of assumptions that include the concrete content of the cognitive environment on the spot and the mutual-manifest or their own background knowledge. These assumptions can contribute to the understanding of the discourse. Sperber and Wilson claim that the principle of relevance can affect people's identification of the proposition forms, that is to say, the addressee will understand the discourse in the way of searching for relevance. In the process of communication, the addressor hopes the addressee to understand the discourse correctly. If an utterance can be comprehended into different

explanations, the addressor will use different means (linguistic or non-linguistic) to constrain the contextual assumptions the addressee will choose. In other words, he will show the direction of interpreting his communicative intentions. There is a mutual linkage between linguistic structure and pragmatic interpretation and no need for any special pragmatic conventions or interpretation rules; the speaker merely adopts her utterance to the way the hearer is going to process it anyhow, given the existing, structural and temporal constraints.

First, We will shed light on how the addressor adopts linguistic means to help the addressee understand his communicative intention. For example:

(1) A: Do you remember John, the headmaster of our school? He is the mayor of this city now!
   B: Really?

In this example, both the addressor and the addressee know a lot of "John"s. The addressor uses "the headmaster of our school" to constrain "John" and the addressee's choice of cognitive context thereby. The more explicit of the discourse the stronger the addressee will be constrained in choosing cognitive assumptions in the communication. By constraining the addressee's cognitive context, the addressee will be easy to achieve the addressor's communicative intention with least efforts. Here is another example:

(2) Xiao Li comes again.

In this example, the word "again" constrains that Xiao Li is the one who left just now and not other people named by Xiao Li. Blakemore (1987) puts forward the semantic constraints on relevance, that is to indicate the illocutionary force through analyzing some modal indicators, discourse particles or discourse connectives. These linguistic means restrict the addressee's choices of the cognitive context. For example:

(3) A: Mary did not cook yesterday.
   B: Tom was at home.

If there are not any constraints on the utterance B, the relevance of B has multiple directions. Every proposition or manifest communicative behaviour should assume its own optimal relevance. (Sperber and Wilson, 1995)The communicative intention will be realized successfully if the addressor uses the linguistic means to restrict the direction of relevance. For example:

(4) A: Mary did not cook yesterday.
   B: I. Because John was not at home.
      II. After all, John was not at home.
      III. You see John was not at home.
      IV. So John was not at home.

According to different constraints of the linguistic means, the addressee will understand the addressor's different communicative intentions respectively

In addition, the addressor can also use the non-linguistic means to restrict the scope of cognitive context among which the addressee will choose. The non-linguistic means include: gesture, facial expressions, intonation and the like, by which the addressee can understand the addressor's communicative intention without misunderstanding. For example:

(5) "Fire!"

This simple discourse has different meanings in different situations. If "fire" is said in a low and leisure intonation, the addressee will understand that he wants to ask for help to light a cigarette. On the contrary, the addressee will understand that somewhere is caught fire if "fire" is said in a high and anxious intonation.

(6) What time is it?

If this utterance is uttered in the declarative intonation, the addressor's communicative intention is to inquire time. If the addressor asks the question and refers to the clock at the same time, the utterance involves the meaning of approaching and reminding. If the speed of the speech is very high, it seems that the addressor is busy. If the speed is low, the addressor is leisurely and so on. In the process of communication, the addressor may use various kinds of non-linguistic means to restrict the addressee's choosing of cognitive context and make his communicative intention more explicit at the same time.

B. Principle of Lever

Within the framework of relevance theory, cognitive context includes the information stored in the long-term memory or short-term memory, encyclopedic knowledge, the situational information and so on. The information does not form a single context, but a set of contextual assumptions. In the process of understanding the discourse, it is impossible for the addressee to select all of the assumptions for understanding the discourse. He tries to select some appropriate ones to understand the discourse with least effort as possible as he can and achieve the contextual effect. Resources have to be allocated to the processing of information which is likely to bring about the greatest contribution to the general cognitive goals at the smallest processing cost.

If the addressee selects the unsuitable context, he can't understand the discourse correctly no matter how many efforts he takes. The mismatch between the context envisaged by the speaker and the one actually used by the hearer may result in a misunderstanding.

From the relevance theoretic point of view, communication is an ostensive-inferential process. To the addressor, communication is a process of manifest, he should show his communicative information to the addressee as manifest as

he can. To the addressee, communication is a process of inference; he will combine the manifest behaviour and contextual assumptions to achieve the contextual effect. We can use the lever to show this process.

The addressor's manifest information

■ _____the addressee's effort

（fulcrum） △ the selected cognitive context

(Figure 1)
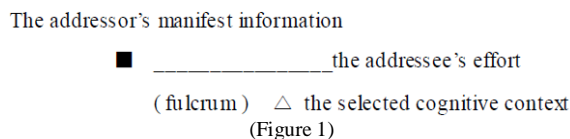
In this picture, the left square shape is the manifest information. The fulcrum is the cognitive context selected by the addressee. The closer the selected cognitive context to the addressor's cognitive assumptions about the discourse when he produces it the least effort the addressee will take. The balance of the lever shows that the addressee understands the communicative intention of the addressor. In the communication, the addressee will evaluate the information the addressor wants to transform then selects the appropriate cognitive context and achieve the biggest contextual effect. Other things being equal, the least effort the addressee takes the more relevant the discourse is and vice versa. Other things being equal, the least effort the addressee takes the bigger the contextual effect the discourse is and conversely. A speaker who intends an utterance to be interpreted in a particular way must also expect that the hearer to be able to supply a context which allows that interpretation to be recovered.

For example:

(7) A: What time is it?

    B: Mr Li has come back.

In this example, what B wants to transform is not just the literal meaning of the sentence. We assume that:

i. A should go to have a meeting with Mr Li. Mr Li has come back. Obviously, B has been late for the meeting. B's answer has something of deriding.

ii. Mr Li always comes back at six, then B's answer means that it has past six.

In this process of understanding, A should looks for the appropriate position for the fulcrum to achieve the balance between the manifest and receiving with least efforts as possible as he can. Since any two people are sure to share at least a few assumptions about the world, they should use these similar assumptions.

C. The Principle of Resonance

Human being tends to achieve the biggest effect with least effort. This is a natural tendency. In the framework of relevance theory, the understanding of discourses also follows the principle of least effort. As the understanding process involves the selective attention, the addressee will select the more relevant contextual assumptions to understand the discourse. Comparatively speaking, selecting this kind of context will need less effort.

Relevance Theory is based on the definition of relevance and two principles of relevance we have mentioned before. In the process of communication, different experiences in life and different knowledge structure will influence the cognitive mental state. Owing to different cognitive ability, different people construct different mental representations and cognitive environment. A same discourse may be interpreted from different ways. When the addressor produces a discourse, he will have an expectation for relevance, the addressee will construct and choose a set of assumptions and search for the appropriate one to arouse sympathy with the addressor's communicative intention and the choice is spontaneous and virtually unconscious. That is to say, the addressee has a tacit understanding of the communicative intention of the addressor unconsciously.

The two prerequisites for this principle: i. the scope of the addressee's knowledge is close to the addressor's. ii. the addressee's cognitive ability is similar to the addressor's. For example: A, B, C and D are colleagues, they know different Xiao Wang respectively. B's friend is also Xiao Wang by name and always comes to their office recently. One day, A comes into the office from outside and said: "Xiao Wang is coming." In this case, they will consider that this Xiao Wang is B's boyfriend and not other Xiao Wang they know. Otherwise, they will think he is other Xiao Wang they are familiar. When communication is unproblematic, the hearer just take for granted that the speaker has an adequate appreciation of what would be relevant to him; when problem arises, the hear should try to find out under what mistaken image of him the speaker could have thought that her utterance would be optimally relevant. (1995)

III. COGNITIVE CONTEXT AND DISAMBIGUATION

As we have mentioned before, relevance theory considers that human beings' interpretation of discourse is based on the principle of relevance. Which one will the hearer choose among the several possible interpretations of an utterance in the verbal communication? Wilson (1994) claims that:

"In disambiguation, the first interpretation consistent with the principle of relevance is the only interpretation consistent with the principle of relevance: all other interpretations are disallowed."

That is to say the hearer is inclined to choose the kind of interpretation that can produce sufficient contextual effect while demanding the most economical effort. During the process of interpreting utterances, the hearer will search for the appropriate contextual assumptions to understand the utterance and such an interpretation will need least effort at the same time. Throughout the comprehension process, context formation is open to choices and revisions for

understanding the discourse correctly.

Look at the following example:

(8) John cooked…

These two words have multiple levels of representation. For example, "John" is a noun, and it takes no argument. Besides, the word "cooked" is ambiguous. The word "cooked" could be either a verb in past tense or a past participle. It could be used as passive or active, etc. For example:

(9) a. John cooked a meal.

(9) b. John who has been cooked.

The processing of the string "John cooked…." can be viewed as simultaneously selecting appropriate assumptions from the cognitive context to satisfy multiple levels of representations. Suppose that the conversation is about a person who is a skilled cook or an industrious husband, the hearer will interpret that he cooked a meal. Conversely, on condition that this utterance occurs in the famous cartoon Chicken Run, a chick named by John, accordingly it will be interpreted the other way, because all the assumptions in the hearer's cognitive context are the chicken that are fighting for freedom in spite of facing with the fortune of being cooked.

Look at another example:

(10) I saw the students reading in the classroom.

This is ambiguous utterance. The hearer can interpret it from two different ways and achieve two different possible interpretations.

(11)a. I was in the classroom saw the students reading.

(11)b. I saw the students who were in the classroom reading.

Generally, the hearer will choose the second interpretation. Every assumption in cognitive context is not independent from each other, they are connected to construct structurization factors of cognitive context such as frame, schema, knowledge script and so on as we have noted above. People usually connect 'student' with the 'classroom 'because they belong to same chunk in their cognitive contexts.

Cognitive context's function in disambiguation can be further illustrated by the following example:

(12) The shooting of the hunters was terrible.

Obviously, the utterance has at least two interpretations:

(13)a. It was terrible that the hunters shot.

(13)b. It was terrible that the hunters were shot.

In normal circumstance, the only reasonable interpretation would be on the line of (13)a. How can this be explained? From experiences in the social life, human being achieves various kinds of knowledge and internalizes them in the brain to establish the encyclopedic knowledge. According to knowledge script in their cognitive context, they assume that hunter shoots animals. Choosing this interpretation should be more reasonable to him and need least effort in the processing interpretation.

IV. COGNITIVE CONTEXT AND INTERPRETATION OF IMPLICATION

As we have mentioned in Chapter Ⅱ, communicators have more than one way to transform a same message. According to different communicative situations, they will select adequate ways to organize their words either directly or indirectly. If an utterance is expressed directly, the hearer can interpret it correctly just by its linguistic meaning. Implication arises if the utterance is expressed indirectly. It is necessary for the hearer to go beyond the utterance's linguistic meaning in order to recover a proposition that yields adequate contextual effects. In interpreting the implications, the addressee will expand his/her cognitive context to achieve the contextual assumptions or contextual implications. In other word, the utterance will trigger an update of the hearer's cognitive context for interpreting the discourse. Implication is divided into implicated premise and implicated conclusion. Implicated premise is taken from the hearer's memory while implicated conclusion is deducted from the interaction of the grammatical meaning and the context of utterance.

For the same utterance, the hearer may infer quite a few implications that vary from one to another in their strength. He/she will not stop expanding his/her cognitive context until he/she achieve the adequate implications of the utterance. For example:

(14) A: Did I get invited to the conference?

    B: Your paper is too long.

In this example, B does not answer A's question directly, A can not achieve something relevant to his/her question just according to the linguistic properties of B's utterance. Then A will expand his/her cognitive context and achieve a set of assumptions about B's answer:

(15) a. B does not answer my question directly because he wants to show politeness. He wants me to feel better.

(15) b. If my paper is too long for the conference, I won't be invited.

(15) c. If I am not invited to the conference, there will be no papers on pragmatics at the conference.

(15) d. If there are no papers on pragmatics at the conference, Nigel will not attend.

    …

Among the implications, (15) d. is the weakest one which totally depends on the hearer's subjective conjecture, and

for which the speaker is not responsible. Generally speaking, A will stop expanding his/her cognitive context when he/she has achieved (15) a. and (15) b.. Additional efforts must be taken if he/she wants to achieve additional effects.

As we have noted. A speaker's decision to convey information implicitly rather than explicitly is governed by his assessment of the hearer's contextual resources. According to different ways of expression, the hearer supplies specific contextual assumptions and derives specific contextual effects. The hearer's interpretation is constrained by her/his assumption that the utterance is consistent with the principle of relevance. What varies is the degree of specificity of the speaker's expectations about the way that optimal relevance will be achieved, and hence, the degree of responsibility that he must take for the particular contextual assumptions made and the particular conclusions derived. (Blakemore 1992)

A speaker who does expect his utterance to be interpreted in a particular way must assume that the contextual assumptions required for the recovery of this interpretation are immediately accessible. For example:

(16) A: Where is John?
     B: There is a yellow Mercedes outside Jack's house.

If the communication is unproblematic, B knows that there is the assumption that Jack always drives a yellow Mercedes and can infer that John is in Jack's home. A can interpret B's utterance immediately and achieve more information than from direct ones.

(17) a. John and Jack are good friends and he often pays a visit to Jack.
(17) b. John is very rich for he has an expensive car.
(17) c. John is the kind of person who likes displays of wealth.

The indirect utterances can transform much more information than direct ones. Besides the meaning that the direct answer can transform, there are also rooms for hearer's further thinking. If there is no such an assumption that John always drives the yellow Mercedes, the communication is problematic. The hearer will be misled.

V. COGNITIVE CONTEXT AND INTERPRETATION OF METAPHORICAL AND IRONICAL UTTERANCES

Literalness is only one kind of expression ways. More often than not, the communicator adopts other ways such as metaphorical or ironical utterances to express their ideas. Traditionally, metaphor and irony are considered as two kinds of the rhetoric devices. From Grice's point of view, he considers that such kind of utterances violate the co-operative principles. However, Sperber and Wilson argue that metaphor and irony are not the result of violating some principles but loose uses of language.

Everything has its distinctive characters and these characters are internalized into human being's mind to construct some stereotypical assumptions and conceptualized to stand for certain meaning. All of the following examples are metaphorical utterances:

(18) The building is giraffe in this area. (The building is very high.)
(19) He is a fox. (He is very sly.)
(20) The room is a pigsty. (The room is very dirty.)

The speaker of metaphorical utterances must want to express something other than its literal meaning. When the thing is mentioned, the first meaning comes into the hearer's mind is the assumption about its distinctive characters. Moreover, the effort he/she takes in interpreting metaphorical and ironical utterances is less than in interpreting literal ones. For example:

(21) My neighbor is a dragon.

Most hearers will have immediate access to stereotypical assumptions about dragons (or about what people say about dragons) and achieve the following implications:

(22) a. The speaker's neighbor is fierce.
(22) b. The speaker's neighbor is unfriendly.

There are other less idiosyncratic stereotypical assumptions such as a long tail about dragons. (21) will have another implication:

(22) c. The speaker's neighbor has a long tail.

Generally speaking, the speaker would not wish to endorse the implications yielded by such stereotypical assumptions unless that the speaker might be taken to have in mind an image of fierceness or unfriendliness which is beyond most people's experience, and the hearer is encouraged to explore a range of other contextual implications having to do with the nature of the neighbor's unfriendliness, the behavior that manifests it and perhaps the neighbor's appearance. (Blakemore 1992, p.163)

Obviously, these are weak implications compare with (22)a. and (22)b. The hearer will first select the strong ones. The weaker ones are by-products during the process of interpreting the main idea of the utterance.

Ironical utterance, as another kind of loose use of language called by Sperber and Wilson, transforms the meaning the opposite of what the sentence uttered literally means. The speaker could be regarded as having said one thing and means the opposite. How can the hearer/reader interpret it?

Living in society, people have some concepts about antonyms in their mind. According to the view of cognitive pragmatics, they are the constituents of the assumptions in cognitive context. The utterance that expresses the opposite meaning in a certain situation will attract more attention of the hearer, who will connect these assumptions with the

utterance to achieve a strong contextual effect than the literally expressing ways.

For example:

(23) 东京也无非是这样。上野的樱花烂熳的时节，望去确也象绯红的轻云，但花下也缺不了成群结队的"清国留学生"的速成班，头顶上盘着大辫子，顶得学生制帽的顶上高高耸起，形成一座富士山。也有解散辫子，盘得平的，除下帽来，油光可鉴，宛如小姑娘的发髻一般，还要将脖子扭几扭。实在标致极了。(鲁迅，藤野先生，1926)

In this passage, the writer first described the behavior of the students who were sent to Japan to study by the government of Qing Dynasty. At that time, china was invaded by many countries and at the edge of national doom. Obviously, the students' behavior was very ugly, but the author said that they were really 'biao zhi' (beautiful). Chinese word 'biao zhi' (beautiful) was used to describe the male Chinese students in Japan strengthens the ironical effect of the passage. With ironical expression, the speaker/reader conveys not only the factual information, but also his strong attitude to the students' incapable, stupid and ridiculous behavior and their indifferent attitude to their motherland. During the process of interpretation, the reader combines the assumptions about the students 'behavior and the background knowledge at that time with this surprising expression, a stronger contextual effect is constructed.

VI. CONCLUSION

Communication occurs between the participants, so it is a constant interactive process between them. In this interaction, the addressor produces various kinds of discourses in service of his social and communicative goals. The whole communication is context dependent. Thus, secondly and mainly, the thesis have some discussions on how cognitive context influences the discourse interpretation. In this chapter, the relations between relevance and coherence, the principles for the addressee's selecting and constructing cognitive context, disambiguation and interpretation of implication, metaphorical and ironical utterances are taken into consideration.

From the above analysis, we can see that cognitive context plays an important part in the development of pragmatic competence, which means appropriate interpretation and production on the basis of the knowledge of context. To be pragmatically competent, one should be capable of actively manipulating and choosing aspects of context not only to express appropriately but also to interpret meaning efficiently

To conclude, the study about how cognitive context influences the interpretation and production of the discourse can help people communicate successfully and improve their pragmatic competence to avoid pragmatic failures in the communication.

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The Application of Domestication and Foreignization Translation Strategies in English-Persian Translations of News Phrasal Verbs

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Abstract—Since we live in an increasingly globalized world, we are definitely more well-informed about the world happenings through various mediums of globalization such as internet, news agencies, news channels, etc. Here lies the important and remarkable role of translation as a medium of conveying messages and transferring information. If a news piece is translated problematically, it may have bad effects on people's thinking about a certain country or it may lead to misunderstanding and misjudgment. Therefore, to produce translations as properly as possible, especially in cultural and cross-cultural aspects of translation which are abundant in news texts, the translators need to apply effective translation strategies. Domestication and foreignization translation strategies are two important strategies of translation in rendering phrasal verbs in news from a source-text language to a culture-specific target-text one. The authors of this study have applied these strategies of translation to English-Persian phrasal verbs in news texts to investigate whether English-Persian translators tend to domesticate the news headlines or foreignize them. The news containing phrasal verbs was analyzed based on the ones from different news agencies and websites. First, some news containing phrasal verbs is analyzed, then the English translations were compared and contrasted. As the results of the study showed, English to Persian translators tend to apply the domestication strategy more frequently. It was concluded that since culture-specific terms and words are difficult to be understood in the target language, the translators mostly tend to localize or domesticate them. This research is helpful in journalistic translation studies, since it focuses on the important features of phrasal verbs as culture-specific and context-bound terms with respect to translation strategies.

Index Terms—translation, journalistic translation, news, phrasal verbs, domestication and foreignization translation strategies

I. Introduction

Translation activities in the media in general and in the press in particular are eagerly needed owing to the rapidity broadening of world-wide communication between the nations of the globe. Translation is likened to a bridge across language and culture barriers. In translating news, proper and high quality translation is essential and even crucial, since news is distinctive text types that belong to journalistic texts. Journalistic translation, mostly from English into different languages, is of eminent significance because it is regarded as a powerful force and a noticeable feature that penetrates various aspects of the target language press (Aal, 1994, p. 85).

The journalistic translator needs not only to have a wide knowledge of the subject matter, but also he/she has to be aware of the different implications and connotations of the cultural and political expressions used in the news phrasal verbs. News phrasal verbs make proficient use of figurative expressions that mirror the culture of a particular society and its ideologies, traditions and art. Since one the functions of news phrasal verbs is perhaps to quickly and briefly rivet the reader's attention, they contain such rhetorical figurative expressions i.e. culture-loaded words.

The deployment of different political words and expressions in the news texts makes their translation challengeable because the literal translation approach often results in foreignizing the expression, whereas the idiomatic method of translation results in the complete naturalness of the expression. In some cases, however, literal translation succeeds in rendering the cultural aspects of the foreign expression due to certain points of similarity between the source culture and the target culture.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

News phrasal verbs are considered to be of special value in the press; a value that should be taken into special consideration by translators. Their value stems from the fact that they help the translator get the right message across. Moreover, their style is extraordinary and characteristic because of the deft employment of figures of speech that change ordinary language style into a distinctive one.

News phrasal verbs pose a challenge for translators for their translation is most of the time involves problematic areas. The translator should have a rich cultural background of his own culture in the first and foremost place. He/she should also have to be aware of the socio-cultural features of the target text that is peculiar to a certain society. Disqualified translation of culture-specific news phrasal verbs results in misapprehension as to the content of a piece of news or serious misjudgments about someone or something. Misleading information due to poor translation could give a wrong idea or impression or even distort the receiver's image of a whole nation.

Translators then should make good use of different translation strategies in various cultural settings between diverse languages and cultures in the world. Cultural implications and connotations of rhetorical devices used in news headlines should be taken into special account by translators, as well. There is obviously an undeniable loss in rendering the image of a cultural source-text expression that should be avoided by translators in the process of translating which is a communicative cross-cultural activity whose ultimate aim is to achieve human interaction across language and culture boundaries.

A. Phrasal Verbs

Hori, Tabata and Kumamoto (2009) defined phrasal verbs as a combination of a preposition and a verb such as "put up". Quirk et.al (1985) refered to phrasal verbs as "idiomatic combinations which behave as a single unit". They differentiated such verbs from "free combinations in which the verb and the adverbs have distinct meanings" (p. 1152).

Hart (2009) contended that some phrasal verbs are not difficult to understand the ones such as sit down or come in, while some others are not easy to understand since they are idiomatic. "Idiomatic means that there is no way to know what the verb and particle mean together by knowing what the verb and particle mean separately. For example, every beginning-level student learns what the words *call, run, off* and *out* mean, but that does not help the student to know that *call off* means *cancel* or *run out* means *use all of something*" (p.vi). Being idiomatic has made phrasal verbs difficult to understand. They are used in everyday speaking or daily newspapers. Therefore, understanding their meanings and rendering them in a target language is a tough and delicate task.

B. Translating Phrasal Words

According to Newmark (1983) the mistranslation of phrasal words is the translators' unawareness of phrasal words "functions". They function as:

(a) Less formal (but sometimes neutral, as in 'go out) (b) less pompous (c) more forceful, than their non-phrasal equivalents. The particles of phrasal words are often intensifiers, emphasizing thoroughness or completion ('use up', 'sleep in', 'pick out')… English phrasal verbs show up semantic gaps in in most foreign languages, and therefore they are invaluable to a translator into English and frustrating to a translator from English… Potentially, phrasal verbs are either physical/behavioral ('put on clothes') or mental/emotional ('put on an air of'), and often have three or four additional meanings in both categories. ('put on' has nine.) They respond a popular social need for simple colloquial or informal language, and in a climate of more or less real democracy meet less prejudice say fifty years ago. (pp.30-31).

C. Culture and Translation

The process of translating involves two different languages which are the carriers of their respective cultures; therefore it is not only a process of transference between languages but also a communication between diverse cultures (Li and Xia 2010).

Nida (1964, p. 244) pointed out that "the larger cultural context is of utmost importance in understanding the meaning of any message; for words have meanings only in terms of the total cultural setting". Cultural gaps between the source and the target language have always been a considerable issue for translators to be aware of when they render literal and/or figurative meanings of words since those meanings have various connotations and implications in their different cultural settings. To translate is to compare cultures and language as a tool of translation is an intrinsic part of a culture (Nord 2001). Therefore, in order to reach a better intercultural communication, the translator's duty as a medium of cultural exchange has to be better fulfilled (Chen 2010).

Cultural issues in the translation of English news headlines such as the unique and deep connotations of the figurative expressions that are heavily used in headlines; i. e. culture-loaded words should be taken into careful consideration by the translator in order to make target readers appreciate exotic cultures and recognize the difference among the distinct cultures of the globe. It is worth mentioning here that the need for translation stems from the need to communicate. Therefore, if it were not for those cultural differences, translation as a social exchange process and a communication tool would not emerge and develop. Last but not least, as Li and Xia put it "The openness and permeability of culture has provided translatability for the translation" (p. 698).

1. The Functional Theory of Translation

Since translation is regarded as a kind of communicative behavior, different communicative functions may require different translation strategies. Nord (2001) went on saying that "if the purpose of translation is to keep the function of the text invariant, function markers often have to be adapted to target culture standards" (p.45). Nord defined the process of translation as a target-culture substitute, whose aim is to function for the sake of the target receiver, for a source-culture text. Therefore, within the framework of functionalism, translators should be aware of the relationship between the target text and its audience which is supposed to be similar to the one that exists between the original text and its readers. On the other hand, translators should consider the relationship between the two corresponding texts; i. e. the target text and the source text. In brief, as Nord (p. 39) believes that "translators should be guided by the function they want to achieve by means of their translation and be able to use the intended communicative function of the target text as a guideline."

In a similar vein, Nida (1964) made a clear-cut distinction between two types of equivalence in translation, namely formal and dynamic (or functional) as basic translation orientations. 'Formal equivalence' focuses on the ST structure, in other words, the faithfulness of the message itself, in both form and content. While, full naturalness of expression is achieved only by 'dynamic equivalence'. Therefore, "the message has to be tailored to the receptor's linguistic needs and cultural expectations" (Munday 2001, p. 42).

To achieve such complete naturalness of expression, Nida (1964a, pp. 167-8) went on to say that adaptations of grammar, of lexicon and of cultural references are essential. In his own perspective, the ST language should not interfere with the TT language; and this is done by minimizing the foreignness of the ST setting. (pp.167-8) Producing a similar response is the basis of Nida's 'the principle of equivalent effect'. It is in fact one of the four basic requirements that Nida stressed in his theory of dynamic equivalence, according to which, he considers the receivers of the TT along with their cultural expectations as key factors in any successful translation process (Munday 2001).

2. Domestication and Foreignization Theory

"Domestication and foreignization are two basic translation strategies which provide both linguistic and cultural guidance" (Yang 2010, p.1) for translators in rendering culture-specific source texts into parallel target texts. Domestication is the type of translation which involves minimizing the source-text foreign elements to the target-language cultural values (Munday 2001). Foreignization, on the other extreme, involves retaining the foreigness of the original-language text (Shuttleworth & Cowie, 1997). In Venuti's perspective, the foreign elements should be highlighted by the translator to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text (Venuti 1995). Whereas Nida, who is regarded as the representative of those who favor domestication, sees domestication as the strategy that seeks to achieve complete naturalness of the expression by means of 'dynamic equivalence'. Therefore, "the message has to be tailored to the receptor's linguistic needs and cultural expectations" (Munday 2001, p. 42).

The debate over domestication and its extreme method of foreignization has strongly influenced by and later developed from the time-worn controversy over literal and free translation methods (Dongfeng 2002). Literal and liberal translations are two techniques adopted to tackle the linguistic form, whereas domestication and foreignization transcend linguistic boundaries. They are more concerned with the two cultures. The former replaces the source culture with the target culture and the latter preserves the differences in both linguistic presentation and cultural connotation of the source culture (Yang, 2010).

Domestication and foreignization came out to answer the question of how to bridge the gulf that had grown between the writer of the source-text which is written in a language that is very culture-bound and the target-text writer (Munday, 2001) Therefore, the time-worn debate has moved beyond the limits of word-for-word and sense-for-sense to a reader-oriented translation versus a writer-oriented one (Schleiermacher, 1813/1992 quoted in Munday, 2001) In order to achieve the reader-oriented translation strategy, the translator should adopt a 'naturalizing' method of translation. The translator, on the other hand, should apply an 'alienating' translation method if he/she seeks to achieve the writer-oriented strategy (Venuti, 2001).

3. Nida's Formal and Dynamic Theory of Equivalence in Translation

As a Bible translator advocating Christianity, Nida (1964) made a major contribution to the science of translation and translating religious texts. Nida's theory of equivalence was a reform in the world of translation studies. Nida proposed two basic types of equivalence: 1) formal equivalence and 2) dynamic equivalence. "Formal equivalence focuses attention on the message itself, in both form and content ...." (p.159). The one that is concerned with the message in the receptor language should match as closely as possible the different elements in the source language (Nida, 1964 as cited in Munday).

Therefore, it can be concluded that formal equivalence is intensely based on the source language text structure which plays a key role in determining accuracy and correctness in translation. The use of scholarly footnotes to let students gain close access to the language and customs of the source culture is of marked characteristics of formal equivalence (Munday, 2001).

In formal-equivalence based type of translation, the choice of correspondences are as "poetry to poetry, sentence to sentence and concept to concept". Based on this formal orientation, the message in the receptor language should match closely different elements in the source language text. It means that the criterion of determining the accuracy and correctness of translation is comparing the message in the receptor culture with the same in the source culture. Such a formal kind of translation, which "typifies the structural equivalence", is called "gloss translation". "A gloss translation

of this type is designed to permit the reader to identify himself as fully as possible with a person in the source-language context, and to understand as much as he can of the customs, manner of thought , and means of expression " (Hatim and Munday, 2004, p.167).

In contrast, a translation which is based on dynamic equivalence is the one attempting to produce a dynamic rather a formal equivalence. Such a translation is mainly based on the equivalent effect principle. This kind of translation is not concerned with matching the message in the source language to the message in the target language, but is to produce exactly the same effect on the receptor language reader. Nida (1964) stressed that "the relationship the receptor and message should be substantially the same as that which existed between the original receptors and the message. Dynamic equivalence is the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message" (p.159).

To Nida (1964), a dynamic-equivalence based type of translation is that which does not sound foreign to the reader and is quite natural to him/her. He maintained that the translation is successful while the equivalent response is achieved, and to achieve equivalent response, correspondence in meaning must have priority over correspondence in style (Munday, 2001). The most outstanding contribution of Nida (1964) to translation was that by introducing formal and dynamic equivalence, he moved toward the reader, i.e. his approach to translation was receptor-based.

D. News Translation

As one of the text types and genres of translation, news translation has got its own specifications. According to Chesterman (2000), there are two significant specifications or as he calls 'constrains' in translating news. They are 'time and deadline and a multitude of issues'. "In order to cope with these two main constraints, the translator of the text for the news media must have efficient methods of information retrieval, must be able to solve comprehension and translation problems quickly, must be capable of making fast decisions, and must have efficient translation strategies" (pp. 109-110).

Gambier (2006) believed that there are three important issues mirroring in translating news, since these features are indispensable features of news texts per se. They are as 'A call for new research topics, Hyperbole and understatement and Framing'. Gambier explains these three features as:

Topics such as gay marriage in Spain, abuse of women and children and divorce in the Republic of Ireland, contraception and abortion in Poland, etc., are important, not only to understand the socio-cultural shifts in the systems of values and ideals in these countries concerning gender, sexuality, new female and male bodily identities, but also to uncover how the foreign press reports and articulates these changes with its own values and ideals, with its own linguistic representation and its own categorisation, how newspapers perform their public opinion elsewhere? Was it because hyperbole is not used with the same frequency and was translated literally that in many places Bush's statements were taken as false, considered as exaggerations or simply lies, or not credible? (pp.9-11)

To explain the second factor, Gambier posited that hyperbole and understatement are two linguistic and ideological factors related to translating press since they are two tools of 'manipulation'. As a 'rhetorical device', hyperbole is "used to highlight, intensify, and amplify selected elements of the image of reality, seems to be extremely pervasive in communication of any kind. It is traditionally associated with literature but it can in fact be present in most types of linguistic activity, from everyday interactions to carefully designed political propaganda" (p. 10). Gambier stated that both hyperbole and understatement are mostly literary devices that affect the readers' perceptions and the reality, and are used differently in different cultures.

As for the third factor, frame, Gambier mentioned that by frame, it is meant that "the media provide frames of reference, or highly stereotyped representations of specific situations, to make the event accessible to the public. And they shape other kinds of frames – the ones that the audience, the individuals use when interpreting information about events" (p. 11). The frame includes 'stereotypical scenarios, routines, and beliefs' which are based on 'expectations in a given social situation'.

Vyb ŕalov á(2012), maintained that the main features of journalistic translation are "limitations of time and space, the strive to produce readable texts, media's general tendency towards manipulation, and their by-products – textual modifications" (p. 18). Time and space constraints are two factors affecting the journalistic translation. Since journalistic texts live in a short period of time and should be broadcasted as soon as possible and there is a limitation in space for journalists and translators, , the translators have to be fast enough in rendering the source text into target text and they need to consider the apace limitations. Due to these constraints, to make good translations, translators may resort to making many 'modifications' such as shortening the long paragraphs and texts, skipping and deleting some words and sentences, or 'summarizing'(p19).

Another important feature of journalistic texts and consequently journalistic translation, is the text readability. As very crucial characteristics of newspapers and journals are attracting readers' attention and being readable as quick as possible, readability seems to be the favored and vital concept lying behind the act of translating (p. 19). Manipulation or any change in the meaning can also be another important factor in translating press. Vyb ŕalov á rendered manipulation as "distortion of meaning". "In fact, it could be argued that the first occurrence of manipulation starts with *the selection of material* to be translated; every day, there are a number of events and opinions presented in the source journal but only one or two will appear in the target media. But this is what happens in journalism in general as both source and target readership is the ―recipient of selected information only" (p. 20).

III. METHODOLOGY

The method followed in this study is descriptive and the researchers, after finding and analyzing the instances of phrasal verbs, examined the Persian translation of the related samples. It should be noted that all the analyzed data are basically applicable to the present sentence. Each phrasal verb is translated based on the sentence and context it is mentioned in. However, each of these phrasal verbs may have another meaning in another sentence and context. Through a descriptive method, the researchers attempted to describe and interpret the status of phenomena. Thus, this research is a comparative study of phrasal verbs in English news and its Persian translations. The translation strategies to be examined in the related samples are domestication and foreignization translation strategies. The researchers tried to find out whether the translated samples are domesticated or foreignized.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Here, the sample phrasal verb items are analyzed. These 10 items and their translations have been listed in a table comparatively. The translation strategy is also mentioned. The phrasal verbs are adapted from news websites such as http://press.blogfa.com,   www.amnesty.org,   www.huffingtonpost.com,   *www.en.wikipedia.org,* www.marketwatch.com, www.bellenews.com, *emonahansnewmexico.blogspot.com, http://richmondconfidential.org.*

The phrasal verbs and their respective translations are analyzed bellow:

1. Three Vietnamese bloggers **face up** to 20 years in jail simply for exercising their right to freedom of expression.
The phrasal verb is *face up* is foreignized in the target language as پذیرفتن یا کنارآمدن با

2. If someone wants to try and I **feel up to** it, I might even show them why I am right.
This phrasal verb, *feel up to*, is an instance of domestication in the target language. It is translated as حس و حال کاری داشتن

3. Presidential campaigns deceive political reporters all the time and often **get away with** it.
Get away with is domesticated in the Persian language and rendered as قسر در رفتن

4. Socialism did not **grow out of** the pipe.
رشد کردن cannot be an appropriate foreignized equivalent for *grow out of,* since in this sentence, socialism cannot grow in size.

5. *Their* wages would not **keep up with** higher prices.
Keep up with is rendered as کفاف دادن which can be regarded as a kind of domesticated equivalent in Persian.

6. And you **run into** the same kind of mediocrity that you encounter anywhere else in life.
This phrasal verb, *run into*, is domesticated in the Persian language. Therefore, it is rendered as برخورد کردن، مواجه شدن

7. Anderson Cooper admitted on Friday that CNN had **come across** the late Ambassador
تصادفی یافتن is the foreignized translation for the phrasal verb *come across.*

8. They will want to beef up their operations to **make up for** any slack.
Make up for is rendered as جبران کردن which is an instance of domestication.

9. Peaceful demonstrations **call for** political reform.
Based on the above sentence**,** *call for* is domesticated and translated as خواستار شدن

10. Cut down on salt, sugar and fat.
Cut down on is domesticated and rendered as کم کردن از

V. CONCLUSION

Among the above analyzed items, seven ones have been domesticated by the translators while just three items show the application of foreignization translation strategy. Both strategies investigated in this paper have their own supporters. "Domestication designates the type of translation in which a transparent, fluent style is adopted to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text for target language readers, while foreignization means a target text is produced which deliberately breaks target conventions by retaining something of the foreignness of the original" (Shuttleworth & Cowie 1997, p.59).

The different perspectives provided for or against domestication or foreignization translation strategies are various. Actually, both domestication and foreignization have their merits and demerits. Yang (2010) contends that readers can understand the translated meanings by domesticating translation. Foreignizing translation strategy keeps the source text "formal features and in turn informs the readers of the SL-culture, but alien cultural images and linguistic features may cause the information overload to the reader". Hence, both domestication and foreignization translation strategies involve losses which are unavoidable in translating.

As this paper proved, the translators tended to domesticate the phrasal verbs in news. Since phrasal verbs are mainly idiomatic phenomena and are consequently culture-specific, it may be claimed that domestication strategy could be more applicable to rendering such phenomena, as domestication strategy focuses more on the reader and target language text.

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A Study on the Learning Style Preferences with Different Academic Backgrounds—Taking Tujia EFL Learners as Examples[*]

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Abstract—The present study hopes to explore the learning style preferences with different academic backgrounds of Tujia EFL learners offer some suggestions for improving effectiveness of College English teaching in Tujia-Miao regions. The study adopts a multidimensional learning-styles instrument. The specific research questions involved in this study are as follows: 1. Do the learning styles of Tujia college students vary with literal arts and science and technology majors? (1) If they do, what are the contributing factors affecting their learning style preferences? 2. How can the distributions of learning styles affect the methods of Tujia EFL classroom teaching? The subjects of this study are 146 Tujia students from 6 different departments of Jishou University in in Tujia-Miao Autonomous Prefecture of Xiangxi. Both the quantitative and qualitative researches are applied in this study. The quantitative research indicates minority students from different academic backgrounds have various learning styles. The results of the qualitative study indicated that most of the Tujia students and their teachers know little about "learning styles" and some teachers thought the research of "Tujia EFL learners' learning styles" is useless. The significant inharmony between teachers' teaching styles and students' learning styles was also discovered.

Index Terms—Tujia EFL learners, learning style preferences, academic background

I. PRELUDE

The method has changed from teaching to learning in the English education for past years in Western countries has brought about the rise of learning styles research. A large number of studies have shown individual differences play an important role in second language acquisition. Learners' academic backgrounds have a direct relationship with their different learning styles (Oxford, Lavine, R.Z., & Crookall, D, 1989). The research concerning learning styles are fruitful at home and abroad, but the research regarding minority college students as their subjects are rare, the present research will have a try in this field where Tujia Enlish learners as its subjects.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Definitions of Terms

Many researchers have tried to define the terms of learning styles from different perspectives based on the different rationales: 1) Gregorc (1979) defined LS as "Teachers's teaching styles and learners' learning styles are virtually their own disposal of matters". 2) Keefe (1979) assumed that LS is "The composite of characteristic cognitive, affective, and physiological factors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment." 3) Schmeck (1983, cited Liufeng 2012) viewed learning style as a certain kind of method or strategy. Everybody's learning methods come from some particular strategies, which indicate his/her learning styles; 4) Scarcella (1990) defined LS as "cognitive and interactional patterns which affect the ways students perceive, remember and think; 5) the definition of Oxford (1990) is "The general approaches students use to learn a new subject or tackle a new problem or overall patterns that give general direction to learning behavior."

B. Categories of Learning Styles

Since the theory of learning styles was proposed, a large number of researchers clarify learning styles in different perspectives. Here are some of the most representative ones:

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1. Kolb's Classification

Kolb (1984b) described learning as a four-step process consisting of concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. (See figure 1.1)
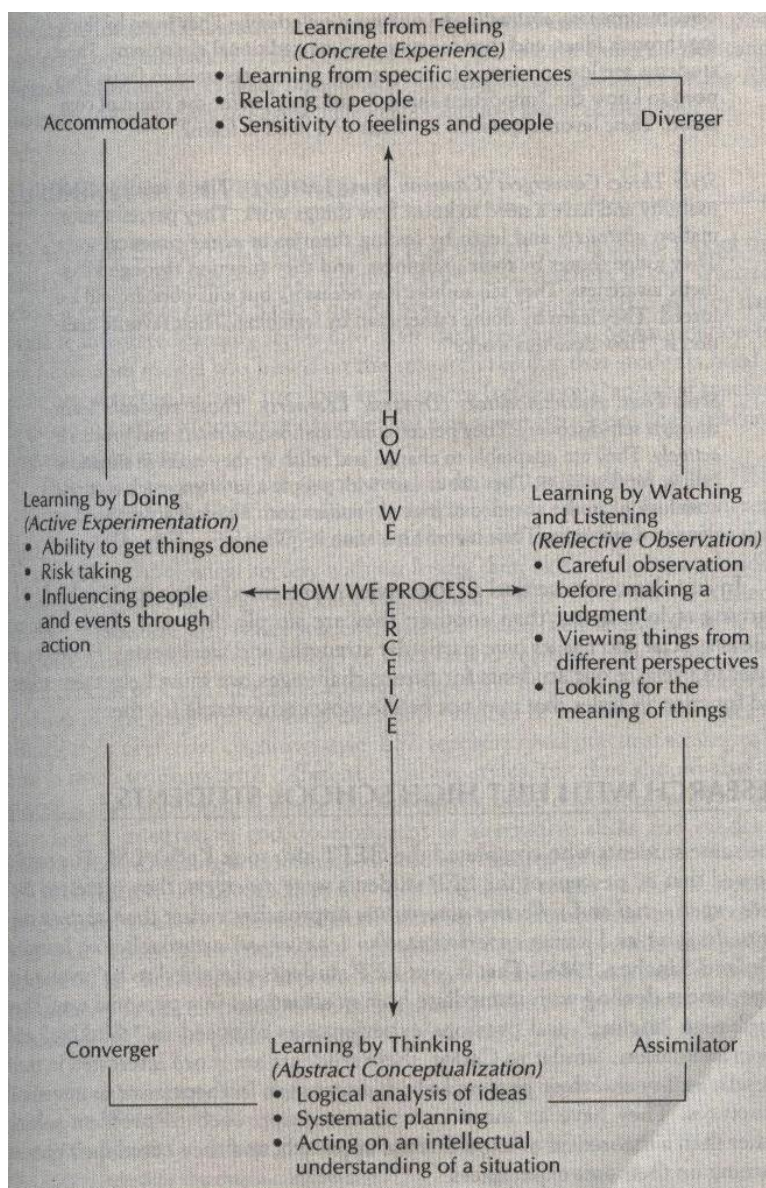
Figure 1 Kolb's Learning Cycle

Based on learners' preference to the four steps, Kolb divided learners into four types:

Diverger (Innovative Learner): Learns more effectively when she or he is able to perceive concretely and to process reflectively.

Assimilator (Analytical Learner): Learns more effectively when she or he is able to perceive abstractly and to process reflectively.

Converger (Common Sense Learner): Learns more effectively when she or he is able to perceive abstractly and to process actively.

Accommodator (Dynamic Learner): Learns more effectively when she or he is able to perceive concretely and to process actively.

Kolb's classification is particular useful because it follows the natural progression of the learning cycle:
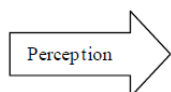
a. Students are motivated by getting involved through their *concrete experiences.*

b. They analyze their experiences through *reflective observation.*

> c. Students assimilate new concepts through *abstract
>   conceptualization*

Process →

> d. They practice their new material through *active
>   experimentation.*

Finally, the students personalize information and accommodate their newly acquired knowledge to higher level experiences.

McCarthy (1980) adapted Kolb's model, she described Kolb's four learning styles as follows:

Style One: Divergers (Innovative Learners). They are divergent thinkers who believe in their own experience. They are interested in people, culture and social interaction.

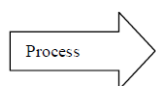Style Two: Assimilators (Analytical Learners). These learners are less interested in people and more interested in facts. They need to know the "important things" and they prefer the chain of command.

Style Three: Convergers (Common Sense Learners). They judge things by their usefulness, and they function through kinesthetic awareness. They learn by doing rather than by watching.

Style Four: Accommodators (Dynamic Learners). They are at ease with people and often reach accurate conclusions in the absence of logical justification. These learners tend to disregard authority.

III.   RESEARCH DESIGN

A.   Subjects

Subjects for the study involved 146 Tujia students from 6 departments of Jishou University. Among the 146 Tujia students, 75 are males and 71 are females. Another 4 teachers and 60 Tujia students from English Department also participate in the pre-test for instrument remedy.The details of the subjects are shown in Table1.

TABLE 1
DEPARTMENTS OF THE SUBJECTS

Department	Major	Frequency	percentage
Chinese	Chinese language and literature	25	17%
English	English language and literature	28	19%
Law and Politics	Law and Politics	28	19%
Medicine	Medicine	20	14%
Business Management	accountancy Financial	25	17%
PE	Physical Education	20	14%
Total		146	100%

B.   Instruments

A questionnaire adapted from the researchers for the study of students' learning style preferences in Xi'an Jiaotong University (Liu & Dai, 2003) will be used in the present study. Their learning styles questionnaire have relatively higher reliability and validity by improving for several researchers and experiments.

The interviews have 8 students and 5 teachers in it.

C.   Data Collection and Analysis

Data collection:

First step: The pre-test was conducted in the early December by using the original questionnaire. The subjects are 60 Tujia students. They will improve some points by filling the questionnaires.

Second step: The improved one was given to Tujia students on January 10, 2010. The questionnaires will be ended in 60 minutes. 7 days are used to finish the data collection and a total of 165 questionnaires were returned to the present researcher. After a careful examination, 19 questionnaires were excluded because the results having successive similar choices.

Third step: The interviews will be carried out every week, it will lase three weeks with about 45 minutes each.

Data analysis:

An One-Way ANOVA was carried out to find out whether the Tujia students with varied majors differ significantly in their learning styles.

IV.   RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Although statistical analysis did not provide as many significant differences as anticipated, the results seemed logically consistent (see Table 2). Generally speaking, reflective style is a major learning style preference and impulsive is negligible by Tujia students of almost all the majors. Table 3 further proved that reflective, individual-oriented and independent were major learning styles of Tujia students with different academic backgrounds. However, there are some

differences in learning styles among students from different academic background.

First, the random and dependent styles were selected as negligible styles only by students from Law and Politics Department. Second, analytical style was not welcomed by all Tujia students, except those students from Chinese Department who preferred to learn analytically. Third, impulsive style was selected as a negligible style by all Tujia students, except those of English Department who regarded it as a minor learning style.

TABLE 2
LEARNING STYLES MEANS IN DIFFERENT MAJORS

Learning Styles	Chinese	English	Law and Politic	Medicine	Business Management	PE
Visual	16.77	15.23	15.90	16.48	15.45	16.85
Auditory	14.94	14.00	14.85	13.76	15.25	14.90
Hand-on	16.81	16.40	17.50	16.55	17.24	17.55
dependent	15.48	16.00	13.00	15.90	15.16	15.23
Independent	17.23	17.75	18.02	18.05	18.20	16.65
Group-oriented	14.77	15.73	15.65	13.35	14.44	16.55
Individual-oriented	17.81	18.50	18.55	18.24	17.55	17.88
Analytical	15.71	14.23	14.18	14.88	13.50	13.12
Holistic	13.29	14.97	16.85	14.84	14.65	14.85
Random	16.50	15.33	14.15	14.92	15.50	15.05
Serialist	15.74	15.53	15.10	15.65	16.52	15.50
Impulsive	13.35	15.65	13.63	14.60	14.52	14.50
Reflective	18.74	17.65	18.30	18.03	17.32	17.70

A one-way ANOVA was carried out to determine whether the learning styles preferences of Tujia students vary significantly with their majors. (See Table 3) The results indicated that differences of learning style preferences in terms of different majors were significant for some learning style variables. For random style (F=4.750, p=0.000), it could be said safely that the differences of random style were extremely significant among the six majors. The dependent style was very significant among the six majors (F=4.416, p=0.002). For the analytical style (F=3.241, p=0.007) and holistic style (F=4.235, p=0.001), similar claims could be made. A Post-Hoc Test was carried out to compare the differences of the learning styles between every two departments, to find out where the significant differences happen and to verify the observational results.

TABLE 3
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR LEARNING STYLES DIFFERENCES AMONG SIX MAJORS

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean square	F	Sig
Visual	Between Groups	60.695	5	12.139	1.276	.278
	Within Groups	1332.326	140	9.517		
	Total	1393.021	145			
Auditory.	Between Groups	43.284	5	8.657	.971	.438
	Within Groups	1248.531	140	8.918		
	Total	1291.815	145			
Hand-on	Between Groups	33.365	5	6.673	.652	.661
	Within Groups	1433.292	140	10.238		
	Total	1466.658	145			
Independent	Between Groups	41.683	5	8.337	.767	.575
	Within Groups	1522.536	140	10.875		
	Total	1564.219	145			
Dependent	Between Groups	236.103	5	47.221	4.416	.002*
	Within Groups	1594.582	140	11.930		
	Total	1830.685	145			
Group	Between Groups	135.518	5	27.104	1.816	.113
	Within Groups	2089.496	140	14.925		
	Total	2225.014	145			
Individual	Between Groups	27.230	5	5.446	.609	.693
	Within Groups	1251.599	140	8.940		
	Total	1278.829	145			
Analytical	Between Groups	72.724	5	14.545	3.241	.007*
	Within Groups	1287.694	140	9.91		
	Total	1360.418	145			
Serialist	Between Groups	186.705	5	37.341	3.214	.129
	Within Groups	1626.774	140	11.620		
	Total	1813.479	145			
Random	Between Groups	120.268	5	24.054	4.750	.000*
	Within Groups	708.992	140	5.064		
	Total	829.260	145			
Impulsive	Between Groups	80.156	5	16.031	1.848	.107
	Within Groups	1214.453	140	8.675		
	Total	1294.610	145			
Holistic	Between Groups	156.054	5	31.211	4.325	.001*
	Within Groups	1010.364	140	7.217		
	Total	1166.418	145			
Reflective	Between Groups	21.629	5	4.326	.378	.863
	Within Groups	1602.981	140	11.450		
	Total	1624.610	145			

*p<.05 statistically meaningful

The results of the Post-Hoc Test did show that the major differences in four learning styles: They are dependent, analytical, holistic, and random just as observed earlier. For dependent style, the most significant difference (p=0.002) between English department and Law and Politics, followed by PE and Law & Political (p=0.0037), Chinese and Law and Political (p=0.008), Medicine and Law and Political (p=0.008). As to analytical style, significant difference was found between Chinese Department and Law & Political (p=0.003). For random style, significant differences were found between Chinese and English (p=0.021), Chinese and Management (p=0.002) and Chinese and Medicine (p=0.009).

On the whole, only four learning style preferences out of the 13 are significantly different among six majors:

The results showed that Tujia students from Law and Political Department preferred independent and holistic styles more than students from other departments and the random style was selected as negligible style only by them. This result may be related to the courses they take. As future lawyers and politicians, they should learn to work logically and independently. In this sense, it can be said the courses and training influence the learning style preferences. The finding also can be further proved by the students from Chinese Department who preferred analytical style more than those from other departments. Students from Chinese Department spend most of their time on Chinese language and literature. They have to analyze every single word when they are trying to appreciate the literary masterpieces, especially some poems from ancient times. Therefore, they are used to learning English analytically.

The results also indicated that students from Chinese Department were more oriented to random style than students from other departments, so the author tries to explain the finding in a possible way: Chinese Department is well-developed institute in Jishou University. Compared to the other departments, Chinese Department possesses more learning resources such as the relevant books or materials. Students can obtain a wider perspective by processing a large number of materials. Therefore, students from Chinese Department appreciate random style more.

Impulsive style was selected as a negligible style by all Tujia students, except those of English Department who regarded it as a minor learning style. This is an interesting finding and worth our attention though it is not statistically significant difference (F=1.848, p=0.107). The processes of learning in Tujia area have been greatly influenced by the traditional Chinese culture and Tujia culture. Their learning style is reflective. But the situation is a little different for English major. In addition to the features of English courses and learning, they absorb in the western culture. This makes them more open-minded and eager to express themselves than students from other departments.

<div style="text-align: center">V.   Implications for Instruction</div>

All the information generated about learning styles will be of little use to us as ESL instructors unless we can somehow apply it to the classroom and our way of teaching (Reid, 2002). The goals of this section are to examine some fundamental components of Tujia students' learning styles, then make practical suggestions for improving teaching effectiveness and trying to change the present embarrassing situation of English teaching in Jishou University.

A.   Establishing a Harmonious Relationship between Teachers and Tujia Students

Teachers-students relationship plays an important role in maximizing teaching and learning effectiveness. (Chen & Liu, 2005). For effective matching of learning and teaching styles in English classroom, teachers and students should work jointly to build up the cooperation. However, because of the different cultures and languages, most teachers and students have no communication either in class or after class.

It is vital for teachers and students to build up the cooperation. With such a harmonious atmosphere, teachers and students can know each other well including their learning styles. According to the educational psychology, learners will feel less anxiety in classroom when they have a good relationship with their teachers. In this way, they can study efficiently. If teachers expect Tujia students to get involved in learning, they should make their relationship with Tujia students more open and more relaxed.

On the one hand, teachers should win trust from the Tujia students. The harmonious relationship must be established on mutual trust. They have to understand Tujia culture, especially the different culture from Han. They should respect the Tujia customs when they are talking with Tujia students in daily life or in the classroom teaching. For example, teachers can learn a little Tujia dialects such as greetings and compliments.

On the other hand, teachers should create a friendly and supportive classroom. They should treat Tujia students as their friends, instead of acting like an authority. They should allow Tujia students to ask for some relevant information when some teachers come from developed regions of China.

B.   Developing the Awareness of the LS in Tujia EFL Learners

Although it is important that instructors in Tujia locations have a clear understanding of LS , it is also important for them to realize their own LS and to know the learning   strategies . A Knowledge of one's own learning style is fundamental in "learning to learn" (Kinsella,1994). Students with Tujia background will fail to gain successful language acquisition strategies, study methods without a full knowledge of LS. Most Tujia students will keep using improper learning methods, with no awareness of their own LS and their owe academic backgrounds. If teachers are willing to offer some suggestions of learning preferences, and then provide constructive feedback about the characteristic advantages and drawbacks, it is definitely to help Tujia students develop a more versatile approach to learning, not just in the EFL classroom but also in every subject across the curriculum and in many situations beyond school (Liufeng, 2012).

Administering Learning Style Assessment

Teachers must have means of helping Tujia students identify their learning preferences before the concept of learning style accommodation and development is going to have practical value for the EFL classroom. There are some assessment instruments and activities specially designed for L2 learners to understand their own learning styles such as the "activity worksheets" in Willing's (1989) *Teaching How to Learn.* Inventories such as Kinsella's (1993) Perceptual Learning Strengths Survey, Reid's (1984) Perceptual Learning style Preference Questionnaire and Rebecca L. Oxford(1993) Style Analysis Survey (SAS) or the instrument used in this study can additionally aid EFL students in identifying their learning strengths and sources of academic frustration.

Before the survey is administered, to prevent students from worrying about being labeled or having the "wrong" learning style, the teachers should stress the fact that no style is better than another, and that honesty in responding will produce more accurate and practical information about each learner's special characteristics. The instructors should spend adequate time going over the guidelines for the assessment instrument, then have the students complete each item or question one at a time as a unified class, clarifying any confusing items. By doing so can students be willingly involved into the assessment and more reliable questionnaires may be received.

The next step is for the teacher to organize a whole-class discussion of the results of style assessment. Students can easily tabulate their own results and enjoy the immediate gratification by using an inventory such as the Kinsella's Perceptual Learning Preferences Survey (1993). Then the students can compare similarities and differences in general findings or on specific items. The teacher also can organize a classroom activity of learning style discussion. For example, the teacher can write the different learning styles on the blackboard and ask students to choose the learning styles that they preferred. Seeing the great variety of learning styles in one class, students know some classmates also share similar instructional likes and dislikes as well as learning strengths and difficulties.

Furthermore, the teacher should tell students not to present learning styles in term of "good or bad", but in terms of its effectiveness in a particular context. Students who lack of confidence in their ability to learn in class may become more involved when the teacher emphasizes the attributes of all learning styles. They may also feel more connected to the classroom community and less solitary in their learning struggles when they find out that fellow classmates share challenges and frustrations in university.

Last but not least, teachers and students should use these instruments with caution. Teachers should explain to Tujia students that no instrument is perfect, that students and styles grow and change, and that the information got about learning styles must be used in the whole context of learning.

Developing Self-awareness of the Learning styles by Keeping Diaries

Considering that most of the Tujia students are individual-oriented, keeping diaries is an important way for them to understand their own learning styles. Something going on inside their minds can be reflected by keeping diaries. But this kind of diary is different from what they wrote before. Teachers should provide some guidelines about how to write and what to write. For example, students are asked to write how to deal with the problems they meet in English learning and what are their plans for learning English. The conclusions should be made every week based on their diaries.

C. *Implications for Gender-related Differences in EFL Classroom*

Based on the present study, only two significant differences of learning styles occurred among Tujia female students and male students: 1) the Tujia female students preferred visual style while Tujia male students preferred a little more on auditory style; 2) the Tujia female students were more individual-oriented than males. How should teachers react to these gender-related differences in EFL classroom?

Baumeister (1988:1094) pointed out "We can totally ignore observed gender differences, reporting any of these differences might perpetuate and legitimize them, thus continuing the unequal social treatment of women and men". Chipman (1988:47) claimed "We can downplay gender differences while reporting them, because many of these differences---though statistically significant---are small" However, if these differences are ignored, it will prevent us from understanding what is going on in front of us. These responses need to be rejected.

Teachers should look at gender differences from multiple angles and in greater depth. For examples, teachers should look not just at differences in overall means for males and females, but also at gender differences in the degree of variability within each group. Then gender-related differences should also be highlighted in the discussion (Oxford 1990a:45) For example, teachers and students, especially for Tujia female students should feel free to discuss these differences openly, bringing up any biological influences that might have helped create any contrasts between females and males such as the differences of visual and auditory styles. In addition, it is useful for teachers to emphasize what useful skills and attitudes that people of different styles can learn from each other, both across and within gender boundaries. Teachers should also improve their teaching methods to meet the needs of females and males in the classroom. In Tujia EFL classroom, female students and male students both are independent learners, so they should be treated equally. Teachers might also try using an imposed "wait time" that requires conversation dominating male students to reflect before responding; offering speeded games that giving female students lot of opportunities to speak.

The results of this study also can help teachers prepare a language learning environment that accommodates females and males alike. The classroom can be established as inclusive, welcoming everyone. Lively bulletin boards, some attractive ethnic cultural handiworks or wall decorations can send positive messages to all Tujia students.

D. *Expanding Students Learning Styles*

Using teaching strategies that are compatible with students' learning styles should not be the only approach to classroom instruction. Students need to build on the learning styles and strategies that they currently use and to expand new methods, especially for Tujia students, they need to learn how to compensate for the weaknesses of their styles and strategies in order to broaden the scope of their approaches to learning. As students grow older, in terms of academic achievement, those with mixed learning styles have a better chance of success than those with a single learning style because they can process information in different ways.

Unfortunately, in Tujia EFL classroom, even if the teachers could identify and remember each student's learning styles, they label students by their learning preferences and teach only to those preferences. While all students should have the chance to learn through their own learning styles, they also need to be open to the idea of "style flex" ---that is, students should be encouraged to diversify their style preferences (Friedman & Alley, 1984). Similarly, teachers must assess their own teaching styles and work toward "flexing" these styles.

For Tujia students, they are all reflective learners, therefore, they can be asked to speak more and fast. Individual-oriented is also their major learning style. They prefer to work on their own, study by themselves. The individual-oriented students can be persuaded to expand their strategies by role-playing familiar situation in order to develop their conversational and social skills. Hand-on learners can be encouraged to close their eyes, sit quietly, and visually imagine words or situations. Some visual learners who need to see new words written on the blackboard should be encouraged to pronounce and use the word before seeing them. At last, because most Tujia students regarded analytical style as a negligible style, teachers should encourage them to analyze the phrases and sentences in order to improve accuracy.

As levels of student language proficiency improve, changes in learning style preferences might be evidenced and should be accompanied by changes in strategy training (Reid, 1995). For example, as Tujia students become more proficient in using the written word, visual strategies might be introduced more frequently. As hand-on students develop more visual skills, increased training in visual strategies may expand their learning repertoire. In this way, the style-strategy relationship become a dynamic one and should be welcomed in the Tujia ESL classroom.

E. Taking Advantage of Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI)

In the reality of the classroom, it is impossible for teachers to take all of the students' learning style preferences into consideration all the time. Also, it is impossible to constantly remember how each student learns best. The CAI can be a good assistant. The CAI with a variety of learning modalities can meet the needs of different students and teachers can use CAI to enrich or supplement the basic instruction.

However, it is difficult to put the CAI into use in Tujia-Miao Autonomous Prefecture of Xiangxi because of a large amount of financial support is needed and the use of CAI requires teachers and students reach higher levels of the computer operation. But teachers can also make good use of limited network resource such as recommending useful English learning resources on the internet and communicating with students by e-mails.

F. Creating a "Student-Centered" EFL Classroom

In Jishou University, the conception of "student-centered" is widely promoted. Unfortunately, the results of interviews indicated that the "student-centered" classroom is not well-organized. What does "student-centered" mean? A "student-centered" classroom means more than allowing students to work in teams, to select their own reading and writing topics, or to participate regularly in lively class discussions. It also entails more than a "student-centered curriculum" with units reflecting the students' interests. Teachers who create a truly "student-centered" classroom understand and respect the diversity of learning style preferences within group and offer choices in how information and skills will be acquired. Reid (2002) pointed out that "A genuinely "student-centered" classroom is an educational environment that enables students to equitably develop their individual learning styles to meet the diverse demands of school and life with increased confidence and competence."

According to the results of the interviews, it can be concluded that most teachers and Tujia students know little about learning styles. They do not realize the importance of learning style preferences. Even the teachers' misconceptions of learning styles, they believe the only way to improve English proficiency of Tujia students is hard working , instead of matching teaching styles to learning style preferences. As a result, some teachers will never pay enough attention to their instructions and their students; this may be one of the reasons for the low efficiency of Tujia EFL teaching and learning.

Based on the qualitative study and quantitative study, the author offered some suggestions for instruction in Tujia EFL classroom: 1. Establishing a harmonious relationship between teachers and Tujia students. 2. Developing self-awareness of the learning styles. 3. Linking learning styles and learning strategies in the EFL classroom. 4. Expanding students' learning styles. 5. Implications for gender-related differences in EFL classroom. 6. Taking advantage of Computer Assisted Instruction (CAI). 7. Creating a "student-centered" EFL classroom.

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Investigating the Role of L2 Language Proficiency in Word Association Behavior of L2 Learners: A Case of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—In the last few decades word association research has provided precise insight into the development and organization of the mental lexicon; however, there is still sufficient ground for more exploration to gain a better understanding of how L2 learners' mental lexicon might be organized and how word association behavior may vary according to L2 proficiency level. This paper was intended to investigate the development of mental lexicon through a psycholinguistic experiment and more specifically, to explore the possible role L2 language proficiency may have in word association behaviors of Iranian EFL learners. To this end, a standardized English placement test (OPT) and a word association test were administered to 120 undergraduate EFL learners. The elicited responses were classified based on Peppard's (2007) model and then analyzed in terms of the frequency of each type of word association. The results indicated that upper intermediate students' responses were significantly more frequent than beginners' responses in the categories of "Synonymy" and "Hypernymy and Hyponymy" which are paradigmatic relations and the beginners' responses were significantly more frequent in the category of "Grammatical collocation" which is a syntagmatic relation. These findings, which support McCarthy (1990) and Meara (1982), are not in line with Wolter'(2001) belief about the re-evaluation of the syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift in the case of nonnative speakers. The study implies important implications for vocabulary teaching through assisting learners in building stronger semantic links between words.

Index Terms—mental lexicon, language proficiency, word association behavior, syntagmatic relation, paradigmatic relation

I. INTRODUCTION

The mental lexicon is "a person's mental store of words, their meaning and associations" (Richards & Schmidt, 2002: p.327). Scholars admit that little is actually known about the mental lexicon (Aitchison, 2003; Channell, 1988; McCarthy, 1990) and all attempts to define and describe it rely on more metaphors that produce incomplete models. Brown (2006) offers a more modern metaphor, comparing it to the Internet and World Wide Web. He believes that the information in the mental lexicon, like a library or computer, is always being updated; new words are added, new connections to existing words are made and unused words may be forgotten.

McCarthy (1990) gives the following examples: "The mental lexicon is like a dictionary, a thesaurus, an encyclopedia, a library, a computer and a net" (p. 34). He further notes that the total model for the place of any word in the lexicon will have to be three dimensional; with phonological nets crossing orthographic ones and criss-crossing semantic and encyclopaedic [personal knowledge] nets (McCarthy, 1990).

Aitchison (2003) lists four main methods for researching the mental lexicon: 1) word searches (tip-of-the-tongue or TOT states) and slips of the tongue, 2) linguistics and linguistic corpora, 3) speech disorders and brain scans and 4) psycholinguistic experiments. In respect to the last of these four methods, a word association test is one measurement in psycholinguistic experiments which will be described in more detail below.

As Peppard (2007) states, the word association test (WAT) was "initially used as a psychological tool to study the subconscious mind, and more recently used by psycholinguists to explore the mental lexicon" (P. 4). In addition, according to Read (2004), a word association task is defined as one where speakers of a language are given a set of stimulus words one by one and they are instructed to give the first word that comes to their mind. Wolter (2001) identified three categories of word associations: paradigmatic, syntagmatic, and phonological or 'clang' responses. As Wolter (2001) stated, *Paradigmatic* responses have the same grammatical function as the prompt word and can be of four types: coordinates superordinates, subordinates, and synonyms. *Syntagmatic* responses have a collocational or sequential relationship with the prompt word, and are not from the same word class. *Phonological* or 'clang' associations are semantically unrelated but similar-sounding words. Read (1993) added a fourth category: *analytic* responses, which could be a definition of characteristics, as if explained in a dictionary.

Early studies into the responses of NS children on WATs (Ervin, 1961; Palmero, 1971; Emerson & Gekoski, 1976) found that as children aged, they produced more paradigmatic responses, and less syntagmatic and clang associations. This belief was most commonly referred to as the syntagmatic- paradigmatic (S-P) shift, and it effectively placed higher value on paradigmatic associations, holding them up as evidence of increasing proficiency. When these findings were imported to SLA, it led some researchers (e.g. Politzer, 1978) to believe that as learners' proficiency levels increased they typically provided more paradigmatic responses, whereas weaker learners tended to produce more clang or syntagmatic associations. The extension of the S-P shift to non native speakers (NNSs) was quite logical as both NNSs and NS children are in the process of learning the language (Wharton, 2010).

Although the S-P shift failed to take account of NSs who preferred giving syntagmatic responses on WATs (Nilson & Henriksen, 2006), there was wide support for the hypothesis, and so it lasted, unchallenged, for decades (Wolter, 2001). Wolter (2001) feels the S-P shift would be better described as a "shift from semantically meaningless responses to semantically meaningful responses". Recent studies have also questioned whether a division between L1 and L2 lexicons is actually so prominent, based on the discovery that NSs are not so homogeneous after all (Nilson & Henriksen, 2006; Fitzpatrick, 2007). In addition, the use of lesser-known prompt words revealed that NS and NNS associations were similar in the proportions of paradigmatic, syntagmatic, and clang responses produced (Wolter, 2001; Fitzpatrick, 2006; Zareva, 2007). It appears that various factors, like the "depth of word knowledge' (Wolter, 2001) and 'word familiarity' (Zareva, 2007) greatly influence both NS and NNS associations (Wharton, 2010). Wolter (2006) contends that the most important difference between NSs and NNSs lies in the syntagmatic connections (e.g. collocations) rather than paradigmatic, as the former requires significant lexical restructuring. In addition, Wolter's (2002) study revealed that word associations in a foreign language are not clearly linked to proficiency.

Read (1993) carried out a study with university students of English and tested their knowledge of "academic" words. Read's test consisted of a target word followed by eight other words, four of which are semantically related to the target word, and four of which are not. Read's test aimed to assess receptive word knowledge and knowledge about the meaning of a word, the words with which it is associated, and the collocations in which it occurs. Read (1993, p.359) distinguished three types associations on the basis of "preliminary drafting of items": (a) paradigmatic ("The two words are synonyms or at least similar in meaning, perhaps with one being more general than the other"); (b) syntagmatic ("The two words are collocates that often occur together in a sentence"); (c) ("The associate represents one aspect, or component, of the meaning of the stimulus word and is likely to form part of its dictionary definition'). One of the most striking results of word association studies was summarized by Read (1993, p.358) as follows: One of the basic findings is that native speakers have remarkably stable patterns of word association, which can be taken to reflect the sophisticated lexical and semantic networks that they have developed through their acquisition of the language. On the other hand, second language learners produce associations that are much more diverse and unstable; often their responses are based on purely phonological, rather than semantic, links with the stimulus words.

Another issue to consider is the relationship between word-association and level of language proficiency. Research in this area has produced conflicting results with some studies pointing to the segregation of the two and some pointing to the undeniable influence of the latter on the former. As Wolter (2002) states devising a word association test (WAT) as a means of assessing proficiency in a foreign language has always had something of an inherent appeal to it. Wolter (2002) suggests that there may be something of a connection between psycholinguistic knowledge and more general proficiency in a foreign language. In respect to this last point, Wolter (2002) states that the underlying argument is that we would expect learners of higher proficiency to have more highly developed semantic networks in the L2 mental lexicon. However, his study with a group of language learners and native speakers did not support his views since he could not find any evidence that word associations in a foreign language are linked to proficiency.

Although previous studies had found no substantial evidence that language proficiency is a determinant in word association, newer research claims that it may still be possible to "develop a word association test as a means of assessing proficiency in a foreign language, despite the findings of past studies" (Wolter, 2002, p. 315). For instance, Dergisi's study (2010) revealed that proficiency in English might affect word associations and competent speakers can make generalizations about the occurrence of a word and can find associated words easily. Students in advanced level use 'superordinates' and 'subordinates' more than the students in elementary level because they connect the words in their minds more easily by establishing a network of associations than the students in elementary level (Dergisi, 2010).

Considering all the above mentioned studies, it seems that there is still a need for more exploration to gain a better understanding of how L2 learners' mental lexicon might be organized and how word association behavior may vary according to L2 proficiency level. Therefore, the present study is an attempt to expand our current understanding of the possible role L2 language proficiency may have in word association behaviors of Iranian EFL learners.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Participants in this study comprised 120 EFL students, both male and female, aged between 19 to 23 who were freshman (n = 60) and junior (n = 60) students of English literature and translation fields at Sheikhbahaee University in Isfahan, Iran. The freshmen were in their first semester of their higher education; therefore, the experience they had in English was limited to what they had been taught in their educational life in guidance and high school. None of the

freshmen participated in this study had had any other kinds of exposure to English. The junior students, besides what they had already been exposed to in pre-university stages of their educational life – being similar to freshmen in this respect - had also passed the introductory courses in learning English in university and had developed the necessary skills for communicating in English.

B. Instrumentation

1. English Proficiency Test

In order to determine the students' level of English language proficiency and to select students at the two levels of "beginner and elementary" and "upper intermediate" in terms of English language proficiency, the OPT was used in this study. The OPT was decided to serve the discriminatory purpose for this research, since it demands the fulfillment of language preliminaries. Another reason for this was the fact that OPT could provide the best indices of placement.

2. Word association test

The word association test used in this study was taken from Wolter (2002). It consisted of 20 verbs as the prompts and it was also a single response test (see Appendix A). The test included prompt words from the Edinburgh Associative Thesaurus (EAT, Kiss et al., 1973; available online at http://monkey.cis.rl.ac.uk/Eat/htdocs/eat.html). The reason for the selection of this test was that Wolter (2002) evaluated critically all the present word association tests and took all the necessary measures to prevent the shortcomings of those tests from interfering with his newly devised test. For Wolter (2002) when developing a WAT, it should be kept in mind that 1) WAT would be relatively quick and easy both to administer and to score, 2) be a nice complement to other methods of assessing learner performance and 3) tend to suggest that there may be something of a connection between psycholinguistic knowledge and more general proficiency in a foreign language.

C. Procedures

The two tests of OPT and word association were administered to two classes of undergraduate students at Sheikhbahaee University over a 1-week period. In the first testing session, participants were asked to take OPT and in the second the word association test was administered. Participants were given 40 min to do OPT and 10 min to do the word association test.

As the aim of this study was to investigate the possible role of language proficiency in the word association behavior of EFL learners, the researcher announced that there would be the standard test of OPT (Oxford Quick Placement Test, 2001) which determines their level of English proficiency and controls the students' homogeneity in the experiment. After the administration of the test, 44 students were ranked as 'beginner and elementary", 51 as "upper intermediate" and the rest of the participants (n = 25) were ranked as the lower intermediate students who were excluded from the study. The reason for not including the lower intermediate participants in the main part of the study was the intention that the two groups in this study should be distinct enough if we tended to examine the possible effect of the level English language proficiency.

1. Data analysis

In order to categorize the elicited responses, the association types proposed by Peppard (2007) from the related literature were adopted in this study. According to Peppard (2007), the majority of word association literature focuses on the two main organizing principles of language: *syntagmatic* (chain) and *paradigmatic* (choice) relations. *Sytagmatic* associations are those that would be related by a phrase or syntactic structure. *Paradigmatic* associations on the other hand, involve the other words that could replace the target word. Previous research has shown a tendency for native speakers to respond to word association stimuli paradigmatically and for non-native speakers to respond syntagmatically (Coulthard et al., 2000: 27; Meara, 1982). In addition to the paradigmatic/ syntagmatic distinction, word associations can be based solely on their phonological or orthographic relations. These responses, labeled *clang responses*, are far less common and usually given by low-level language learners. Finally, some responses are related to one's personal knowledge about the word; these are referred to as *encyclopaedic responses*. Based on the association types described above, the responses elicited from the participants of this study were categorized and presented in the following section.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In total, 2000 responses (972 from beginner and elementary students and 1073 from upper intermediate students) were collected for the twenty prompt words. All of the responses were first classified into paradigmatic, syntagmatic and phonological associations. The paradigmatic responses were further classified into co-ordination, hyponymy/ hypernymy and synonymy; the co-ordination responses were in turn classified into complementary, gradable, converses and mutual incompatibles. The syntagmatic associations were further classified into lexical, grammatical and restricted collocations. The frequency of encyclopedic responses was also recorded. This initial classification is shown in Table 3.1.below.

TABLE 3.1.
THE CLASSIFICATION OF THE EFL LEARNER' RESPONSES BASED ON PEPPARD (2007) MODEL

Type \ Level	Paradigmatic choice				Hyper. Hypo.	Syn.	Syntagmatic chain			Phonological Or Orthographical relations	Encyclopedic knowledge	Total
	Co-ordination						Collocation					
	Comp.	Grad.	Con.	Inc.			Lex.	Gra.	Res.			
Begin. and Elem.	0	0	0	0	25	73	360	169	0	44	256	927
Upper Interm.	9	0	3	0	99	136	417	37	0	36	336	1073
Total	9	0	3	0	124	209	777	206	0	80	592	2000

As Table 3.1. shows, the most frequent type of association was "lexical collocations" (777 instances; 360 beginners, 417 upper intermediates) being syntagmatic type in terms of the relations. The second most frequent association was "encyclopedic knowledge" (592 instances; 256 beginners, 336 upper intermediates) which was followed by "synonyms" (209 instances; 73 beginners, 136 upper intermediates) and then "grammatical collocations" (206 instances; 169 beginners, 37 upper intermediates). "Hypernyms and hyponyms" were the next most frequent associations (124 instances; 25 beginners, 99 upper intermediates). The sixth and seventh most frequent associations were "phonological / orthographical relations" and "complementary co-ordinations", with 80 instances (44 beginners, 36 upper intermediates) and 9 instances (0 beginners, 9 upper intermediates) respectively. The least frequent association was "converses" (3 instance; 0 beginners, 3 upper intermediate). The categories of "gradable antonyms", "mutual incompatibles" and "restricted collocations" had no instances in the elicited responses.

As the aim of this study was to investigate the possible role of proficiency in word association behaviors of Iranian EFL learners, the Chi-square test was used to analyze statistically the difference between the frequencies of responses in each category. The results of Chi-square test are reported in Table 3.2. to 3.9. (see Appendix B). All in all, the differences between the frequencies of the EFL learners' responses in three categories of "Synonymy", "Grammatical collocation" and "Hypernymy and Hyponymy" were statistically significant. The results showed that upper intermediate students' responses were significantly more frequent than beginners' responses in the categories of "Synonymy" and "Hypernymy and Hyponymy" which are paradigmatic relations and the beginners' responses were significantly more frequent than upper intermediate students' responses in the category of "Grammatical collocation" which is a syntagmatic relation. The above-mentioned findings do not support those of Wolter's (2001, p. 61)), which indicated a syntagmatically dominant mental lexicon in the case of non-native speakers. Wolter argued for a "syntagmatically dominated" L2 mental lexicon and called for a re-evaluation of the syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift in the case of nonnative speakers. By contrast, the results of the present study , which do not show a preference for syntagmatic responses , are in line with previous research by Dóczi (2006), showing that the paradigmatic shift occurs with native and non-native speakers as well. The rationale behind this might be that L2 learners acquire more vocabulary during the language learning process, which might lead to a more stable organization of synonymy, hypernymy and hyponymy at higher stages of proficiency but further research needs to be carried out to verify this.

Although, in this study, the differences between the frequencies of the instances in the three categories of "Synonymy", "Grammatical collocation" and "Hypernymy and Hyponymy" were statistically significant and we can generally conclude that beginners have mostly syntagmatic word association and upper intermediate students have mostly paradigmatic word association in their mind (Coulthard et al., 2000: 27; Meara, 1982), the results of this study are not much promising for the idea that language proficiency influences word association of Iranian EFL learners in the categories of lexical collocations, encyclopedic knowledge ,phonological/orthographical relations, complementary and converse, since the differences between the frequencies in these categories are not statistically significant. This implies several avenues for further research to gain a better insight into the mental lexicon of learners as related to the above mentioned categories. All in all, the conclusion we came up with is that there is a great deal of work yet to be done and we have a long way to go in order to understand the complexity of the mental lexicon.

IV. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to gain insight into the mental lexicon of L2 learners, with a focus on Iranian EFL learners. Generally, the findings of this study demonstrated that the mental lexicon of second language learners is highly organized. Specifically, in the case of Iranian EFL learners, upper intermediate students' responses were significantly more frequent in paradigmatic relations; however the beginners' responses were significantly more frequent in syntagmatic relations. Encyclopaedic knowledge is also influential for some prompt words, which by its very nature will vary from person to person.

The findings support McCarthy (1990) and Meara (1982) but were not in line with Wolter' (2001) belief about the re-evaluation of the syntagmatic-paradigmatic shift in the case of nonnative speakers. The results of this study have revealed that as L2 learners acquire more vocabulary knowledge during the language learning process and become more proficient, their responses in word association tests incline to paradigmatic relations and this paradigmatically dominant

mental lexicon in the case of non-native speakers reflects the role of proficiency in association behavior of Iranian EFL learners. While there are no absolute conclusions as to how the L2 mental lexicon is organized, the result of the present study can have important implications for vocabulary teaching through assisting learners in building stronger semantic links between words.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The association that learners make on word association tests, reflect the important role these association might play in the teaching and learning of new vocabulary (Schmitt, 2000). As an alternative to simply absorbing new words through exposure or experimenting with a mnemonic technique that concentrates solely on individual features of words, a better approach might be to focus on characteristics of the entire lexicon (Meara & Wolter, 2004). As such, it seems logical to assist L2 learners organize their mental lexicon through promoting stronger links between words, which can facilitate vocabulary learning.

Meara (2009, p. 19) promotes the idea of developing "learning methods that, as a side effect, produced learners with native-like association patterns" in an effort to mold more proficient L2 communicators. Therefore, it would be more appropriate to use some vocabulary building activities using association, such as free association, brainstorming or mind mapping of words and topics, which might be more effective for developing L2 learners' mental lexicon as compared with direct vocabulary instruction. It is recommended to teachers to make use of such meaningful communicative activities which can help learners make meaningful connections between new and formerly learned vocabulary.

APPENDIX A THE WORD ASSOCIATION TEST

Instructions

The following test is a word association test. You will see a list of words with three blank spaces, and you should fill in each blank with the first English word that you think of when you read the word. There are no right or wrong answers.

1. draw _____
2. jump _____
3. care _____
4. bring _____
5. move _____
6. keep _____
7. visit _____
8. fall _____
9. break _____
10. travel _____
11. cut _____
12. enjoy _____
13. kill _____
14. argue _____
15. write _____
16. send _____
17. replace   _____
18. apply _____
19. make _____
20. show_____

APPENDIX B THE RESULTS OF CHI-SQUARE TEST

TABLE 3.2.

CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE FREQUENCY OF THE INSTANCES OF "LEXICAL COLLOCATIONS" IN BEGINNER AND UPPER INTERMEDIATE GROUPS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.007 [b]	1	.935		
Continuity Correction[a]	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.007	1	.935		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.502
Linear-by-Linear Association	.007	1	.935		
N of Valid Cases	555				

TABLE 3.3.
CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE FREQUENCY OF THE INSTANCES OF "ENCYCLOPEDIC KNOWLEDGE" IN BEGINNER AND UPPER INTERMEDIATE GROUPS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.810 [b]	1	.368		
Continuity Correction	.650	1	.420		
Likelihood Ratio	.814	1	.367		
Fisher's Exact Test				.401	.210
Linear-by-Linear Association	.808	1	.369		
N of Valid Cases	555				

TABLE 3.4.
CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE FREQUENCY OF THE INSTANCES OF "SYNONYMY" IN BEGINNER AND UPPER INTERMEDIATE GROUPS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.817 [b]	1	.028		
Continuity Correction	4.168	1	.041		
Likelihood Ratio	5.107	1	.024		
Fisher's Exact Test				.032	.019
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.809	1	.028		
N of Valid Cases	555				

TABLE 3.5.
CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE FREQUENCY OF THE INSTANCES OF "GRAMMATICAL COLLOCATION" IN BEGINNER AND UPPER INTERMEDIATE GROUPS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	46.904 [b]	1	.000		
Continuity Correction	44.628	1	.000		
Likelihood Ratio	49.000	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	46.819	1	.000		
N of Valid Cases	555				

TABLE 3.6.
CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE FREQUENCY OF THE INSTANCES OF "HYPERNYMY AND HYPONYMY" IN BEGINNER AND UPPER INTERMEDIATE GROUPS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.365 [b]	1	.001		
Continuity Correction	10.175	1	.001		
Likelihood Ratio	13.330	1	.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				.000	.000
Linear-by-Linear Association	11.344	1	.001		
N of Valid Cases	555				

TABLE 3.7.
CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE FREQUENCY OF THE INSTANCES OF "PHONOLOGICAL/ORTHOGRAPHICAL RELATIONS" IN BEGINNER AND UPPER INTERMEDIATE GROUPS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.767 [b]	1	.381		
Continuity Correction	.433	1	.511		
Likelihood Ratio	.752	1	.386		
Fisher's Exact Test				.391	.253
Linear-by-Linear Association	.766	1	.381		
N of Valid Cases	555				

TABLE 3.8.
CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE FREQUENCY OF THE INSTANCES OF "COMPLEMENTARY" IN BEGINNER AND UPPER INTERMEDIATE GROUPS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.937 [b]	1	.164		
Continuity Correction	.637	1	.425		
Likelihood Ratio	2.986	1	.084		
Fisher's Exact Test				.284	.225
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.933	1	.164		
N of Valid Cases	555				

TABLE 3.9.
CHI-SQUARE TEST RESULTS FOR THE FREQUENCY OF THE INSTANCES OF "CONVERSE" IN BEGINNER AND UPPER INTERMEDIATE GROUPS

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.643 [b]	1	.423		
Continuity Correction	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.993	1	.319		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.609
Linear-by-Linear Association	.642	1	.423		
N of Valid Cases	555				

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An Empirical Study on English Participle Acquisition of the Chinese Arts Majors

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Abstract—The author conducted a study on the participle acquisition by the Chinese art majors. The results indicate that English proficiency does not seem to be a factor which determines the correct use of the participles. In this paper, difficulties the Chinese art majors have in acquiring participles are summarized and the major sources responsible for the errors made by the art majors in the use of participles are analyzed. The paper ends up with putting forward some remedial teaching methods and suggestions based on the analysis of the results.

Index Terms—English participles, error analysis, error sources, remedial teaching methods

I. INTRODUCTION

The process of English learning is a process of creating interlanguage (IL) and developing IL by constantly correcting errors. It is inevitable that English learners on different levels make many different errors in their process of IL development. In terms of the categories of learners' errors, Brown (1982) suggests four distinct stages along the IL continuum. They are random errors, emergent stage of IL, systematic stage and stabilization, which reflect the general trend of IL development.

Analyzing errors in the EFL learners' IL is an important method in second language acquisition and sheds much insight on the language pedagogy. Much research was done to study the IL errors of second language learners. However, the study on English participle acquisition by the Chinese art majors is still insufficient, which is significant for the further understanding of their IL characteristics.

For the art majors, most of whom are poorly prepared in English before entering university, acquiring English participle seems to be twice as difficult as the other college majors. When going over either their writing or translation, the author finds that the art majors seldom use participles and seem to try to avoid using them. Most of the students who attempt to use participles always make errors.

However, it is essential for the art majors to acquire English for the development of Chinese art and cultural industry. In the context of globalization, as the backbone, the art students will become the leading participants to propel the interaction of Chinese and Foreign art and culture and accelerate the progress of art and culture blend in the near future.

Though there have been many studies on English grammatical errors made by Chinese EFL learners, it's a pity that the study on the errors committed by the college art majors in their use of English participles is yet to be conducted.

All this arouses the author's great interest in probing the underlying reasons of their avoidance and what teachers in the art colleges can do to help change the situation.

II. FORMATION AND MEANING OF PARTICIPLES

A participle can be a verb, which is a derivative of a non-finite verb, or share properties with adjectives, adverbs and nouns.

The term "participle" is generally restricted to non-finite forms of a verb other than the infinitive; in English, it is often classified into present and past forms, or into "-*ing*" and "-*ed*" forms (Crystal, 1992).

A. *Present Participle*

The –*ing* form is called the present participle which can also be called variously the active participle, imperfect participle, or progressive participle. In present-day English, gerund and present participle are derived from one and the same linguistic form---the -*ing*. In principle, there is nothing surprising about this form being able to perform the same grammatical functions as a noun or an adjective in some of its uses, nor is it surprising that it should be able to perform other functions as well (Duffley, 2006).

The term "present participle" is now used to include the gerund, so the term "gerund-participle", which is adopted from *Cambridge Grammar of the English Language* (Huddleston and Pullum, 2002), is also used. The English gerund-participle is a stable form, but it has no stable meaning (Patrick J. Duffley, 2006).

According to John M. Lawler, the form of -*ing* is used in the following English constructions:

1. as the next verb form after the "be" of the continuous or progressive aspect.

2. in adjectival clauses modifying noun phrases, which is equivalent to a relative clause constructions.

3. as the head of an adverbial clause, often introduced by a subordinating conjunction, and usually without a subject; it can take "have" to indicate it happened in the past.

4. as the main verb in a "gerund" complement, i.e, a subordinate noun clause functioning as subject, direct object or predicative of a higher clause. The complement clause is a noun phrase, but the gerund itself is a verb phrase. In other words, the gerund form is a real (though non-finite) verb, and it can take a subject (in the possessive case) and an object (in the objective), and can be modified by adverbs, etc.

E.g.: Our work is serving the people.

5. as a true noun, derived from a verb. It is a "verbal noun". This is usually called the gerund or "-*ing*" nominalizer, and it can't take an object. Besides, a true noun can take a definite article, whereas a verb can not.

For the convenience of the current study, the author uses the term "present participle" to refer to the first three usages of this verb form "-*ing*" and "gerund" to the last two usages.

B. Past Participle

The other variety of English participles is called the past participle which does not have a consistent ending, and it is usually identical to the regular verb's past tense form which ends in -*ed*, and the past participles of irregular verbs, however, vary considerably. The past participle is used in forming the perfective aspect and the passive voice. It can also be called variously the passive participle or perfect participle.

The past participle which can be used in both active and passive voices is often used in the following English constructions:

1. forming the perfect tense.

2. forming the passive voice.

3. modifying a noun, with active sense: the fallen leaves.

4. modifying a noun, with passive sense: the injured worker.

5. modifying a verb or sentence, with passive sense: Given more time, we could have done it better.

C. Dangling Participles

Participles or participial clauses may always appear at the beginning or the end of a sentence, and a participial clause is usually attached to its subject, as in "Absorbed in computer games (participial clause), Tonny (subject) didn't notice my arriving (object)." However, when the participial clause attaches itself to a word other than the one intended, or with no particular word at all, the clause is seemingly "hanging" on nothing or on an entirely inappropriate noun, and "dangles" in mid-air, attaching to no named person or thing. It thus becomes a dangling participle, which is an error in sentence structure. E.g. "Absorbed in computer games, the computer crashed." In the sentence, the past participle "absorbed" has not its own subject, and the participial phrase "absorbed in computer games" seems to connect to "the computer." Actually, "the computer" is not itself "absorbed in computer games." Upon reflection, there is another unmentioned subject, a person who was playing the computer games, to which the participle really should connect. Grammarians say that such a sentence contains a "dangling participle."

There is another kind of example:

He recognized the face of his neighbor peering out the door into the night.

The placement of the participial clause "peering out the door into the night" causes ambiguity, and makes it sound as if his neighbor peered out the door into the night. More correctly, it can be written as, "Peering out the door into the night, he recognized the face of his neighbor."

Although dangling participles originate from the error of grammar, many dangling constructions have already been viewed as fixed structures without restriction of the subject in main clause. E.g.: Considering…, Judging from…, According to…, Generally speaking.

III. METHODOLOGY

The methodology section first presents the research questions. It then introduces the background of the participants and the instruments employed in present research. The introduction is followed by the procedure of data collection.

To strengthen the reliability of the data, and make this study as objective as possible, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed. According to the research questions, a participle test was designed and related software was used to aid the analysis.

A. Research Questions

The current research focuses on the acquisition of English participles by Chinese art majors as well as discovering their IL features in the acquisitional development of participles.

In order to have a comparatively comprehensive understanding of the errors the art majors commit and their knowledge and uses of the participles, the following four research questions will be addressed:

1. How well do the art majors master the English participle?

2. Does the English proficiency determine the acquisition of the participles by the art majors?

3. What are the difficulties for the art majors in the process of using participles?

4. What causes the errors committed by the art majors in the use of participles?

B. Participants

Eighty college art majors participated in the present study. It involved two different learner groups. For each group there were 40 subjects. All the subjects were the students from College of Arts and Culture (CAC) in Shandong University of Arts. They majored in broadcasting and TV director (BTD), public utilities management (PUM), management of cultural and art industry (MCAI), movie and TV arts (MTA) and fine arts (FA) respectively. The five majors in each grade were admitted by CAC with exactly the same entrance requirements, and after entering the university, they were taught by the same English teachers and attended the same English curricula during their freshman and sophomore period. The subjects of each group were taken out at random from the participle-test-taking participants in the five majors. Before entering university, they had learned English as a foreign language through formal instruction for 6 years in China. They all had finished a comprehensive study of English Grammar including English participles before this empirical study. According to the years of their English study, 80 subjects were divided into the following two groups.

Group One. The subjects from Group one were composed of 40 freshmen of SUA. When tested, they were busy with their second semester's study in the freshman period. The average age of Group one was 19. They were all admitted by CAC on condition that their scores of the entrance examination to the college were above 510 and the scores of English couldn't be lower than 80 (the full mark was 150). These students hadn't taken College English Test Band 4 and all of them had been studying College English for more than half a year. Besides, the subjects of this group came from different parts of Shandong province.

Group Two. The subjects in Group two were 40 junior students from CAC of SUA. They were from the 5 majors mentioned above. All of the 40 subjects took the CET-4 and passed it. Among them, 4 subjects got the scores ranging from 500 to 550, 8 subjects from 450 to 500, and the others (28 subjects in total) from 425 to 450. Two of them were holders of College English Test Band 6 certificate. The subjects of this group had studied English for more than eight years and a half before the empirical study. The average age of Group two was 22. In addition, all the subjects were from different parts of Shandong province.

TABLE 3.1:
PROFILE OF SUBJECTS PARTICIPATING IN THE TEST

		Group 1	Group 2
Average Years of Learning English		6.5	8.5
Average Age		19	22
Major	BTD	7	8
	PUM	16	8
	MCAI	5	6
	MTA	4	5
	FA	8	13

The researcher and the teachers involved put the subjects in a normal and authentic environment so that they haven't realized and recognized their identity in this experiment. Additionally, neither participating groups received any special training on the use of English participles before the test.

C. Instruments

The instruments used in the study were a participle test and an interview. The data collection was manipulated by English teachers in SUA. The author explained to them in detail the purpose and requirements for allocating and collecting the participle tests and ensured their full cooperation. All the participants were required to finish the participle test in 35 minutes.

While the data were being elicited, care was taken so that the subjects would not intentionally pay attention to the grammatical item the author intended to test. Besides, instructions were given by the teachers in Chinese to ensure that the subjects completely understood the requirements.

The SPSS software was used for doing statistical analysis.

1. Participle test

Participle test, which is designed to test the essential use of English participles, consists of three parts: choice test, blank filling and a Chinese-English translation judgment test.

The participle testing items involve voice, aspect, the transformed part of speech and the like.

In order to guarantee the validity of the test, all words used in the participle test are from high school vocabulary list, and there is no difficulty for all the participants in terms of vocabulary in the test. Therefore, the students can't be distracted by the words they do not know and can concentrate their attention on the participle test items.

All the questions in the test are from the examination questions in CET-4 and the participle-specialized exercises for CET-4. Two experienced professors who had taught English for more than 15 years checked every question to ensure that each question had but only one correct and optimal answer.

2. Interview

Interviews were conducted after the participle tests were scored. Among the 80 subjects, we only chose 10 subjects who made more errors in the participle test in each group as the representatives, since it was too time-consuming to

interview every subject involved. The subjects were interviewed one by one by their English teacher and the author, and they were asked questions such as "Do you often use participles in your translation or writing?" "Did you fail to use participles just because you were afraid of making mistakes or because they seldom came to your mind while writing in English?" "Do you know the expression 'see sth. done'? And what does it mean?" "Under what kind of circumstance will you use present participle?" "Can you tell me what situation calls for use of past participle?" "Do you know what determine the choice making between the present participle and the past participle in the participles as attribute, as predicative, as complement and in the participial phrase as adverbial?" "During the participle test, did you always translate the English questions into Chinese to help make a choice or judgment?" "Does the Chinese marker "被" remind you of using past participle?" "Can you name the other Chinese markers which can remind you of using past participle?" "Do you know the difference between gerunds and present participles?" "Do you know how to use the perfective aspect of the participle?"

3. Software

SPSS statistics 17.0 was used for doing statistical analysis. The independent samples t-test was used to compare the error frequencies and find out whether there was a significant difference in the language achievement between the two learner groups.

## IV. RESULTS

A. Error Rates under Each Category

This part primarily exhibits distribution of error rates according to the types of participles concerning the two subject groups. All the English participles in question are classified into the six types: participles as attribute, participles as predicative, participles as adverbial, participles as complement, gerunds and dangling participles. And progressive aspect and passive voice are also involved. With the accuracy order of the use of participles tested, the researcher hopes to figure out the acquisition of the six types of participles by the Chinese art majors.

The number of errors and the error rates of each type are illustrated separately in the following columns.

TABLE 4.1:
ERROR RATES OF PARTICIPLES UNDER EACH CATEGORY

Types of Participles		Number of Errors in Participle Use	Number of Participles	Error Rates
Participle as Adjective	Attribute	86	280	30.7%
	Predicative	113	280	40.4%
Participle as Adverbial		230	440	52.3%
Participle as Complement	Group 2	83	360	23.1%
Gerund		168	440	38.2%
Dangling Participle		68	160	42.5%
Passive Voice		3	40	7.5%
Progressive Aspect		0	40	0
Mixture of Progressive Aspect & Passive voice		8	40	20%
Others		22	40	55%
	Total	781	2120	36.8%
Participle as Adjective	Attribute	79	280	28.2%
	Predicative	129	280	46.1%
Participle as Adverbial		243	440	55.2%
Participle as Complement	Group 1	71	360	19.7%
Gerund		156	440	35.5%
Dangling Participle		79	160	49.4%
Passive Voice		0	40	0
Progressive Aspect		0	40	0
Mixture of Progressive Aspect & Passive voice		2	40	5%
Others		29	40	72.5%
Total		788	2120	37.2%

For the convenience of comparison and discussion later in the paper, it is proper here to illustrate the error rates of each type of participles in two groups by figures, which clearly reveals the participle acquisition by the art majors with different English competence.
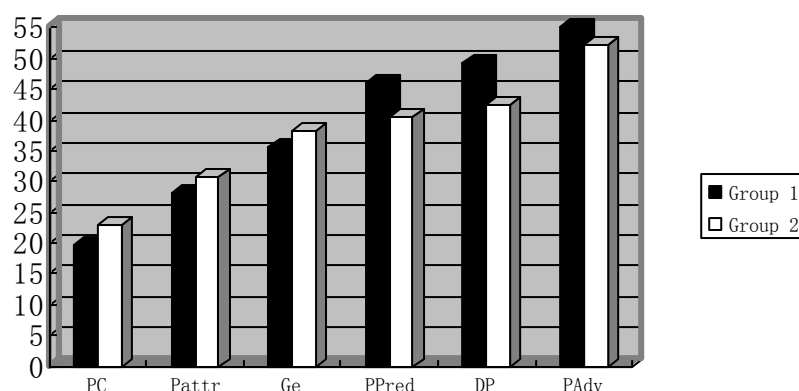
PC: Participles as Complement   PAttr: Participles as Attribute
Ge: Gerunds   PPred: Participles as Predicative
DP: Dangling Participles   PAdv: Participles as Adverbial
Figure 4.1: Error Rates of Participles under Each Category

B. Error Rate Comparison between Two Learner Groups

For the purpose of figuring out whether there was significant difference in the English participle acquisition between the lower grade group and the upper grade group on the basis of the error rates calculated above, independent samples T-test was used.

TABLE 4.2:
RESULTS OF GROUP STATISTICS
Group Statistics

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
PAttr	group 1	7	28.2143	21.10067
	group 2	7	30.7143	16.56517
PPred	group 1	7	46.0714	28.97043
	group 2	7	36.0714	22.72376
PC	group 1	9	19.7222	21.70269
	group 2	9	23.0556	12.16923
Gerund	group 1	11	35.4091	23.52851
	group 2	11	38.1818	23.79840
DP	group 1	4	49.3750	32.16980
	group 2	4	42.5000	35.76544
PAdv	group 1	11	50.4545	19.51980
	group 2	11	47.2727	16.89876
Total	group 1		39.7	
	group 2		37.3	

PAttr: Participles as Attribute   PPred: Participles as Predicative
PC: Participles as Complement   Ge: Gerunds
DP: Dangling Participles   PAdv: Participles as Adverbial

TABLE 4.3:
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST
Independent Samples T-Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		T-test for Equality of Means			
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (two-tailed)	Mean Differences
PAttr	Equal variances assumed	.097	**.761**	-.247	12	**.809**	-2.50000
	Equal variances not assumed			-.247	11.360	.810	-2.50000
PPred	Equal variances assumed	2.223	**.162**	.719	12	**.486**	10.00000
	Equal variances not assumed			.719	11.356	.487	10.00000
PC	Equal variances assumed	1.695	**.211**	-.402	16	**.693**	-3.33333
	Equal variances not assumed			-.402	12.578	.695	-3.33333
Gerund	Equal variances assumed	.017	**.896**	-.275	20	**.786**	-2.77273
	Equal variances not assumed			-.275	19.997	.786	-2.77273
DP	Equal variances assumed	.182	**.684**	.286	6	**.785**	6.87500
	Equal variances not assumed			.286	5.934	.785	6.87500
PAdv	Equal variances assumed	.091	**.767**	.409	20	**.687**	3.1818
	Equal variances not assumed			.409	19.598	.687	3.1818

PAttr: Participles as Attribute   PPred: Participles as Predicative
PC: Participles as Complement   Ge: Gerunds
DP: Dangling Participles   PAdv: Participles as Adverbial

In the first place, according to table 4.3, for the participles as attribute, participles as predicative, participles as complement, gerunds, dangling participles and participles as adverbial, in the Levene's test for equality of variances, all of their P values are much higher than 0.05, so their variances are equal. Furthermore, in the T-test for equality of means, their P values, which correspond to the equal variances, are showed to be much higher than 0.01, and thus the conclusion can be drawn that there is no significant difference in the use of English participles between the two experimental groups under the six types.

Secondly, the result of independent samples test exhibits that the art majors do not have a good mastery of English participles, because the overall mean of the error rates of the two groups is 38.5. And the overall mean of the lower grade group and the upper grade group is 39.7 and 37.3 respectively.

According to the table 4.2, the mean value of the error rates of participles as adverbial is the highest, dangling participles, participles as predicative, gerunds, and participles as attribute in turn, and the mean value of the participles as complement is lowest. Namely, the subjects in the current study master participles as complement best, participles as attribute, gerunds, participles as predicative and dangling participles in turn, and they have a worst grasp of participles as adverbial.

According to the mean differences illustrated in table 4.3, compared with the upper grade group (the second group), the lower grade group (the first group) have a better mastery of participles as complement (-3.33333), gerunds (-2.77273) and participles as attribute (-2.50000) but make more errors in participles as predicative (10.00000), dangling participles (6.87500) and participles as adverbial (3.1818).

V. MAJOR FINDINGS

On the basis of the analysis and elaboration of the data, the following findings can be presented:

1. Through the analysis of the data collected, a conclusion can be drawn that English participle, as a unique English grammatical item, is a very difficult grammatical item for the art majors to acquire and their knowledge of participles is incomplete. The 4 major types of errors committed by the art majors are overlooking the logical subject of participles, wrong use of absolute construction, wrong use of gerunds, failure in use of perfective aspect of the participle and dangling constructions.

2. With the aid of independent samples T-test, it is discovered that for the art majors, English proficiency does not seem to be a factor which determines the correct use of the participles. Comparatively, the upper grader (subjects in the second group) has a better mastery of participles as predicative, dangling participles and participles as adverbial than the lower grader (subjects in the first group), but they are weaker in gerunds, participles as attribute and participles as complement.

3. The results show that for the art students, the correct rate of using participles as complement (78.7%) is the highest, participles as attribute (70.5%), gerunds (63.3%), participles as predicative (57%) and dangling participles (54.3%) in turn; the correct rate of using participles as adverbial (46.25%) is the lowest.

4. For the art majors, they have difficulty in acquiring (1) absolute construction, (2) dangling participles, (3) perfective aspect of participles as adverbial, (4) the past participle of the intransitive verb, which is used as adjective to indicate the completion of the action, (5) the compound structure of gerund; and have some trouble in discriminating the usage of participles from that of the infinitive.

5. From the high error frequencies and the types of error they committed, it is evident that the IL system of the art majors is inadequate and their grammatical system of English is not yet stabilized. The major sources responsible for the errors made by the art students in the use of participles are: (1) negative transfer (literal translation), (2) overgeneralization (false analogy), (3) transfer of training (hypercorrection) and (4) failure in rule application. Among them, apart from negative transfer which leads to the interlingual errors, the other three all cause intralingual errors. In the case of the intralingual errors, the transfer of training plays a larger role. To a certain degree, overgeneralization sometimes occurs after the art students receive overcorrection or excessive drills on some grammatical items.

VI. Pedagogical Suggestions

In this part, pedagogical implications of the findings will be discussed.

Initially, the errors the college art majors commit indicate the levels of their English proficiency or their IL competence. Most of the art majors know some rules of English participles but fail to apply them correctly. According to Corder (1967), the learners in this stage need further internalization of target language rules.

Secondly, after two-year-college-English study, the art majors make a little improvement in their participle use. It is advisable that the English teachers in the colleges of arts should dedicate some of their energy to the grammar teaching and help the art majors to master this unique and important grammatical item.

In reality, grammar teaching has experienced many ups and downs in the process of English teaching. To some extent, grammar teaching has been questioned, but traditional opinions all regard grammar teaching as an indispensable part in English language teaching. It is suggested in the current study that English grammar should be taught in colleges, especially in the art colleges.

In resent years, quite a large number of instructors in colleges have devoted themselves to the improvement of their students' English proficiency, especially their listening and speaking abilities. They lay much emphasis on the English communication and attach less importance to the grammar teaching. Consequently, many students in the art colleges today have an awful mastery of the basic knowledge of English grammar. They aren't able to comprehend the passage well or to write grammatical sentences. Many of the compositions they write are unreadable. No wonder the result of the current study shows that the art majors' knowledge of participles is incomplete and there is no significant difference between the art majors of lower grade and those of upper grade in the acquisition of English participles---a very important grammatical item.

Moreover, students nowadays are faced with different kinds of English examinations to test their language abilities. For the students in the universities of arts, they are also required to take the College English Test Bank 4 and Bank 6. In the past, the CET-4 had a question type---vocabulary and structure, which was designed exclusively to test the students' grammar. In order to pass the examination, the art majors have to do the specialized exercises on grammar and learn it attentively. However, this question type is cancelled now. In the CET-4 in June in 2009, which all the subjects of the second group in current study participated in, there is no one question designed exclusively for testing the usage of English participles. Moreover, more than half of the art students can pass the CET-4 without knowing the participles well. Consequently, the instructors in the colleges of art ignore the purposeful training on this grammatical item and the art majors also pay little attention to it.

As we all know, the language abilities are composed of both knowledge and skills of language, and it is impossible to virtually acquire a language if we ignore its grammar study. In other words, the abilities of using English, both in English writing and in English speaking, will be efficiently improved by a good mastery of its grammar. Therefore, grammar teaching in the art colleges is an indispensable procedure in the English teaching, and English teachers should reconsider the role of grammar and come up with appropriate and practical approaches to help change the situation.

Thirdly, the Chinese art majors still rely unconsciously on their mother tongue and always adopt the word-for-word translation strategy while using English participles, and it thus requires that English teachers in the colleges of arts should make the students aware that Chinese and English are quite different in the verb systems, train them to think in English and give them effective instructions in their English learning strategy. Besides, intralingual errors are more responsible for the bad performance in the art students' participle use, and among the intralingual errors, transfer of training plays a larger role. Therefore, a proposal is put forward that the English teachers should encourage more frequent and practical use of participles in the art majors' translations, writings and speaking rather than overcorrect their errors or train them to do the excessive exercises on a specific rule of the participles.

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Teaching Grammar in Context: Why and How?

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Abstract—**Grammar instruction is one of the most difficult issues of language teaching. Context-based grammar holds an important place for effective learning. It will be more motivating for learners if grammar is taught in context as students will have an opportunity to perceive how the new grammar structures work. Grammar rules are made easier if they are given in a context and teaching grammar in context provides accuracy in the target language. This article explains why we should teach grammar in context and presents two sample lessons.**

Index Terms—**teaching grammar, context, accuracy, communication**

I. INTRODUCTION

Grammar is rules of a language. "Grammar is a system of meaningful structures and patterns that are governed by particular pragmatic constraints" (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). In another definition "grammar is a description of the rules for forming sentences, including an account of the meanings that these forms convey" (Thornbury, 1999, p.13).

In foreign language acquisition accurate understanding of the language structures is the key part so teaching grammar is an essential aspect of foreign language instruction. There has always been a debate about the most effective way of teaching grammar. Grammar instruction through context positively affects learners' competence to use grammatical structures accurately in language skills. It is always useful for learners to see how language works in sentences or paragraphs; therefore, teaching grammar in context will give learners opportunities to see how grammatical structures function in sentences. Teaching grammar in context will help learners to acquire nature of the language which will facilitate their understanding of the language.

II. WHY WE SHOULD TEACH GRAMMAR

Grammar instruction should not be ignored. About grammar teaching, Krahnke (1985, p.598) suggests that "much of the effort spent arguing against the teaching of grammar might be better spent on convincing true believers in grammar instruction that grammar has a newly defined but useful role to play in language teaching and in showing them what it is" (Terrell, 1991, p.54). For a better language improvement, grammar plays a crucial role.

To be an effective language user, learners should study grammar because grammar skills will help learners to organize words and messages and make them meaningful. Knowing more about grammar will enable learners to build better sentences in speaking and writing performances. A good knowledge of grammar helps learners to make sentences clear enough to understand. Improper use of grammar will not convey meaningful messages. Tabbert stresses the importance of grammar simply as: "It is frequently pointed out that students confuse lie and lay, do not choose who and whom correctly, say infer instead of imply, mismatch subjects and verbs, mix up pronoun reference, use double negatives, etc., and that these mistakes are evidence of their need to study grammar" (Tabbert, 1984, p.39).

To establish an effective communication, learners need grammar skills; therefore, without grammar, speech gets meaningless. Grammar is an essential aspect to communicate effectively. Moreover, grammar simply is creating well-organized reading and writing performances. John Warriner supporting this idea (n.d., p. 8) writes: "The chief usefulness of grammar is that it provides a convenient and, indeed, as English is taught today, an almost indispensable set of terms to use in talking about Language (Tabbert, 1984, p. 40)."

Grammar will give learners the competence how to combine words to form sentences. To create fully-developed sentences, grammar knowledge is indispensable. With little understanding of how language functions, learners cannot develop their language skills. "Just as there are careful and effective drivers who do not know what makes a car run, so there are those who, through practice and skillful observation, have become satisfactory, even effective, writers with very little understanding of the mechanics of the language. But it follows that the more you know about the form and function of the parts that make up the larger unit, the sentence, the better equipped you are to recognize and to construct well-formed sentences...." (Emery, et al, 1978, p. 1)

Grammar instruction holds an important place in foreign language learning. It needs to be noted that grammar skills will make great contribution to language competence. "The study of the structure and history of language, including English grammar, is a valuable asset to a liberal education and an important part of the English program. It should, however, be taught for its own sake, not as a substitute for composition, and not with the pretense that it is taught only to improve writing" (NCTE Commission on Composition, 1974, no. 12).

Teaching grammar is to show how language works. Accurate teaching of grammar guides learners how to use the language correctly. Azar highlights the significance of teaching grammar as: "One important aspect of grammar teaching is that it helps learners discover the nature of language, i.e., that language consists of predictable patterns that make what we say, read, hear and write intelligible. Without grammar, we would have only individual words or sounds, pictures, and body expressions to communicate meaning. Grammar is the weaving that creates the fabric" (Azar, 2007). To establish precise sentences, grammar knowledge is essential. In another idea about why teaching grammar is important Ellis writes: "Grammar Teaching involves any instructional technique that draws learners' attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them either to understand it metalinguistically and / or process it in comprehension and / or production so that they can internalize it" (Ellis, 2006, p.84).

Language acquisition without grammar will be confusing. Learners will fail to use the language correctly without grammar skills. "People now agree that grammar is too important to be ignored, and that without a good knowledge of grammar, learners' language development will be severely constrained" (Richards, Renandya, 2002, p.145). Richards and Renandya point out two good reasons for teaching grammar (2002, p.152):

a) Comprehensibility:

Knowing how to build and use certain structures makes it possible to communicate common types of meaning successfully. Without these structures, it is difficult to make comprehensible sentences. We must, therefore, try to identify these structures and teach them well.

b) Acceptability: in some social contexts, serious deviance from native-speaker norms can hinder integration and excite prejudice- a person who speaks 'badly' may not be taken seriously, or may be considered uneducated or stupid. Students may therefore want or need a higher level of grammatical correctness than is required for mere comprehensibility.

Teaching grammar will help learners to understand the nature of language. Azar notes down the benefits of grammar teaching as: "One of the principal benefits of GBT (Grammar-Based Teaching) is that it helps students gain an understanding of grammar concepts: concepts such as subordination and coordination; concepts of expressing time relationships through the use of verb forms; concepts of nouns and adjectives, subjects and verbs, clauses and phrases. Students can understand grammar concepts with simplified terminology, with a minimum of metalanguage and grammatical analysis, and even without definition of key terms such as noun or verb" (Azar, 2007). With a good knowledge of grammar, the relationship between grammatical concepts gets clear. Being aware of this relationship facilitates understanding the language.

Grammar skills will enable learners to be aware of parts of a language such as verbs, and nouns. Learners will understand and use the grammatical concepts better if they study grammar. Mulroy states the importance of grammar teaching as: "Sentences always have and always will consist of clauses with subjects and predicates and of words that fall into classes fairly well described as verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections. Individuals who understand these concepts have a distinct advantage over others where the use of language is involved—and that means everywhere" (2003, p.118).

Grammar instruction provides learners with a better improvement. Grammar knowledge will increase learners' comprehension of the language. Azar, from her experiences writes that "I observed that students in my writing class who had experienced grammar instruction had an advantage over those students who had not. Students with a good grounding in grammar needed only to be reminded that, for example, they were trying to say "I was really bored" not "I was really boring." Those without that grounding in grammar needed a lot more teaching time in order to understand, just as one example, the difference between –ing and –ed adjectives (Azar, 2007)".

III. WHY WE SHOULD TEACH GRAMMAR IN CONTEXT

"Across the various languages and subsystems of grammar, perhaps the most widely practiced traditional approach to grammatical instruction has been portrayed as the three Ps- present, practice, produce" (Larsen-Freeman, 2009, p.523). Long and Doughty, criticizing the three Ps model, state that the traditional approach has some disadvantages. "One of the most trenchant criticisms of this approach is that students fail to apply their knowledge of grammar when they are communicating. Students know the grammar- at least, they know the rules explicitly- but they fail to apply them in communication. This problem has been discussed by others as the "non-interface" problem, in that there is no apparent connection between explicit knowledge of the rules and implicit control of the system, and the "learnability problem" following from the observation that grammar is not learned in a linear and atomistic fashion" (Long & Doughty, 2009, p. 523). In this approach students are unable to use the grammar rules in speech. They do not understand how grammar rules work in a sentence. Learning grammar in context will allow learners to see how rules can be used in sentences. "Language is context-sensitive. This means that, in the absence of context, it is very difficult to recover the intended meaning of a single word or phrase" (Thornbury, 1999, p.69).

"The teacher's chief task when teaching grammar is to show the students what the language means and how it is used; and must also show them what the grammatical form of the new language is and how it is said and written" (Harmer, 1991, p.56). Teaching grammar in context will give learners an opportunity to understand how language works and this will improve their communication skills. "Students need to get an idea of how the new language is used by native speakers and the best way of doing this is to present language in context" (Harmer, 1991, p.57). Accuracy in language

acquisition plays an important role to understand both speaking and writing performances. "Context gives a more precise understanding of how to use the grammar, and provides accuracy in the studied language both in oral and written skills" (Wajnryb, 1990, p.6).

Presenting grammar in isolated sentences will not allow learners to see how grammatical structures function in sentences. "By dealing with related units of information rather than isolated bits, more efficient processing becomes possible" (McLaughlin, Rossman, McLeod, 1983, p.138). Context-based instruction has always been useful for learners. "Students need to learn language in logical contexts, either through authentic discourse-length input or through language learning materials that stimulate authentic input using sentences that follow in logical sequence" (Hadley, 2003, p.152).

Brown explains the advantages of context-based teaching as:

"A single sentence can seldom be fully analyzed without considering its context. We use language in stretches of discourse. We string many sentences together in cohesive units such that sentences bear interrelationships…

Both the production and comprehension of language are a factor in our ability to perceive and process stretches of discourse, to formulate representations of meaning from not just a single sentence, but referents in both previous sentences and following sentences" (Brown, 1980: 189).

In another criticism of teaching grammar through isolated sentences, Nunan writes that "in textbooks, grammar is very often presented out of context. Learners are given isolated sentences, which they are expected to internalize through exercises, involving repetition, manipulation, and grammatical transformation. These exercises are designed to provide learners with formal, declarative mastery, but unless they provide opportunities for learners to explore grammatical structures in context, they make the task of developing procedural skill- being able to use the language for communication- more difficult than it needs to be, because learners are denied the opportunity of seeing the systematic relationships that exist between form, meaning, and use" (Nunan, 1998, p.102). In grammar instruction the goal is not to teach grammar rules but to teach how to apply them in language skills. "What many may not realize is that, with the absence of transformational stage, we are training ELL students to become grammarians who may excel in diagramming and analyzing language but fail to apply this knowledge to communicative use" (Frodesen, 2001; Leki, 1992). "Students need guidance to translate and transfer traditional grammar knowledge to functional use" (Hillocks, 1986). Unless learners know how to apply grammatical concepts in language skills, knowledge of grammar will not be useful.

"We have learned that grammar should not be taught in isolation from content. But then, neither should content be taught without regard to the language involved. A carefully planned integration of language and content however, holds considerable promise" (Swain, Lapkin, 1989, p.153). Weaver stresses that teaching grammar in isolation will not be useful for learners and concluded that (2001, p.18) "teaching traditional grammar in isolation is not a very practical act". Thornbury adds "if learners are going to be able to make sense of grammar, they will need to be exposed to it in its contexts of use, and, at the very least this means in texts" (Thornbury, 1999, p.72).

"Teaching grammar in context provides a meaningful framework that connects to reality in the targeted language" (Anderson, 2005). Nunan stressing the advantage of teaching grammar in context writes: "An approach through which learners can learn how to form structures correctly, and also how to use them to communicate meaning. If learners are not given opportunities to explore grammar in context, it will be difficult for them to see how and why alternative forms exist to express different communicative meanings" (Nunan, 1998, p.103). "Many researchers stress the fact that learners need to experience grammatical conventions in various contexts in order to control and use them correctly" (Anderson, 2005). Context-based teaching will help learners how grammar structures function in context that will give them an opportunity to develop their comprehension of the grammar rules.

Byrd states that when grammar is studied as arising from context, then a variety of forms emerge as essential to the expression of particular meanings in particular discourse contexts (Byrd, 1998). "It's not just that different types of verbs are related to each other but that in particular kinds of discourse the idea of, relationship must be expanded to include the bond among verbs, nouns, adverbs, textual order, and even particular vocabulary" (Byrd, 2005, p.546).

IV. How to Teach Grammar in Context

"In genuine communication beyond the classroom, grammar and context are often so closely related that appropriate grammatical choices can only be made with reference to the context and purpose of the communication" (Nunan, 1998, p.102). "Some advantages of this method are, students are exposed to the target language in an authentic or near authentic setting, they see or hear the target language before having to focus on it" (Riddell, 2003, p.46).

Using dialogues is an effective way of teaching grammar. "The use of dialogues in grammar teaching is useful because the use of dialogues generally matches learners' expectations of how language is used in the real world: people use language primarily to talk to each other" (Thornbury, 1999, p.76).

In the first sample lesson Scott Thornbury uses a scripted dialogue to teach the present simple to beginners: In the lesson the teacher has chosen the following recorded dialogue from a coursebook to use as a vehicle for introducing the present simple with adverbs of frequency (e.g. usually, always) to a group of beginners (1999, p.73).

Joe: What do you do on weekends?

David: well, that depends. During the school year, I usually have to study on Saturdays.

J: And how about on Sundays?

D: Well, we always have lunch together, you know, the whole family. Then after lunch, I sometimes go to the park and meet my friends.

J: Oh? What do you do there?

D: We play soccer, take a walk, or just talk. After that, I go out. I usually go to the movies.

J: How often do you go out of the city?

D: About once a month. My uncle has a small farm in the mountains, so I sometimes drive up there.

J: That sounds nice. Do you go alone?

D: No, my mom, my two sisters and some of our friends usually go too.

J: But why do you go?

D: A lot of things: green trees, clean air, and no people.

J: Oh, just like LA!

D: Ha! That's a good joke.

(adapted from *How to Teach Grammar*, Scott Thornbury)

Thornbury explains the steps as:

In the first step the teacher tells the class that she is going to play them a conversation between two friends. She asks students to close their books and to listen to the first part of the conversation and to answer this question: What are they talking about: *last weekend, next weekend, or every weekend*? In the second step once she has established that the conversation is about every weekend she asks the students to listen to the whole conversation and to put these words in the order that they hear them: *movies, drive, soccer, go out, study, lunch, park, walk.* In the third step she asks the students if they can tell her which of the activities in the list David does on Saturdays, on Sundays, and about once a month. In the fourth step the teacher asks learners to listen for the following words and to match them with the words in the list on the board: *usually, always, sometimes*. For example:

usually study

always have lunch

sometimes go to the park

In the fifth step the teacher asks learners to focus their attention on two or three of these sentences and to tell her exactly what the speaker says. For example:

We always have lunch together

I sometimes go to the park.

In the sixth step the teacher draws the students' attention to the form of the structure, underlining the verbs and explaining that the present simple is used for routine activities. In the seventh step she asks learners to write two or three more sentences about David, using the above sentence pattern, i.e. subject + adverb + verb + …

In the eighth step students listen to the conversation again and check their answers to Step 7, and in the final step she invites the students to write four or five original sentences about themselves using the pattern she has highlighted in step 6 (Thornbury,1999, p.73-74).

"What is important in this exercise is to choose a text with a high frequency of instances of the targeted grammar item. This will help learners notice the new item, and may lead them to work out the rules by induction" (Thornbury, 1999, p.75). Through conversations grammar can be instructed easily and it will facilitate learner's perceiving the rules better. "Communicative teaching and grammar teaching are not mutually exclusive. They fit hand in glove" (Azar, 2006, p.3).

In the second sample lesson David Riddell teaches two English tenses in a context:

Bertrand is French and he lives and works in the north of France. His English is very good because he studies it at school and uses it in his job. A few months ago, he went to San Francisco for the first time to visit some friends he met in France a few years ago. He stayed for a week and in that time Bertrand and his friends had a very busy time – they visited Fisherman's Wharf, rode the cable cars, saw the sea lions by Pier 39, ate in a different restaurant every day, walked up the steep hills, and did lots of shopping in the fantastic department stores. And, of course, they took lots of photographs.

At dinner one evening Bertrand and his friends- Marie, Myrianne and Norbert- were having dinner when the fire alarm sounded, but the waiters didn't seem to be worried, they just carried on working. Everyone around them carried on eating. They thought it was so weird, everyone carrying on with their meals even though the fire alarm was sounding. Bertrand and his friends decided to get out quickly, but just as they went out of the door they saw a sign by the entrance warning customers that there was going to be a fire alarm test that evening and they should ignore it. Bertrand and his friends quietly sat back down again to continue their meal feeling a bit embarrassed (adapted from Teaching English as a Foreign Language, David Riddell).

Riddell explains the steps as:

In the first step the teacher asks the class if anyone has been to/would like to go to San Francisco. If anyone has, they can tell the others about it. If no one has then they can tell you what they imagine San Francisco to be like. Alternatively the teacher shows pictures of San Francisco to get the class talking about it.

In the second step the teachers tells students that they are going to read about Bertrand who visited San Francisco. They read the text and answer the questions:

Why did Bertrand visit San Francisco?

How many people was he with?

Why did they stop eating?

Did they finish their meal later?

In the third step the teacher highlights the sentence from the text *They were having dinner when the alarm sounded.*

In the fourth step the teacher asks students to find other examples of the past progressive and the simple past in the text, to underline them and discuss the use of these tenses in pairs or small groups.

In the fifth step the teacher makes the following points.

In this example from the text, we are using two verb forms – the past progressive (continuous), and the past simple. The progressive is *were having* and the simple is *sounded.* In the sentence, they started dinner before the fire alarm sounded, and may or may not have continued after. Thus, the simple interrupts the progressive.

In the sixth step the teacher asks the students to write sentences using these two tenses (2003, p.43-44).

Through context learners will see the usage of grammatical patterns better, and the context will help them understand how to use grammar forms and structures. In the following context again two English tenses are presented.

A Special Offer

Abibus have been producing top-class cars with unbeatable value for 12 years. We have been talking to you our customers a lot recently to find out if there was any way of making our cars even better than before and you told us that our product is as good as it gets. The only way to make Abibus cars even more attractive would be to reduce the price, but that can't be done… or can it? Well, yes it can! From the beginning of next year, for a period of six months, we are cutting the cost of all our Abibus cars by 10%- yes 10%! So from January 1 next year, Abibus cars will be 10% cheaper, but still top class. We have been doing business with you for 12 years. Now for the next 12!

(adapted from Teaching English as a Foreign Language, David Riddell)

Using this text, present perfect and perfect progressive tenses are taught. The teacher highlights the perfect sentences in the text and following the steps given above, these two tenses can be presented to learners of English. An advantage of learning grammar in context is learners will see how structures function in sentences and how sentences are related to each other. This text will help learners to identify the differences between these two tenses and learners will have ideas what these tenses mean and how they are used.

V. Conclusion

Grammar instruction is a difficult issue in language teaching. Teaching grammar through context will help learners perceive the structures of the language effectively. If learners are given grammatical structures in context, they will be able master the language better. Teaching grammar in context will help learners to acquire new grammar structures and forms. Learners will use grammatical conventions more effectively in communication if they learn them in context.

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Schema Theory in Reading

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Abstract—The term "schema" was first used in psychology with the meaning of "an active organization of past reactions or experiences". It assumes that written text does not carry meaning by itself. Rather, a text only provides directions for readers as to how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their own previously acquired knowledge. The theory of Schema can be used to help guide students to comprehend a text from the global point of view. Therefore, the roles of Schema theory in comprehension cannot be ignored.

Index Terms—schema, schema theory, reading

I. Definition of Schema

Schema theory is an explanation of how readers use prior knowledge to comprehend and learn from text (Rumelhart, 1980). The term "schema" was first used in psychology by Barlett as "an active organization of past reactions or experiences" (1932,p.201), later schema was introduced in reading by Rumelhalt (1980), Carrell (1981) and Hudson (1982) when discussing the important role of background knowledge in reading comprehension. Rumelhart (1980, P.34) define schema as "a data structure for representing the genetic concepts stored in memory ". Anderson and Pearson (1984, p.42) define it as "an abstract knowledge structure". Medin and Russ (1992, p.246) simply put schema as "a general knowledge structure used for understanding".

The fundamental tenet of schema theory assumes that written text does not carry meaning by itself. Rather, a text only provides directions for readers as to how they should retrieve or construct meaning from their own previously acquired knowledge. This previously knowledge is called the readers' background knowledge (prior knowledge), and the previously acquired knowledge structures are called schemata (Barrlett, 1932; Adamsand Collins, 1979; Rumelhart, 1980). The schemata of a reader are organized in a hierarchical manner, with the most general at the top down to the most specific at the bottom. According to schema theory, comprehending a text is an interactive process between the reader's background knowledge and the text. Efficient comprehension requires the ability to relate the textual material to one's own knowledge. As Anderson (1977, p.369) point out, "every act of comprehension involves one's knowledge of the world as well". Reading comprehension operates in two directions, from bottom up to the top and from the top down to the bottom of the hierarchy. Bottom-up processing is activated by specific data from the text, while top-down processing starts with general to confirm these predictions. These two kinds of processing are occurring simultaneously and interactively, which adds to the concept of interaction or comprehension between bottom-up and top-down processes (Carrel and Eiserhold, 1983).

II. Types of Schemata

According to the nature of contents, different types of schemata have been suggested: i. formal schemata, relating to the rhetorical structure of the text; ii. Content schemata, relating to the content of a text read; and iii. Cultural schemata, more general aspects of cultural knowledge shared by larger sections of a cultural population, iv. Carrell(1988) had also added linguistic schemata (Urquhart and Weir, 1998, p.71).

i. A formal schema refers to "background knowledge of the formal, rhetorical organizational structures of different types of texts" (Carrel and Eisterhold, 1983, p.79).In other words, formal schema refers to the knowledge of the ways in which different genres are presented, with reference to Richards et al. (2000, p.405), they point out that schema or macro- structure refers to file underlying structure which accounts for the organization of a text or discourse. Different kinds of texts and discourse (e.g. stories, description, letters, reports, poems) are distinguished by the ways in which the topic, propositions, and other information are linked together to form a unit. This underlying structure is known as formal schemata. For example, the schema underlying many stories is: story=setting (state+state) +episodes (events) +reaction. That is, stories consist of a setting in which the time, place, and characters are identified, followed by episodes leading towards a reaction. Different genres have different structure. Lack of such kind of knowledge also contributes considerably to the problems in reading comprehension.

ii. Content schema refers to "background knowledge of the content area of the text" (Carreli and Eisterhold, 1983, p.80). It contains conceptual knowledge or information about what usually happens within a certain topic, and how these happenings relate to each other to form a coherent whole. It is an open-ended set of typical events and entities for a specific occasion. For example, schema for going to a restaurant would include information about services, menus, ordering dishes, paying the bill (giving a tip), and so on .Content schema are largely culture-specific. Therefore, cultural schema is usually categorized as content schema.

iii. Richard et al. (2000, p.117) define culture as "the total set of beliefs, attitudes, customs, behavior, social habits, etc., of the members of a particular society". Rivers and Temperly (1978, p.202) call cultural knowledge "socio-cultural meaning" which is "meaning which springs from shared experiences, values and attitudes".

Studies by Johnson (1981), and Carreli (1981), have shown that the implicit cultural knowledge presupposed by a text interacts with the reader's own cultural background knowledge of content to make texts whose content is based on one's culture easier to read and understand than syntactically and rhetorically equivalent text based on a less familial-, more distant culture.

Furthermore, different groups may interpret the same texts differently, as is showed in the study by Steffenson et al (1979). It is important to be sensitive to cultural differences, particularly, of the target culture, and without such cultural awareness there may be no efficient and total comprehension.

iv. Linguistic schema refers to the knowledge about vocabulary and grammar. It plays a basic role in a comprehensive understanding of the text. Eskey (1988, p. 94) claims that "good readers are both decoders and interpreters of texts, their decoding skills becoming more automatic but no less important as their reading skill develops". This is because that "Language is major problem in second language reading, and that even educated guessing at meaning is no substitute for accurate decoding" (Eskey,1988, p.97).In other words, successful comprehension of any text is impossible without effective decoding skills.

III.   Schema Activation and Instantiation in Reading

Schema activation is generally recognized as the process in which some textual stimuli signal the direction or area for the reader to look for and evoke the relevant schema from memory into the present reading task (Li and Cheng, 1997, p.295-296). One assumption about schema activation is that some words, or groups of words, or the title of a text, are highly suggestive and they can signal a certain schema. Textual stimuli affect a schema in two ways. If a stimulus is highly suggestive of a certain schema, that schema as a whole can be activated. For instance, the mention of a fire brigade may activate a "fire accident" schema. But more often than not, one such stimulus is insufficient for schema activation, it can just remind one of a certain slot which can fit into several schemata. The mention, for example, "acid" can signal a slot for schemata as "acid rain", "food processing", and so on. As more and more stimuli are provided, the possibilities become fewer and fewer and, ideally, the reader may concentrate on the one that is anticipated by the writer. If besides acid, other stimuli such as "litmus paper", "Bunsen burner" and "test tube" are also present, then it is highly probable that a "chemistry lab" schema will be activated.

The other way textual stimuli affect schema is that an activated schema will give schema-specific significance to some of the textual stimuli which otherwise do not have much obvious connection to one another. For example, the relation between "apron" and "chair" seems arbitrary and they may suggest, among other thing, a "kitchen" schema. But with "brush" and "clip", they in fact suggest a "haircut" schema. Once that schema is activated, "apron" and "chair" will be given a schema-related interpretation. Furthermore, other components, whether present in the text or not, which should also be included in that schema will also be recalled, for instance, "hairstyle", "shampoo", and so on.

Schemata instantiation refers to the particularized representation of the general abstract and stereotypical schemata which the reader brings to task. The schemata are abstract in the sense that they contain a slot or place holder for each constituent element in a knowledge structure. They are stereotyped in that they indicate typical relationships among the elements. The reader is involved in a process of constructing a correspondence between the relevant schemata and the givens or knows of a message. The ingredients needed to fill the slots will not always be found in the message itself, but may be reader supplied. As the correspondence is constructed, the reader gains a sense that the message in the input has been and is being comprehended. When the slots of the schemata are filled with enough particular cases, a schema is said to be instantiated. It is known until the schema is instantiated that the representation in the message makes sense and is consistent. In other words, comprehension of a message entails drawing information from both the message and the internal schemata until sets are reconciled as a single schema or message in which the constraints of both the graphic message and the internal schemata are satisfied (Anderson et al., 1977). What is semantically complete will depend upon the amount of completeness needed to reconcile the schemata as defined by the reader. As an example of this process, consider the following three sentences: He picked up his axe. He held it softly for a moment and blew sharp notes through its bell. The crowd listened and cheered him; they loved his saxophone playing. When the first sentence is read, it is interpreted and a schema is produced. However, when followed by the second sentence, the constraints of "axe", "blew", "sharp notes", and "bell" are not reconciled. At this point the reader may either dismiss the initial schema or become confused and continue to attempt reconciliation of the two sentences. Yet, when the third sentence is added, the reader may reconcile the schemata in reinterpreting and intimidating the definition of "axe" as a jazz instrument, namely a "saxophone". Alternatively, the reader can retain the schema from the first sentence and impose a reconciliation which is not correct. It has been indicated that the mental representation of the to-be-comprehended sentences is generally more elaborate and detailed than the words in the utterance might appear to entail. Thus, the first image may be so strong that it will not be reinterpreted. This is not a component problem or the result a linguistic ceiling. Only enough slots need to be filled to provide the meaning which leads to reconciliation and recognition. The image may be reconciled and no incoming information allowed filling slots and contradicting the instantiated schema.

In the 80s, the schema theory of reading, called the integral schema teaching model, began to be introduced into our country according to an essay by Hu Chundong and Wang Cairen (1998) entitled "On English Reading".

The integral schema teaching model emphasizes that reading is the positive intercommunication between reader and writer, and it focuses on the function of background knowledge in reading comprehension. Mr. Liu Longgen (1988) ever said in an essay that rational reading teaching put most of its attention on the linguistic form of the reading material and ignored the function of readers and their background knowledge; hence the development of students' reading ability was restricted. According to Guilian Brown in his The Nature of Comprehension, "the 1990s view of the discourse comprehension' insists that part of the interpretation is formed by inference. Such inferences are drawn on the basis of previous experience of life, or of similar text, or of films or television programs, or on the basis of emphatic

imagination, etc. As each sentence of the text is interpreted by the reader, together with inferences which permit its interpretation in that context, is assimilated into a constantly recreated matrix of ideas. It is sometimes suggested that the main problem for the foreign language learner lays net so much in lack of knowledge of the forms of language as in the lack of background knowledge of the culture and society from the foreign language springs. The schema theory of modem cognitive psychology believes that human's knowledge exists in the long-term memory as the schema forms and develops into a large three- dimensional schema net structure.

According to the integral schema teaching model, the schema refers to the fact that all kinds of knowledge can be grouped into some certain units and the building blocks of cognition. Schemata are hierarchical in that the large schema includes the small one, and the small schema includes the even smaller one. The schema has all kinds of categories, such as affair schema, situation schema, role schema, category schema, story schema and expository schema. (Chen Xiaochun, 1998, p.148-152) For example, "selling" is a scheme of affair schema structure. It includes buyer, seller, currency and the knowledge related to "selling". Those above factors are called variables. When human sensory system receives a message, much related knowledge in the schema net structure will be activated and the schema is used to explain some particular plot, so the variables will be particularized by some specific information. This particularization process is the so- called comprehension process.

According to the integral schema teaching model, there are certain relations between different parts of the schema, which can deepen and further the understanding of the reading material. All schema theories emphasize the non-r Text strategies

It refers to the producer's general decision-making and choice of the text produced in the producing process. While the text-strategic continuity is particular, the writer's choice of the text-strategic continuity is determined by the purpose of communication. In a word, it is the method the author adopts to arrange the layout of the whole text according to the purpose or function of the discourse. The continuity usually has the following styles: I Continuity of time. It is realized by a time chain at the front of the sentence or paragraph, and sometimes non-adverbial time expressions can occur in the time chain, ii. Continuity of place. It is also realized by an adverbial chain, which also includes the continuity of the non-adverbial marker, at the beginning of a sentence or paragraph, iii. Continuity of action .It refers to the continuity composed of the figures, animals, or those who are dealt with as a figure, iv. Continuity of topics. It refers to the continuity composed of the signified of the non-figure or non-animal entity that often occurs in an explanatory or argumental passage, v. Continuity of action. It usually conveys new information. In all, to abstract the text strategy in the discourse reading process not only can set a text strategy schema of a certain style step by step in the reader's mind, but can help the readers decode acroscopically, efficiently and correctly. (Liu Chendan, 1999, p.145-154) Just as Bransgord ever said, to look for meaning of the part from among of the whole, is the essential condition to interpret' the comprehension' from the view of the schema theory. That is to say, if we cannot find the meaning of the part from among the whole, there will be some problems with comprehension. Usually a discourse consists of many affairs according to certain relations and the affairs combine into a topic, which is a large schema. Therefore, whether the reader understands the text or not depends upon if he can find the topic schema. Actually we usually first look for the topic schema when we are reading. To look for the title at first is usually an unconscious behavior, it reflects our reading strategy: first scan the whole, and then try to get the meaning of the parts of from among the whole. Then the explanation of the text will be accurate and reasonable and done more quickly. (Chen Xiaochun, 1998, p.166-167)

The integral schema teaching model seems to be a perfect one to explain the reading process and to be utilized to teaching English reading at a college level, yet it tends to forget that reading occurs under certain circumstances with a definite purpose. As a matter of fact, teachers do train students' reading skills while imparting linguistic knowledge. But these reading skills are trained as separate skills and the students get the wrong idea that they should understand different texts with the same method.

Therefore, though the schema theory guide the students to improve from sensory thinking to imaginative thinking so that students can be active in their process of reading, guessing, confirming the text positively, it pays little attention to vocabulary and basic language points. So reading in this way tends to be a reading process only to acquire information and readers are easy to be satisfied with the general understanding while ignoring language points which need to be mastered.

IV. TEXT TYPES, TEXTS PATTERNS AND TEXT STRATEGIES

The text can be classified according to text-external criteria and the text-internal criteria. The text-external criteria are

related to the communication situation, such as the report, poem, joke, letter, advertisement, note, story, lecture etc, while the text-internal criteria are related to the form and content. A text can be classified as an expository text, a descriptive text, a narrative text, an argumentative text, a persuasive text, an evaluative text, and a procedural text. Kinneavy (1980) grouped text into 3 parts starting from the discourse purpose: the expressive texts with the focus on the author, the persuasive texts with focus on the readers, and the inferential texts with the focus on the topics. And then he further classified texts from the angle of facts: the descriptive texts focusing on the static state, the narrative texts focusing on the dynamic state, and the evaluative texts focusing on whether they have other choices on the current state. (Liu Chendan, 1999, p.125-126) Once readers have got the style of passage, they can make prediction to the passage they are going to read, and then the passive reading can be replaced by the active participating reading. During the reading process, readers can make constant guessing--- exemplifying---guessing--- exemplifying activities and grasp the macroscopic outline all the time, so that they will not trap into the labyrinth of language.

There is, actually, another method to classify texts from the text form and the content structure with the internal criteria. The following are some kinds of the most practical patterns' i. Problem-solution pattern. Take the following passage as an example:

"I was on sentry duty .I saw the enemy approaching. I tried to open fire. The gun's bolt jammed. Staying calm, I applied a drop of oil. That did the trick. I opened fire. I beat the attack." Here,

Situation: I was on sentry duty.

Problem: I saw the enemy approaching.

Solution: I tried to open fire.

Response: I beat off the attack.

ii. Claim-counterclaim pattern. In this pattern, the author first raises a claim or opinion generally accepted or partly accepted, and thus puts forward his own claim or opinion to counter-claim.

For example, "every other critic has said that on food and Cooking is brilliant, a revelation and a unique combination of scientific insight and literacy which sweeps aside all myth and jargon as none have done before. McGee's book is indeed well written, is full of good things and is good to have on the shelves as a continuing source of reference and quotes. But it also has its fair share of mistakes, omissions and misalignments of emphasis." The last comment by the author counter-claims the generally accepted remarks.

iii. Narrative pattern. Nearly all the writings will occur more or less in narrative patterns. The most important example is from Labov (1972)'s narrative structural pattern. He summed up on the base of natural narrative order, six elements: abstraction, orientation, complicating events, evaluation, resolution, and coda. Schiffrin (1981) adopted another pattern based on Labov's. That is, orientation (make the time, space and figure clear), complicating actions (the affairs which compose the story), evaluation (the comment on the story). Resolution (the verdict to the story).

iv. Question-answer pattern. It is similar to the problem solution pattern, but it always sets a question which is distinct and express in a questioning mode. And the development of the text is mainly to search a satisfying answer to the question.

v. General-specific pattern. It can also be called as general-particular pattern, general-example pattern, and preview-detailed pattern. In practical text, one pattern can occur independently, or combined with other patterns to form larger text. McCarthy (1993) argues that the macroscopic structure of this pattern can generally be divided into two categories. The first one is shown as: general statement---detailed statement 1---detailed statement 2---detailed statement 3---detailed statement 4---detailed statement 5----general statements. The second one is shown as: the general statement ---detailed statement ---more detailed statement--- more detailed statement (than the former one)---more detailed statement (than the former one)---......---general statement. (Liu Chendan, 1999, p.129-130)

These above text patterns are abstract frameworks, but they truly reflect the major features of the English discourse. Readers will surely be efficient in understanding the meaning of a discourse if they are familiar with the basic structural patterns.

Text strategies refers to the producer's general decision-making and choice of the text produced in the producing process. While the text-strategic continuity is particular, the writer's choice of the text-strategic continuity is determined by the purpose of communication. In a word, it is the method the author adopts to arrange the layout of the whole text according to the purpose or function of the discourse. The continuity usually has the following styles: i. Continuity of time. It is realized by a time chain at the front of the sentence or paragraph, and sometimes non-adverbial time expressions can occur in the time chain, ii. Continuity of place. It is also realized by an adverbial chain, which also includes the continuity of the non-adverbial marker, at the beginning of a sentence or paragraph, iii. Continuity of action .It refers to the continuity composed of the figures, animals, or those who are dealt with as a figure, iv. Continuity of topics. It refers to the continuity composed of the signified of the non-figure or non-animal entity that often occurs in an explanatory or argumental passage, v. Continuity of action. It usually conveys new information. In all, to abstract the text strategy in the discourse reading process not only can set a text strategy schema of a certain style step by step in the reader's mind, but can help the readers decode macroscopically, efficiently and correctly. (Liu Chendan, 1999, p.145-154)

In conclusion, the reading schema mainly has three functions as follows: i. Anticipating Function. With the schemata, the readers can guess the type of the text, can have different anticipation towards the topics of different types of texts,

and especially, the readers can guess the latter context of the text with the help of the former context of the text. ii. Supplementary Function. When readers find certain specific or essential information is insufficient in the reading material. They will activate the corresponding psychological schema and supplement the information related to the material during the reading process, iii. Selective Process. One aspect of this function is that when the schema is activated during the reading process, it constantly selects the most appropriate part to explain the reading material from the schema net structure. Another aspect is that when reading is finished, the schema will help to sort up its own instrument. The three functions relate to each other and work together to understand the text.

Reading is a dominant skill in learning. With the development of cognitive science, especially the cognitive psychology and information processing theories, many applied linguists and psychologists place different weight on reading. They tend to describe reading as a complicated process, which acquires an active involvement rather than a passive one. Some researchers   have become concerned about reading process rather than products. In consequence, three models of reading have been proposed to account for the comprehension process, such as bottom-up model, top-down model, and interactive model. It is the interactive model that fundamentally promotes the development of theories in reading, especially schema theory. In the schema-theoretical view reading is an interactive process. The interaction occurs at three levels: interaction between bottom-up and top-down processing, that between lower-level and high-level skills, and between reader's background knowledge and the background knowledge presupposed in the text. Bottom-up processing is activated by specific data from the text. Top-down processing starts with general predictions based on higher level schemata, then searches in the more specific level to confirm these predictions. Bottom-up processing and top-down processing always occur simultaneously and interactively in reading. Readers consciously or unconsciously use the two types of processing interchangeably to construct comprehension. Schema theory guides readers as they make sense of new experiences and also enable them to make predictions about what they might expect to experience in a given context.

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Developing Intermediate EFL Learners' Metaphorical Competence through Exposure

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Abstract—In this article we argue that Second language learners need Metaphorical Competence (MC) which is the ability to comprehend and use metaphors in natural communication. The lack of knowledge of metaphorical concepts often leads learners to get off on a wrong foot. Learning idiomatic expressions helps learners for better communication as well as language learning in the target culture and society. This paper reports on a study done to inspect the development of conceptual fluency and metaphorical competence in Persian students of English. A group of intermediate language students were selected to be examined for the usefulness of idiomatic expressions' instruction. At the end of the instruction it was revealed that it is possible to improve learners' conceptual fluency (CF) by the extended exposure to idiomatic expressions.

Index Terms—metaphorical competence, conceptual fluency, second language learners, idiomatic expressions

I. INTRODUCTION

It is obvious that language plays the lead role in communication all over the world. However, the effectivity of communication depends directly on the common understanding of both the speaker and listener who try to convey their meaning. It is noticeable that language and culture are inseparable, and they both stand in the social context. Thus, bringing the culture elements in teaching becomes more and more important. Having enough knowledge about the second language's culture, the L2 learner can comprehend that language precisely.

Among all the elements of language concerning culture, idioms are worth taking into account. Idioms are used very often in everyday communication, and fulfill the most important parts of typical conversations. Due to the difficulties of such idioms to learn and comprehend as a result of their confusing nature, English teachers must be aware of teaching the language culture as well as knowledge about that language.

Idiom is the epitome of prefab structure. Idioms are not well-defined, so literature makes attempts to define this term and find a cohesive terminology. To name some of the labels, Gloser (1984) uses the term *phraseological unit*, Moon (1997) chose the term *multi-word items*, Carter (1998) picks up the term *fixed expressions*, Howarth (1998) uses the term *phraseology*, while McCarthy(1998) prefers the traditional term *idiom.*

The introduction to the *Oxford Dictionary of Current Idiomatic English* states:'Familiarity with a wide range of idiomatic expressions and the ability touse them appropriately in context are among the distinguishing marks of anative-like command of English'.

From a psychological point of view, metaphors and idioms highlight the concept of semantic creativity, and it shows the capacity of speaker to understand and create word combinations which may be nonsense literally. Thus the comprehension of metaphor is a cognitive process. As a result, cognitive linguistics study language from the perspective of human cognition based upon cognitive science and cognitive psychology, and it attempts to investigate mechanisms in the process of comprehension and communication.

Idioms, indeed, constitute a difficult area of foreign language learning and teaching, because by definition an idiom is a group of words in a fixed order that have a particular meaning that is different from the meanings of each word understood on its own(Cambridge Dictionary). For example "*to have bitten off more than you can chew"* is an idiom that means you have tried to do something which is too difficult for you.

This paper attempts to provide a strategy for the teaching and learning of idioms inthe EFL classroom. Adopting a cognitive approach, idioms are seen as being motivated by underlying conceptual metaphors which are explained through a list of prepared requested expressions. The aim is to provide students with the suitable examples and situations to makesense of apparently incongruous expressions, that is, to build up their metaphoric competence,while making the learning experience enjoyable.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A number of studies carried out in the 1990s (e.g., Cronk and Schweigert 1992; Colombo 1993; Botelho da Silva and Cultler 1993; McGlone, Glcksberg, and Cacciari 1994) focused on idiom comprehension. Some of them such as Cronk

and Schweigert recognized acquaintance and literalness as measurable evidence for the computation and representation of idiomatic meaning in the mental lexicon; besides, other scholars (e.g., McGlone et al. 1994) were interested in the truth of ambiguous nature and the relationship between context and different types of idioms. On the other hand the role of abstruse nature of idiom processing was the main interest of others (Botelho da Silva and Cultler, 1993).

Generally, idioms are mostly recognized as an albatross in the achievement of a foreign language, due to its arbitrary, language-specific nature. However, the practicality of phraseological language to achieve a high level of communicative competence is revealed (Lattey 1986, Nattinger and Decarrico 1992, Howarth 1998, Littlemore and Low 2006). Littlemore and Low (2006) proved the fact that metaphoric competence has important role in conveying all aspects of communicative competence (grammatical, textual, illocutionary, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence).

Talking about idiomatic expressions, we have to pay attention to all aspects of its surroundings, such as metaphorical competence, conceptual metaphors, followed by conceptual fluency. In fact, cross-linguistic studies have shown that a wide range of idioms and conceptual metaphors have a universal root, indicating that the common source of metaphoric production is grounded in our sensorimotor experiences and our interaction with the physical world (GG. Lakoff and M. Johnson 1980, 1999, M.Johnson 1987, R.Gibbs, 2003).

Metaphorical Competence and Conceptual Fluency

Since 1985, the term **metaphor** has been used to refer to the all figurative language and the other aspects are considered as particular kinds of metaphor (Danesi 2003).

A subject matter in the study of SLA in recent years is the extent to which learners of an L2 learn how to express themselves in the target language using figurative speech going with the culture. Danesi (1986, 1992) has called this a neglected dimension in L2 teaching. Gibbs (1994), in investigating the psycholinguistic cases on figurative language, explains that in proper contexts people mostly use the metaphorical asset of a message rather than its literal meaning. Therefore, metaphors are feature of communicative interaction (cited in Lantolf & Thorne 2006, p.113). Danesi (1994) has made the term "Conceptual Fluency" to describe the ability of speaker to tap effectively into the cultural and linguistic reservoir of verbal images. So, being *conceptually fluent* in a language means to know how that language contemplates or illustrates its concepts based on the metaphorical structuring.

Language Learning and Conceptual System

Beck (1982) noticed that the conceptual system described by Lakoff and Johnson has possible applications in education, mainly in language study and cultural comprehending. Besides, Danesi (1986, 1989, 1992, 1994, 1995, 2003) has applied this view of language and thought to the field of SLT and SLA. He asserts that to learn a language entirely, we must have the ability to apply and encode the expressions in accordance with the conceptual system in which the language is originated. This ignored aspect of L2 pedagogy is what Danesi (1992) calls "Metaphorical Competence": the ability to comprehend and use metaphors in a language as used in natural discourse; that is, L2 learners are conceptually fluent when they have reached to native-like MC.

He argues that teaching has no taught this ability to L2 learners. *Conceptual Fluency Theory* suggests that underlying any given linguistic system is a conceptual system which operates as the source not only for language, but also for cognitive functioning in general: it is in terms of our conceptual system that we speak, think, perceive, and interpret the word. Therefore, to acquire another language, L2 learners ought to express themselves in the TL while applying the L2 conceptual system in a truly native-like situation. In order to be conceptually fluent is to be able to participate and interact with a target culture perception, and comprehend like a native.

Why are idioms used?

Idioms are generally a part of language, and it is not right to restrict it to just English. To express the meaning, idioms are more vivid, and of course more brief, comparing to the literal explanation. For example, it is told that an idiom gives all information which is needed but condenses it by giving a mental image that explains everything, so idioms give the meaning 'in a nutshell'. Idioms highly enrich the English language, and although it is possible to communicate correctly in non-idiomatic English, a student with only a superficial knowledge of English idioms will find him/herself at a serious disadvantage in his/her reading comprehension, and even more so while taking part in discussions and debates.

How do you learn idioms?

To learn numerous idioms, going through the English authentic texts or listening to native speakers will come in useful. After a while some idioms will become known, and the appropriate context to use will be learned. What is important to know in this case is to learn them contextually.

Why and when should we use idioms?

Idioms are one of the main categories of a language. So to communicate with foreign language speakers, we have to know the idioms. But we should use them when we're sure that we're using them correctly; we may use an idiom that is not right for the situation, and it sounds rather strange, it may mean something different to our intended use.

III. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In learning a language, vocabulary knowledge has an essential role in understanding and using that language. Besides, expressions convey literal or nonliteral meaning, but imply deeper meanings hidden under the surface meanings. These metaphorical meanings are mostly hard for foreign language learners to understand and use.

IV. Methodology

Participants

A group of 20 Persian-speaker, adult learners of English as a foreign language at the intermediate level were homogenized in terms of their English proficiency through astandard test of OPT, which was administered a month before the study. Participants were told that the results of the study are for educational purposes and were asked to write their names so that they would take the tasks seriously. Participants were both male and female whose ages ranged from 18 to 28. Even though the students were studying in the same level entitled by the institute, to confirm the homogeneity of each member of a group and to determine the proficiency level, an OPT (Oxford Placement Test) had been administered before the study was carried out.

Materials

After conducting a survey to find out what students like to discuss, they were asked to write the expressions they really liked to know in English for each topic. The aim behind this way of collecting the idioms was to ensure the interest of students. Then a list of most common and practical expressions requested by them, were prepared by the use of Cambridge Dictionary and English Idiom Organizers.

Procedure

The procedure has three steps in four different topics:

Step 1: having adiscussion on the topic (pre-test);

Step2: Instruction of the prepared list of expressions;

Step 3: having another discussion on the same topic.

As the first step of the procedure, the students were asked to discuss the first topic. Their voices were recorded at the time, to be transcribed later. From the next session, the process of teaching the list of idioms on that topic started. Sixteen idioms in each list were taught in four sessions-each session 4 expressions. The process of teaching the idioms was completely controlled.First of all; the idioms' meaning was explained for the students by using suitable contexts. In this way students understood the use and usage of those idiomatic expressions. What was really important for me to teach was to instruct the students how to use the expressions structurally.With respect to the fact that the goal wasto get students to not only understand idioms, but also learn how to use them effectively, the students faced with the appropriate examples for each expression, and then they were asked to give good examples themselves. Then, they were grouped in pairs to work together on the expressions. Each group was asked to be ready for role playinga conversation, the session after the instruction of that part. After presenting the students-made-conversation by the pairs, their classmates had to givea report about what they said, by the use of the expressions. After finishing the instruction sessions, in the fifth session, the students were asked to have another discussion on the same topic, and again their voices were recorded.The protocol for the other topics continued until the last session of the semester, to cover the entire topics.

V. Results and Discussion

Students' voices were recorded to be transcribed to find out the difference between the density of using expressions in the discussions before and after the instruction. Before having adiscussion on the results, it should be mentioned that in order to prevent the test effect, the specific time interval between the pre-test and post test, and also between the instruction period and the post-test were controlled.

The data showed that the density of expressions in the post test was higher than the one in pre-test, and it shows that the treatment was successful. However what was really interesting was the difference between using the expressions, by students, during the instruction and in the post-test. Although the students' voices were not recorded while practicing in the class during the four sessions of instruction, the researcher noticed they used the expressions more, in their own conversations and while reporting the others' conversations. As a result, they were expected to have higher density of expressions in the post-test. Having fewer expressions in post-test comparing to the practices in the classroom, can refer back to the variety of reasons, which can be a subject for further researches.

Watching the recorded pre-test revealed that the ability of students for using the expressions, except two of them who used more expressions, was somehow the same. They mostly used the routine cliché expressions, which are practical in every day conversation, and they face them regularly in previous semesters, such as *of course, as a matter of fact, etc.*

In the statistics analysis, descriptive statistics were used to gain primary information such as mean, the maximum and minimum amount, and the standard deviation.

The following table indicates the descriptive statistics for the 8 scores for the 4 topics, all of which wereextracted based on the data from 20 participants. In pre-tests the minimum score is 0, while in the post-tests the minimum score has raised up to 2. Concerning the maximum, we see that the scores 3 (pre-test T1), and 2 (pre-test T2,3,4) have increased up to 9 and 8 correspondingly. The mean for the pre-tests are 0.55, 0.75, 0.8 and 0.8, which are drastically grown to 6.25, 5.35, 5.2 and 6, in order.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Prt test T1	20	.00	3.00	.5500	.88704
Prt test T2	20	.00	2.00	.7500	.85070
Prt test T3	20	.00	2.00	.8000	.76777
Prt test T4	20	.00	2.00	.8000	.69585
Post testT1	20	2.00	9.00	6.2500	2.02290
Post testT2	20	2.00	8.00	5.3500	1.59852
Post testT3	20	2.00	8.00	5.2000	2.06729
Pos test tT4	20	2.00	8.00	6.0000	1.48678

For the inferential statistics Kolongraph-Smirnov test were used for obtaining normal and non-normal variables.Based on Kolmogrov-test, the hypothetical zero shows the normal variables, otherwise the variables will be non-normal. The statistic degree of the test is based on Z statistic, and for proving or rejecting the hypothesis we use the significance level, P-value. If the significance level is less than 0.05 ($\alpha < 0.05$), the variable will be non-normal, while the significance level of above 0.05 ($\alpha > 0.05$) shows the normal variables. Based on the result of Kolomogrov-Smirnov test , as the table shows in the appendices, variables T1 and T2 are non-normal, for which we use Wilcoxon test; and variables T3 and T4 are normal variables, for which we use T-test.

T1:

The table for comparing pre-test and post-test of T1 shows that the results for all the participants in post-test is more than the pre-test, and none of the participants has the same result in pre-test and post-test(Ties). The statistic level is -3.954 with the significance level of 0.000, which is less than 0.5. so the hypothesis of the equality of pre-test and post-test is rejected. Now the goal is to understand whether the instruction is helpful. The amount of post-test minus pre-test is equal to 20; that is, in all of them the density of using expressions in post-test are more than pre-test. So the instruction was helpful in T1.

TABLE2.
WILCOXON SIGNED RANKS TEST FOR T1

		N	Mean Rank
PostT1 - PrtT1	Negative Ranks	0[a]	.00
	Positive Ranks	20[b]	10.50
	Ties	0[c]	
	Total	20	
Z		-3.954	
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	

a. PostT1 < PrtT1
b. PostT1 > PrtT1
c. PostT1 = PrtT1

T2:

The result will be the same for T2, with the difference in statistic level, which is -3.943 for T2, with significance level of 0.000.

TABLE3.
Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for T2

		N	Mean Rank
PostT2 - PrtT2	Negative Ranks	0[a]	.00
	Positive Ranks	20[b]	10.50
	Ties	0[c]	
	Total	20	
Z		-3.943	
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	

a. PostT2 < PrtT2
b. PostT2 > PrtT2
c. PostT2 = PrtT2

Thus, in all 20 cases the expression density of participants' post-test were more than pre-test, and it shows that the instruction in T2 were effective, too.

T3:

As it was written before, we use T-test for the normal variables T3 and T4.

The level of statistic for T3, based on T-test is equal to 10.655, and the level of significance is 0.000, which is less than 0.05; so the hypothetical zero, to show the equality of pre-test and post-test, is rejected. The difference of means is 4.4, which is a significant difference, and it demonstrates the superiority of post-test over pre-test. Therefore the T3's instruction was meaningful and helpful.

TABLE4.
T-TEST FOR T3

|	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
PostT3 – PrtT3	4.40000	1.84676	10.655	19	.000

T4:

The same process was done for T4. The statistic level is 14.166, and the significance level is 0.000. Besides the difference between the means in pre-test and post-test is 5.2. it demonstrates that the post-test mean is 5.2 units more than pre-test's. therefore the T4's instruction was useful and effective.

TABLE4.
T-TEST FOR T3

	Mean	Std. Deviation	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
PostT4 – PrtT4	5.20000	1.64157	14.166	19	.000

Generally the instructions for all the 4 topics were meaningful. The following chart shows the mean in all the 4 variables, and demonstrates that the mean in all 4 topics have noteworthy achievement.
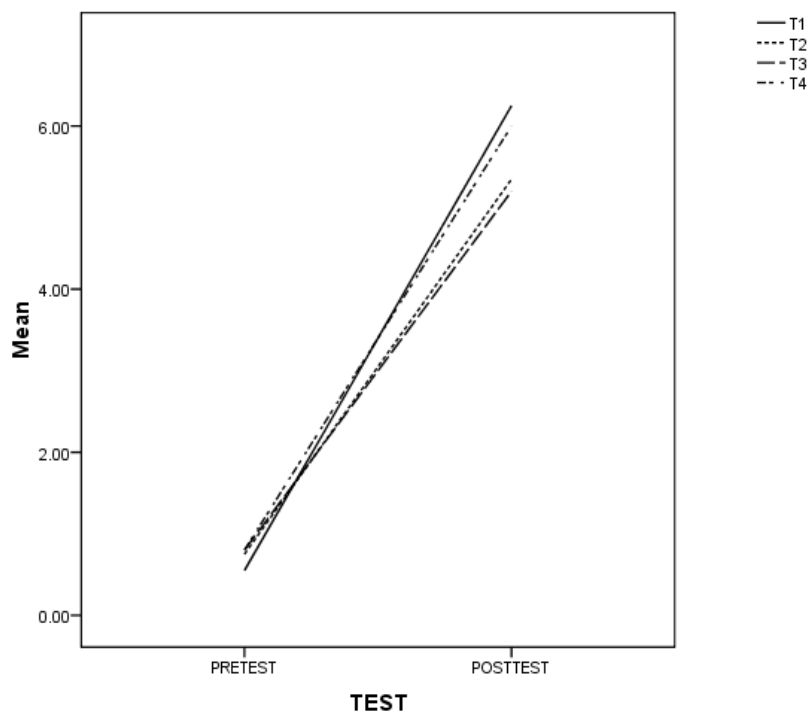
Checking the papers carefully, we come to the conclusion that they can use the mostly-used expressions in a correct way; That is, they know how to use them structurally, and also use them in an appropriate situation, which was the result of practicing for a long time during the past semesters.

VI. CONCLUSION

The importance of knowing figurative language while speaking as the native-speaker or non-native speaker, is now attested to by most researchers in the field. We know that figurative occur less frequently than many phrasal verbs, collocations and discourse markers so may deserve less teaching time. However, as Liu (2003) has mentioned, even low frequency figurative could be important occasionally so teaching students the skills to comprehend the figurative when it occurs in discourse will help them become more independent and conceptual fluent learners. On the other hand, lack of idiom knowledge will have an effect on the learners' overall performance. Hence, it is essential for both instructors and learners to deal with idioms in a well defined situations and contexts, where topics such as idiom definition or teaching methodology are solved. This is the only way the educational process as a whole will be advantageous for the participants.

It is noticeable that fluent non-native speakers, even highly competent speakers of English, significantly cannot perform as well as native speakers in understanding and comprehending idiomatic versus literal meanings of vague sentences in different situations. Many idioms can have several meanings depending on the context within which they are used.

Idioms can be difficult even for native speakers, and therefore, one cannot expect second language learners to know the meanings of idioms outside context or to produce them in their own speech or writing. So as these findings indicate, context plays an important role in the construction of idiomatic meaning; Thus having contextualized idioms in the syllabus can be really useful for improving learners metaphorical competence, therefore to make them conceptual fluent. Besides, what was extremely beneficial for students to learn and use the expressions was the multi-exercise which are used as the practicing of the idioms. After all, idioms are an essential part of language and they should not be ignored in language teaching even though they tend to be difficult for learners.

In general more idiom studies concentrating on second or foreign language learners should be conducted in order to learn more about the language learning process. It is difficult to say how much the given brief context and the tasks affected comprehension. Further research is needed to examine more carefully their impact. Moreover, further study is needed to examine more the effects of the students' background and involvement with the language on idiom comprehension.

APPENDIX

	Pre-test				Post-test					
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T1	T2	T3	T4	A1	A2
S1	0	2	0	1	6	5	6	7	3	24
S2	0	0	1	2	5	6	6	6	3	23
S3	0	1	1	0	5	6	4	6	2	21
S4	1	0	1	1	8	4	7	7	3	26
S5	0	1	0	1	3	2	2	5	2	12
S6	1	1	0	1	3	5	2	5	3	15
S7	0	0	1	0	7	4	8	7	1	26
S8	0	0	0	1	8	7	7	8	1	30
S9	0	1	0	0	7	6	4	6	1	23
S10	2	0	2	1	8	6	4	7	5	25
S11	0	0	2	0	7	5	7	8	2	27
S12	0	2	1	1	7	7	5	7	4	26
S13	2	2	1	2	9	8	6	4	7	27
S14	1	0	0	1	4	6	4	6	2	20
S15	0	1	0	0	2	3	2	2	1	9
S16	0	2	1	1	8	8	7	7	4	30
S17	3	2	2	2	8	6	4	6	9	24
S18	0	0	2	1	7	5	8	5	3	25
S19	1	0	1	0	8	5	8	7	2	28
S20	0	0	0	0	5	3	3	4	0	15

S: Student
T: Topic
A: Average score

ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

	PrtT1	PrtT2	PrtT3	PrtT4	PostT1	PostT2	PostT3	PostT4
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	1.710	1.391	1.124	1.177	1.094	.730	.757	.894
Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.042	.160	.125	.183	.660	.616	.400

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Interlanguage Pragmatics in SLA

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Abstract—**Interlanguage Pragmatics has gained more attention among Pragmatics researchers. This paper reviews the recent researches on Interlanguage pragmatics in Second Language Acquisition, and selects the research which focuses on learning process. It presents them into four groups: cross-sectional studies, longitudinal studies, research about pragmatic transfer, and instructed learning of L2 pragmatics. And it puts forward some research questions for further study, which may lead the researchers to obtain more practical information for promoting L2 pragmatics.**

Index Terms—**Interlanguage, pragmatics, SLA**

I. INTRODUCTION

"Interlanguage pragmatics is the study of nonnative speakers' use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge (Kasper, 1996, P.145)." In other words, it studies how non-native speakers understand and perform linguistic action in a target language, and how they acquire L2 pragmatic knowledge. It is relatively new research area that second language researchers noticed from the studies of pragmatics, but it attracts many researcher's interests for it significance in the pragmatics studies. Pragmatics is defined as "…the science of knowledge seen in relation to its users" (Mey, 1993, p. 5), and it was firstly proposed by the philosopher Charles Morris (1938) (Levinson, 1983).

Recently, SLA researchers pay more attention to interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), because L2 learners, even the high proficiency L2 learners usually make mistakes in their communication for their unawareness of pragmatic knowledge. And research shows that L2 learners' pragmatic mistakes are judged more unacceptable than their linguistic mistakes by their target language interlocutors (Blum-Kulka, 1997). Actually the research of ILP in SLA has a short history that it can be traced back no further than late 1970' (Kasper, 1992). And many researchers have criticized that research on Interlanguage Pragmatics has mostly studied on the comparison of the differences between L2 learners' production of speech acts and those of native speakers, few studies focused on the development issues of the acquisition of ILP (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Kasper, 1992; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Daives & Tyler, 2005). Therefore, this paper limits the research scope, and reviews the relevant researches, which focus on ILP learning in SLA field, to draw a clear picture of ILP research situation. Firstly, it lists and clarifies the studies according to the design feature into cross-sectional studies and longitudinal studies, and presents the studies on pragmatic transfer and the role of instructed learning of L2 pragmatics. Then, it does some evaluation about the current situation, points out some gaps, and proposes the direction for further research. Finally, based on the gaps found, it promotes four questions for further research.

II. RESEARCH OF ILP IN SLA

Most studies of ILP focus on second language use, rather than second language learning (Kasper, 1992). They can present the language using condition, but failed to show the language acquiring process. They are not really linked with SLA, but they are useful for exploring the real situation of L2 learners' knowledge or competence of Interlanguage pragmatics. Furthermore, interlanguage pragmatics has been mainly sociolinguistic rather than psycholinguistic, and the development issues haven't got enough attention (Kasper & Rose, 1999; Daives & Tyler, 2005). However, this review narrows down the research scope, selects the research which focuses on learning process, and presents them into four groups: cross-sectional studies, longitudinal studies, research about pragmatic transfer, and instructed learning of L2 pragmatics.

A. Cross-sectional Studies

Cross-Sectional studies mainly focus on one or more realization strategies of speech acts: request, invitation, apology, refusal, greeting, complaint by learners at different proficiency of different L1 background. While most studies research on the proficiency effects on L2 speech act production, some studies examined learners' metapragmatic assessment and comprehension of speech acts (Kasper & Rose, 1999). (see table 1 in appendix)

Oshtain and Blum-Kulka were the early researchers who study on nonnative speakers' assessment of the pragmatics appropriacy from a developmental perspective (cited in Kasper &Rose, 1999). The research showed that learners of Hebrew tend to accept L2 pragmatics norms after they had resided in the target community longer. It claimed that the

exact target language communication forces L2 learners acquire the target language faster than out of the condition. It emphasized the significance of living environment rather than proficiency in learners' ILP development. Then Takahashi and Dufon (1989) reported that as their proficiency increased, Japanese learners of English likely to prefer the direct requesting strategies, target-like realizations (cited in Kasper, 1992). In other words, the high proficiency L2 learner may acquire the pragmatics knowledge as their target language knowledge learning.

There are many studies examined learners production of speech. Studies on apologizing of Danish EFL learners (Trosborg, 1987, 1995), Janpanses ESL learners (Maeshiba, et al., 1996), and Cantonese EFL learners (Rose, 1998) found a consistent result that L2 learners have accessed to the native-like realization strategies, irrespective of proficiency (Kasper, 1992). These are exciting for both learners and teachers. However, based on this result, researchers got more encouragement to explore the effective learning process for learners.

Some studies investigate the development of pragmatic awareness. In Kasper's (1992) research which focused on assertiveness and supportiveness in NNS trouble talk, she found that proficiency affected on learners perception of qualifiers: with increasing proficiency, learners performed more native-like. In addition, she also pointed out that gender also affected on the learning process. Same as Kasper's, Koike's (1996) study showed that advanced English learners of Spanish performed better than low proficiency students in the comprehension of illocutionary force. But the flaw of this research is that it didn't comment on the strange finding that year 2 students performed worse than year 1 students, which released the demerit of the research. But these two studies were appealing enough to stimulate the later researchers to work on the pragmatics acquiring process. Another one is Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei's(1998) study which examined high proficient ESL and EFL learners' awareness of pragmatic and grammar. They found that ESL learner performed better in pragmatic appropriateness judgment than EFL learners, but ESL learners did worse in grammatical errors rating than EFL learners. It released the teaching and learning fact that EFL learning focused on grammar more seriously than ESL teaching and learning. And they claimed the learning context (EFL/ESL), proficiency, and learner versus teacher status affected on the learners pragmatics and grammatical awareness.

Several recent studies moved to focus on target norms. Hill (1997) investigated Japanese EFL learners' using of request strategies at three proficiency levels (cited in Kasper & Rose, 1999). He found that learners at all levels overused direct requests and underused indirect requests (hints). As their proficiency increased, they decreased the direct request strategies -- mainly the use of imperatives, and little change in the hinting strategies. Meanwhile, the use of conventionally indirect requests were increased nearly same as native speaker level. His research taught us that "conflating individual strategies into macrocategories may be deceiving unless the pattern displayed at macro level reproduces the patterns of the subsumed strategies" (Kasper & Rose, 1999, p.89). Similar result also found in Hassall's (1997) research which studied on Australian English speakers' requests in Bahasa Indonesia as a foreign language. Hassall found very different patterns of microstrategies hidden under learners' target-like use of macro strategies. Hassall generalized the result that learners have accessed to the same request strategies as native speakers but implemented them differently (cited in Kasper & Rose, 1999).

B. Longitudinal Studies

The longitudinal studies investigated not only the speech acts, but also pragmatic routines, discourse markers, pragmatic fluency and conversational ability. They mainly studied on the beginning learners. Most studies' data were collected within classroom and researchers noticed the effects of instruction on pragmatic learning. This section reviews some longitudinal studies within SLA field. (see table 2 in appendix)

Schmidt (1983) studied the acquisition of English of a Japanese adult, who located in Hawai'i for three years(cited in Kasper & Rose, 1999). The subject acquired English pragmatic through communicative interaction in English speaking environment without any formal instruction. However, some L1 pragmatic features remained at the end period of the observation. This research reminds teachers to notice the role of environment and communicative interaction in learners' second language acquisition.

With abundant target language input, L2 learner can master the accompanied pragmatics competence. Ellis (1997) studied the request strategies of two beginning ESL learners in a classroom setting through two years. Ellis focused on the development of request strategies of the subjects. She claims there are three stages of the request strategies experienced by learners. During the first stage, the utterance of request of learners are highly context dependent, minimalist realizations, and without any relational or social goals. The next stage, requests are mainly comes from unanalyzed routines. At the last stage (the end period of the observation), learners can perform productively with the request routine. During the two years, learners' use of direct requests decreased and the use of conventionally indirect request increased. Similar result also found in Kanagy and Igarashi's (cited in Kasper & Rose, 1999) study which examined English speaking children's acquisition of pragmatic routines in JSL immersion kindergarten. Ellis (1997) claimed her subjects acquired more restricted request than adult native speakers, the possible reason may be the limited input opportunities in the classroom.

Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford also noticed the importance of input and they implemented the longitudinal research in 1993 found that learners' difficulty in achieving sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic resulted from input and advisers' feedback (cited in Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 2005). In their later research (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1996), they investigated the nature of input available to learners in institutional setting of the academic advising session. They found the realization of speech acts, appropriate content and form, peers and status equals, the effect of stereotypes, and

the limitations of a learner's pragmatic and grammatical competence are the factors that may influence the development of learners' interlanguage pragmatics.

Although abundant input may assist L2 learner acquire the target pragmatics norms, it's hard for them to communicate appropriately like the native speakers. An interesting result found by Cohen (1997) that after a semester long course of Japanese learning, he acquired the ability of performing some speech acts, but it was far from what he expected. He was successful in the class perform, but he could not communicate in the target language effectively. He explained that might because the limited outside classroom learning opportunities. He also provided another issue that his resistance to the target sociolinguistic, such as using honorifics when speaking about a higher status person to an equal or lower status interlocutor. Following this issue, Siegal (1994) examined pragmatic development of four English speaking adult Japanese learners in Japan, and provided more insights into subjects' resistance of the unacceptable self-image (cited in Kasper & Rose, 1999). In order to develop our understanding of this issue, more research needs to be implemented in future.

C. Pragmatic Transfer

Pragmatic transfer is a major factor in shaping NNS' pragmatic knowledge and performance (Kasper, 1992). Many researchers studied on this topic, and they demonstrated that transfer existed at pragmatic level (Kasper & Rose, 1999). But as the pragmatic transfer is a complex process, there are many questions need further research. Takaskashi and Beebe (1987) proposed the assumption that learners' L2 proficiency was related with pragmatic transfer, but their research failed to prove that (cited in Takaskashi, 1996). Some other researchers explained this because of learners' limited L2 knowledge which prevented them transfer their L1 conventions. It is hard to study ILP only focusing on pragmatic transfer, because some other factors also influence the learning process. Olshtain (1983) and Robinson (1992) reported that learners tended to transfer their L1 knowledge when they obtain a universalist view as opposed to a relativist perspective on pragmatic norms (cited in Kasper & Rose, 1999). And Takaskashi (1996) claimed learners' transferability interacted with the degree of different requestive goal. She also stated the EFL class did not provide enough opportunities for developing pragmalinguistic awareness in L2. EFL classes usually focus on promoting learner's grammar proficiency, and neglect to provide the pragmatics knowledge. This is common phenomenon since they have limited time and teaching resources, and they have to pass the English tests which usually irrelative with the pragmatics knowledge.

D. Instructed Learning of L2 Pragmatic

Research on instructed learning is more practical for modern education. To date, this kind research is mainly studied the input and interaction opportunities for pragmatic learning in language classroom. Porter (1986) studied the small group NNS-NNS interaction, and he claimed that the input of socially appropriate expressions of opinions and (dis)agreement were not provided in the class (cited in Kasper & Rose, 1999). Bouton (1994) asserted that pragmatic instruction was generally facilitative and necessary when input was lacking. Furthermore, explicit instruction gained better result than implicit teaching, however, the explicit teaching worked well in raising consciousness, and it couldn't develop some aspects of skill. Eslami-Rasekh (2005) argued teachers need to raise learners' pragmatic awareness to facilitate them gaining fluent communication. And she also listed some teaching methods used for teaching pragmatics and some techniques for raising the pragmatic awareness of students. However, House (1996) reported that conversational responses were the only component of pragmatic fluency that did not improve through consciousness raising and conversational practice. Bialystok (cited in Kasper & Rose, 1999) explained the problem as that fluent and appropriate conversational responses need high degrees of processing control in utterance comprehension and production, and few occasional practices in foreign language classroom are not enough to develop these skills.

III. EVALUATION

The studies reviewed above present the increased position of methodology in constructing research and the trends of focusing on classroom setting in ILP research field (Kasper &Rose, 2002). As a 30 years old research field, ILP research has made a great development from nothing to now—plenty of research topics, various research methods being used. Certainly, compared with other research in SLA, there are a lot of undiscovered problems and topics need to be studied in the future.

First of all, most studies on ILP isolate pragmatics from other components of communicative competences (Kasper & Rose, 2002). Researchers need to exam the relationship of pragmatic and communicative abilities rather than focusing on each component of communicative competences separately.

Secondly, studies have shown that learning environment (learning context, and learning opportunities) would influence learners' pragmatic development. But the fact is that not all learners can access the target language environment, maybe they can listen to the target language songs, watch the target language movies, read the target language novels. But there is not scientific evidence show these methods may help. I think researchers need to figure out the special features of studying within the target environment, then provide teachers how to provide target-like learning environment in their own country. This is essential because to know pragmatics is important is not enough, we need to know how to cultivate learner's pragmatics proficiency effectively.

Thirdly, research show that most aspects of pragmatics are teachable and instructional intervention is more beneficial than no instruction focusing on pragmatics, and it has studied the effects of implicit and explicit instruction, peer interaction. However ILP researchers need to widen the range of theoretical orientation to explore more efficient teaching methods in pragmatics. With more theoretical instruction, EFL teachers may invent various pragmatics teaching methods match to their teaching condition appropriately.

Finally, pragmatics competences are not only inseparable from the components of communicative competences, sociocultural practices and values but also from personal views, preferences, and style, which may relate to learners' societal position and experience. With the light of Individual Differences theory, researchers need to take the factors age, gender, motivation, social and psychological distance, and social identity into their consideration to find out how do these factors affect on learners' pragmatics acquisition. It complicated to take these factors in to consideration, but they are necessary. We can say Pragmatics researchers have got a marvelous beginning, but there is a long way to go.

IV. RESEARCH QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

1.   What kind pragmatics knowledge is currently taught in L2 classroom?

In order to figure out the research direction to guarantee the further pragmatics studies work positively and effectively, researchers need to find out the current situation of pragmatics teaching and learning. According to my language learning experience, I have got nearly no information about pragmatics from classroom study. Maybe this is because I don't study in the language institution. But I think no matter the research result is positive or negative, it can present the current pragmatics teaching and learning situation, prepares teachers with basic information for course designing.

2.   What aspects of pragmatic knowledge learners need to know?

Nearly all researches stand at teachers' stance, such as Thomas (1983) claims students' unawareness of their L2 pragmatics, and even they are aware of the L2 pragmatic, they may still result in pragmatics failure. I think researchers should stand at learners' position and respect individuals' culture, value, preferences. In the global world, humans need to communicate with others. But productive communication only occurs through both sides' positive efforts. It is unfair that only one side make effort, and the other side act as the judge. We need to find out what pragmatics knowledge learners need extremely, and then facilitate them to acquire the critical pragmatic knowledge.

3.   How to promote L2 learners' awareness of ILP?

Studies show that high proficiency does not guarantee pragmatic success (Williams, 2005). What the effective way to develop learners' ILP, and to facilitate them practice pragmatics in real communication, is to raise learners awareness (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005). To date, few studies have examined the process of pragmatic teaching with different teaching method. Actually, the research aim is to facilitate teaching, now we have got what teachers need to do. Next step is to find out how to implement it.

4.   How to deal with learners' resistance of target pragmatics?

Some of L2 learners act unsuccessfully even they know the relevant pragmatic knowledge. That is because not all students can accept and adapt to the target pragmatic, some of them even resistant with target pragmatics. Teachers have to acknowledge and respect learners' individual differences and freedom in choosing options. But they also have the responsibility to help learners overcome their resistances to achieve successful communication. Research in the future needs to find out some efficient ways to deal with learners' resistance.

APPENDIX

TABLE 1:
CROSS-SECTIONAL STUDIES

Study	Focus	L1/L2	Subjects(n)	Data
Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 1986	request	English/ Hebrew	Low interm(80) High interm(80) Adv.(80) NS Hebrew (172)	DCT
Takahashi& Beebe 1987	refusal	Japanese/ English	Underfrad.(20) grad.(20) NS Japan. (20) NS engl.(20)	DCT
Trosborg 1987	apology	Danish/ english	High begin. intermed. adv. NS Danish. NS English (all NR)	roleplay
Takahashi & Dufon 1989	request	Japanese/ English	Intermed. (8) Adv. (8)	roleply
Omar 1991	greeting	English/ Kiswahili	Beginning(16) Int. –adv. (16)	DCT
Svanes 1992	request	Various/ Norwegian	Beginning Intermed. adv.	DCT
Kerekes 1992	Assessment of assertiveness	Various/ English	Low (28), intermed. (59), high (19), NS Engl. (34)	Rating scale
Robinson 1992	refusal	Japanese English	Intermed. (6) adv. (6)	DCT, verbal protocol
Trosborg 1995	Apology, request, complaint	Danish/ English	High beginning, intermed. Adv. NS Danish, NS English	roleplay
Houck & Gass 1996	refusal	Japanese/ English	Lower (4) High (4)	roleplay
Koike 1996	Comprehension of illocutionary force	English/ Spanish	Year 1 (46), year 2 (34), adv. (34)	Video-prompted Response, rating, scale
Meashiba et al. 1996	apology	Japanese/ English	Interm. (30), adv. (30), NS Japan. (30), NS English (30)	DCT, rating scale
Takahashi 1996	Transferability of request strategies	Japanese English	Low (65) High (77)	Rating scale
Hill 1997	request	Japanese/ English	Low (20) intermed. (20) Adv. (20), NS English (20)	DCT
Hassall 1997	request	English/ Bahasa Indonesia	Low (6), middle (15) high (2) NS BI (18)	Roleplay Rating Scale
Bardovi-Harlig &Dornyei 1998	Pragmatic vs. grammatical awareness	Diverse (15 lgs.)/ESL (173) Hungarian/EFL (370) Italian/EFL (112) Hungarian EFL teachers (25) NsAm.Engl. ESL teachers (28)	Low intermediate, low advanced, high beginners, intermediate, near-native	Judgment task
Rose 1998	Request apology compliment reponse	Cantonese/ English	P2 (20), P4 (14), P6 (19), NS Cantonese (15 per grade)	Carton oral production task

DTC = Discourse Completion Task
(Kasper & Rose, 1999, p.82-84)

TABLE 2:
LONGIDUTINAL STUDIES

Study	Focus	L1/L2	Proficiency	Data
Schmidt 1983	request	Japanese/ESL(1)	Beginning	Authentic discourse
Schmidt & Frota 1986	Conversational ability	English/ Portuguese (1)	Beginning	Diary, conversations
Bouton 1992, 1994	Implicature comprehension	Various/ ESL (30)	advanced	Multiple Choice
Ellis 1992, 1997	Repuest	Portuguese (1) Punjabi(1)/ESL	beginning	Authentic classroom discourse
Sawyer 1992	Pragmatic particle	Various/ JSL (11)	beginning	Socioling. interview
Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford 1993	Suggestion rejection	Various/ ESL (16)	advanced	Authentic discourse
Siegal 1994	Communicative competence	English(3) Hungarian (1)/JSL	Intermediate-advanced	Multiple
Kanagy & Igarashi 1997	routines	Am. English/ JFL(19)	beginning	Authentic classroom discourse
Cohen 1997	Pragmatic competence	Am. English/ JFL(1)	beginning	diary

Kasper & Rose, (1999)

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Language and Communication in the Pentecostal Church of Nigeria: The Calabar Axis

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Abstracts—This paper focuses on language use and communication in the Pentecostal church of Nigeria, with particular reference to Calabar in Cross River State. It is observed that language use and communication arises out of the doctrine characteristics of the church. This shapes all aspects of language and communication use in the church including literary devices in preaching and prayers, neologisms, kinetics and the music of the church. There is no doubt that the influence of the church not just in its beliefs and dogmas but in its use of language and communication has had an effect on the Christian community in Calabar. This effect should be used positively.

Index Terms—language, non-verbal communication, neologisms, kinetics, regulators, illustrators and literary devices

I. INTRODUCTION

There are many kinds of religion in the world. The oldest is the traditional religion, a religion in which people worship various deities and do homage to them. Others include Buddhism, Judaism, Hinduism, shinatoism etc Isayev(1997) claims that Christianity is five centuries younger than Buddhism having been born in AD 1 with the birth of the author and finisher of the faith, Jesus Christ. Islam followed in the 7th century AD.

One common strand runs through all religions - the adherents, worshippers and devotees have never seen their God but through faith they believe that God does exist (Offiong 2003).

Language therefore becomes the most important means by which Gods faithful can communicate, fellowship or commune with Him and each other. From the libation of the traditional worshippers to the psalms, the Lord's prayer, not to mention all books of the Bible and Koran, words and more words are the medium (Essien 2003).

Many Nigerians, according to Offiong (2003) believe that Pentecostal trends in Nigeria at large and Calabar in particular, take it for granted that the phenomenon emerged in the area for the first time out of the recent increasing contacts of Nigerians with the USA through Bible tracts , video and audios, cassettes, books and personal contacts. This assertion is true to a certain extent because in the past few decades European and American Pentecostal pastors and Evangelists have visited Nigeria for one crusade or another and Nigerian pastors have equally visited Europe and the USA for training in some Pentecostal organizations (Goshit 2002). Consequently in Nigeria, Pentecostalism exhibits traits of American Pentecostal influence in their language techniques and concepts. Its popularity has also been aided by tele-evangelism which started in the USA and gained popularity in Nigeria. Almost all notable tele-evangelists from the USA have had their programmes aired in the local media or been hosted here in Nigeria (Owens-Ibie 2002). The success of this can be attributed to tele-evangelism taking advantage of the total grip that the media have on popular culture (Marshall – Frantini 1998).It can therefore be said that Pentecostalism is alien to Nigeria and Calabar in particular.

Pentecostalism as a religious phenomenon owes its origin to the event of the day of the Pentecost in *Acts of the Apostles chapter 2:1-4* Pentecostalism derives its name from the historical event of the Pentecost. Pentecostalism is experiential Christianity resulting in the baptism of the believer in the Holy spirit as shown in speaking in tongues.

Baptism in the Holy Spirit follows conversion and is evidenced by speaking in tongues. The phenomenon of speaking in tongues is referred to as glossalias a Greek word meaning, "tongues" (Offiong 2003) The power of the Holy spirit in the individual is manifested in the gift of the Holy Spirit which Paul lists in *1 Corinthians 12:4-10.* Unlike the Aladura and some of the historic churches where infant baptism is encouraged. adult baptism by immersion is an important characteristic in the Pentecostal churches and organizations. (Offiong 2003).

A. Pentecostalism in Calabar

It is pertinent to point out that the early Pentecostal churches in Calabar emerged between 1933 and 1965. The prevailing socio-political condition during the period did not facilitate the rapid and noticeable impact of Pentecostalism in the area. However, Offiong (2003) points out that contemporary development in Pentecostalism since 1970 has made the phenomenon a force to be reckoned with in Calabar. Although it is part of a global phenomenon whose origin

cannot be explained in terms of a single cause. However, several factors were responsible for its emergence in Calabar and these include historical, sociological, economic, political and religious factors. From a historical perspective, missionary enterprise in Nigeria in the 19th century was followed by Scottish Presbyterian Mission in Calabar in 1849 (Kalu 1980, Hacket 1988). In the 1970s came the influx of new spiritual activities in Calabar (Shorter 1991).

The emergence of the youth in the hierarchy of the church for leadership ambitions led to an out- pouring of youths from the historic churches to the Pentecostal churches where they could compete favorably for leadership roles. From an economic point of view, the emergence of a new youthful educated elite class who were mostly unemployed or underemployed has encouraged the growth of the church and movement as more people find jobs as 'pastors" in Calabar. Many were also attracted to the wealth promised by the Pentecostals. Politically, the establishment of a church grants recognition from government and the society at large. It is also a source of power and control. Spiritual ineffectiveness of the historic churches in dealing with the devil for instance led to the growth of the Pentecostal churches which offered myriad solutions to almost every problem. They offered miracles to their members and promised them wealth (Offiong 2003).

B. Language

Crystal (2003) views language as a particular variety or level of speech. At its most specific level, it may refer to the concrete act of speaking, writing or signing in a given situations. Ndimele (1999) says language is often described as a semiotic system, because it entails the use of certain agreed-upon symbols or signals to convey meaning from one person to another within a speech community.

Language is essentially a communication system in the sense that it associates meaning i.e the message with a set of signs, sounds or symbols (Ndimele 1999).

Olaoye (2007), citing Sapir (1921p.8) who says "language is a purely human and non-instinctive way of communicating ideas, emotions and desires, by means of voluntarily, produced symbols" Eka and Udofot (1996) view language as the most brilliant of human inventions. It is also about the most useful. By means of language, people who live together are able to interact and express their thoughts and feelings.

Gimson (1980p.4) describes language

As a system of conventional signals used for communication by a whole community. This pattern of conventions covers a system of significant sound units, the inflection and arrangement of words and the association of meaning with words.

Hall (1968p.158) in his essay on language says that language is.

The institutions whereby humans communicate and interact with each other by means of habitually used oral auditory arbitrary symbols.

Again Sapir (1949p.1) postulates that

In the first place, language is primarily a system of phonetic symbols for the expression of communicable thoughts and feelings. In other words the symbols of language are differentiated products of the vocal behaviour which is associated with the larynx of the higher mammals.

Essien (2003) posits thus

Put more simply, language is a system of rules and principles in which sound, structure and meaning are integrated for communication.

Chomsky and Halle (1968) give a definition of language as follows.

We may think of a language as a set of sentences each with an ideal phonetics form and associated intrinsic and semantic interpretation.

Based on all these definitions and views the essential characteristics of language therefore includes its being arbitrary and conventional, its use being perculiar to human beings its being non-instinctive and therefore learned and its function of being the tool with which a speech community exchange ideas and express emotions.

C. Non Verbal Communication in Preaching

Although language is communication, for the purpose of this paper we shall also be looking at other aspects of communication, such as non-verbal communication. This includes body movement or kinetics and how different parts of the body are used to aid communication. The pastor uses facial expressions, eye contact, emotional tears, regulators such as head nodding, hand gestures waves his hand to emphasis a point, he shifts in posture, and illustrators such as a wave of the hand, pointing in the direction of an entity etc. touching and so on (Nelson & Pearson 1990).

The Preacher in the Pentecostal church in Calabar violates all spatial proximity as he may start off with a public distance up at the altar or at the lectern, then move down and around at a social distance to a personal distance where he may stand and pointedly talk to an individual. When he wants to pray for someone he operates at an intimate distance and may lay his hand on the person while praying.

Communication may also involve spatial proximity. Ekpe (1997) points out that this has to do with personal space between the speaker and the listener in a communication exchange. Such exhibitionist behavior is not one-sided as very often, the congregation mimics the same gestures the Pastor makes.

For formal interaction the public distance is the farthest and is used when someone is speaking to an audience. The distance falls between 12feet to 25 feet.

II. Theoretical Framework

There are many models of communication but for the purpose of this paper, we shall apply the consumer or gratification model of communication. This theory best suits the Pastor and his congregation where emphasis is placed on WHO is, the communicator at the expense of the more important WHOM- the receiver or audience. Below is a representation of the consumer/gratification model. This model is a refined model of Lasswell's model. Here there is some final feed back as opposed to Lasswell's model which offered no feedback (Ugboajah 1985).

WHO:
From WHAT BACKGROUND?
Listens to WHAT?
Directed at WHOM?
Under WHAT CONDITIONS?
For WHAT USE?
With WHAT EFFECT?
(Feedback)
Ugboajah 1985
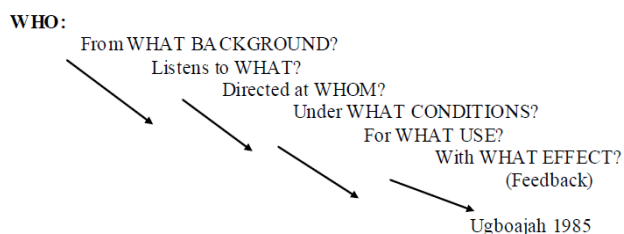
Fig A: The Consumer/Gratification Model.

III. Language Use and Communication in the Pentecostal Church

The power of words cannot be over-looked. Words can be vitriolic, inciting, offensive, insolent, provocative, persuasive, destructive, etc (Essien 2003)

In religion we experience the spiritual power of speech. Religion is concerned with many relationships to a supernatural being or power in the great drama of existence. Such a being is referred to as God in as many languages as human beings speak. Thus we have Abasi, Obazi, Chineke, Dieu, Ogun, Allah, Esowo etc. to mention a few.

The dominant language in use in most Nigerian churches is English. It is the official language in Nigeria and serves as the main language of the Pentecostal church of Nigeria. The church use mostly English to preach, to sing and to pray. It is therefore the dominant language of the church as according to Wardhaugh (1986p344) it has "the full panoply of uses that signify a standard language and invests its users with prestige, self-confidence and power which includes economic, educational, academic, intellectual, socio-cultural and political powers".

The manifestation of language use and communication in the Pentecostal churches in Calabar is reflected mostly in preaching, praying and singing of choruses.

IV. Literary Devices in Preaching

The bible is the sole authority of the Pentecostal churches and organizations. The authority of the preacher and the interpreter of the Bible is also important.

First of all, preaching involves a varied voice for emphasis with the pitch of voice, rising and falling dramatically. Gestures and facial expressions are used effectively for non-verbal communication. The language is often forceful. The audience/congregation is addressed almost personally with a lot of personal devices such as use of the personal pronoun including; we, us, I, you, ourselves etc. Pronouns are used in such a way as to include the preacher.

1. "Let us give a clap offering to the Lord".

A clap offering is also a dramatic action. It helps hold the attention of the congregation. It is dramatic in that even if the preacher said something he felt was worth clapping for, he gives the glory to God. "I welcome all of us to this service….." "us" instead of the conventional "you" shows deliberate inclusion of the speaker and is therefore an inclusive device.

The preacher sometimes preaches interactively. This way, he involves the audience by asking them polar questions that require a clear yes or no answer.

2. "Am I right?"

Sometimes he uses the service of tag question

3. "Our God is a miracle working God, isn't He?"

This keeps his audience (the congregation) alert. He may also call for someone in the congregation to read a Bible passage he is going to refer to. He may also suddenly burst into a song that the church sings along with him. He may also make general requests such as

4. "Somebody praise the Lord…."

"Somebody say Amen!"

"Can we give a clap offering unto the Lord."

In his voice production, the Preacher articulates in a loud voice and may sometimes quicken and suddenly slow his preaching for effectiveness. He plays a lot on the effect of shouting suddenly and pausing for dramatic effect. He injects emotion into his voice. Rhetorical questions are used as a device. The preacher does not expect any answer and this may affect the congregation more positively than any direct question or statement.

5. "Are we supposed to sit at home on Sunday, instead of coming to the house of God?"

The Preacher makes use of hyperbole as a conscious exaggeration either as comic relief or to heighten the effect of his message.

6. "Our God is so big that we are like ants in His presence."

Repetition is an important rhetorical device which reiterates words, phrases or sentences for the sake of emphasis. It can be used to enlighten effect and to re-enforce a speaker's message in oral delivery (Ekpe 1997).

7. "Your liberty is today, today, today! Shout I am free, free, free, free! In the name of Jesus".

8. "Amen, amen and amen".

This also involves repeating after the preacher as would be found in a classroom setting.

9. Preacher; "what did I say?"

Congregations "Give unto God what is His!"

The preacher also makes use of interjection while preaching

10. Pastor   -Hello?

    Congregation   - Hi!

11. Pastor   - Amen?

    Congregation   - Amen!

"Halleluia" too is used as a dramatic pause in preaching or giving testimonies. The Pentecostal movement in Calabar provides for testimonies at church services and worship, tarry nights and altar calls. Testimonies include what good things God has done for members of the church.

12. Preacher/ speaker - Halleluiah!

    Congregation - Amen!

    Preacher/ speaker - Amen!

    Congregation - Halleluiah!

13. Preacher - God is good

    Congregation - All the time!

    Preacher - And all the time,

    Congregation - God is good!

V. NEOLOGISMS

The church also introduces new vocabulary into the English language and such new vocabulary is widely accepted. Some of them include,

14. "Send forth" instead of "send off" which is now viewed with suspicion by the church as it is seen as derogatory and damning. The "forth" clearly alludes to the Biblical language as in "go forth and multiply" (Gen 9:7).

15. "Congregants" instead of "congregation"

16. "Sow a seed" – spiritual investment

17. "Fruit of the womb"-pregnancy

18. "It is well" instead of "Fine, thank you" or "Very well, thank you"

Respondents to the question "How are you? How is your family, how is work? and all such questions that Nigerians always ask, often give the reply "it is well" even if the respondent is sick, or going through rough times, as it is not viewed as proper to air your sorrows publicly when God can deal with them.

Other new expressions are seen in prayers

19. "Father in the name of Jesus begin to loose this man, loose, loose, loose…….

"Loose" here implies freeing the person from the hold of the devil.

According to Terry (1999) "binding" and "loosing" were common expression in Jesus' day for forbidding and permitting. Based on Jewish and Hebrew history, what a rabbi forbade he was said to "bind". What he permitted, he was said to "loose".

20. "We come against any enemy…."

To come against" is to deal with opponents or enemies. Standard English would use the expression "to come up against". The preposition "up" is missing.

21. "born again" is to re-dedicate ones life to a new way of living in Christ.

22. "Amen" is now often said as "Amem" in Calabar and in the Efik language "emem" means peace, so one is not sure if this is a corrupt form of that particular word.

The church also uses language to persuade. The language of persuasion is a process by which someone tries, usually by reasoning arguments, logic, appeal to sound judgment, verbal finesse or artistry to win someone to a particular point of view.

23. "The Lord has given you so much, why can't you give this token, as tithe, unto the Lord?"

The language of the Pentecostal church is also reflected in new names given to children. One of the most obvious linguistic means of establishing people's identity is through the giving of names (Ugot 2005 citing Singh and Peccei: 2004).

Religion uses names in the same way to establish its identity in the individual. This was a common feature in the historic Christian churches, where any English sounding names were considered as Christian names, hence, children were often given names such as Ambrose, Faith, Alphonsus, Theophilus, Peace, Blessing, Comfort, Hope, etc.

The Pentecostals in Calabar discourage native names except if it is clearly linked to God as in *UduakAbasi* "God'swill". However, even if it is, the preference is that such a name be translated into English. For instance children these days answer names like Praise, a direct translation of an Ibibio/Efik name *Itoro*. Other names include God'slove, God'sgift or simply Gift, Wisdom, Goodness, Best man, Gladness, Evidence, Countwell, ThankGod, Touch not, Wonders, Treasure, Unity, Kingdom, Divine, Anointing. Such names have a Christian message behind them.

VI. LANGUAGE USE IN PRAYERS AND CHORUSES

Language use in the church is also evident in prayers. Prayers are often said loudly, accompanied with vigorous jumping and shaking of the head and hands. Use of commands rather than entreaties are a common usage.

24. " In the name of Jesus come out! I command you to come out in the name of Jesus, out! Out! Out!"
" we call on the Holy Spirit to send down his fire, fire! Fire! Fire!

25. "No arrow that flies by night or day...........!"
"Break the yoke...........!
"Back to sender........!
"Die by fire! Die by fire!"

It is clear that the church uses a lot of exclamations. This is characterized by high pitched voices and shouting. Such prayers are also said in emotionally – ladden voices.

The Holy Spirit is often associated with fire as expressed in the Pentecost (Acts 2:1-5). The 'yoke' is like a chain. Yule (1985) refers to language as having cultural transmission in that a speaker of a language picks up that language from the community he grows up in and is not born with the knowledge of the language, not even that of his parents. Language therefore is passed on from one generation to the next and humans are born with an inmate predisposition to acquire language. The language of the church therefore is passed on from generation to generation, it has been growing and changing as language is very dynamic. This change is best reflected in the music of the Pentecostals which has generally been caught on by even the historic churches.

Although most Pentecostal churches have discarded the singing of the traditional hymns, some do still sing them but with a faster, livelier beat, not using the traditional organ as used in the historic church but drums, saxophones and the piano.

The choruses are sung mostly in the languages of the community, from Standard English (SE) to Nigerian Pidgin (NP) to the local language of Calabar (Efik). Let us look at two choruses in SE

26. He has given me victory
I will lift Him higher
Jehovah, I will lift Him higher

It is presumed that Jehovah has already been lifted high and can go higher.

27. …Glory, glory, Lord
We give you glory Lord
Glory, glory, Lord
You are the mighty God…
Songs in NP include

28. …Jesus power, superpower,
mamiwota power, powerless
power.
Jesus power, superpower,
demonic power, powerless
power   …..

Mamiwota refers to the water spirit, and the devil is alluded to in "demonic power"

29. …Satan don fall for ground o
Macham, macham
E don fall for ground o
Macham, macham…

Translated, we have Satan has fallen on the ground Step on him, step on him He has fallen on the ground Step on him, step on him…

This song/chorus is often accompanied by stamping of feet. The use of words like "satan, demonic, mamiwota," shows the extent to which Pentecostal churches in Calabar focus on the devil and his activities. This is a distinctive feature of the movement in Calabar. Evil is clearly personalized while promoting the belief and fear of the devil which they claim has the power to subdue.

30. God na helele   NP
God na waya o   NP

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God na helele        NP
God na waya o        NP
Nobody be like am    NP
Nobody dey like am   NP
Ewo – o, nwannem – Igbo
God na helele.       NP
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Translated thus

God is excellent

God is wonderful

Nobody is like Him

Nobody is like Him

My brother/sister

God is excellent

Ewoo is a meaningless emotional exclamatory expression in Igbo, that can be used in many situations from the joyful to the sorrowful…..The song is a code mix of NP and Igbo. *Nwannem* is "my brother" or "my sister", literally "my mother's child". According to Singleton (2000) this sudden change from NP to Igbo is conversational code-switching.

The church is equally influenced by the language of the community. Thus we have choruses sung in Efik (a Lower Cross language spoken in Calabar).

31. "Eyen Abasi, amanam o

Awo inamke mkpo ikanodo

Awo inamke mkpo ikanodo

Awo inamke mkpo ikoanodo

Sosongo.

Translated as follows,

God's child – you have done well

One cannot do more than that (Repeat twice more)

Thank you

"God's child" here refers to Jesus

32. Woiyo! Akanam nkwe

Woiyo! Akanam nkpopke

Woiyo! Akanam nkwe, nkwe, nkwe,

Imami etiede nte ima Abasi

Woiyo! I've never seen

Woiyo! I've never heard

Woiyo! I've never seen, seen, seen, a love like God's love.

Woiyo is just an exclamation used in the same way as the Igbo *"ewoo"*. This was a popular religious song from the genre of Gospel music that became so popular in Calabar and its environs that it worked its way into the church and even into the historic churches. Sometimes, choruses are picked from other language speaking communities.

A song in Ijaw, a language spoken by the major tribe in the creeks of the Niger-Delta

33. Ayiba preye preye ebiye x4

Ayiba nuaee, nua aa x3

Ayiba preye preye ebiye x3

Translated thus

Whatever God gives is good

Thank you God

Whatever God gives is good.

VII. CONCLUSION

The Pentecostal church in Calabar is obviously a force to be reckoned with as its influence is felt in everyday use of language and communication. The language of the church is used in not just stimulating action or seeking the compliance of its members but also in all activities of the church such as preaching praying and singing. It is all expressed through the devices of speech and the use of not just English, the official language, but Nigerian pidgin and the language of the community to spread the doctrines of the church. It is hoped that the church would make use of its strong language and communication devices to promote not just a better Calabar but progressive Nigeria.

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A Comparative Study of Emotion Metaphors between English and Chinese

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Abstract—**Different from traditional linguistics which views metaphor as a means of rhetoric, cognitive linguistics holds that metaphor, instead of being a deviant phenomenon of normal language, is a way of thought and a powerful instrument of cognition. Because of the reason that the traditional linguistics failed to explain the essence of metaphor, the modern linguists began to do research on it from the perspective of language and philosophy. Metaphor has become an essential part in people's cognitive mechanism instead of being perceived as language phenomenon ever since the publication of masterpiece Metaphor We Live By contributed by Lakeoff and Johnson. In this thesis, cognitive linguistics approach is used to make a comparative analysis between the Chinese and English emotion conceptual metaphors. Conceptual metaphor, as an important concept in cognitive linguistics, refers to something internal, opening deep in human thought, such as ARGUMENT IS WAR and TIME IS MONEY. Emotions, as an important aspect of human experience, have been among the focuses of cognitive linguistics. Emotions are conceptualized and expressed in metaphorical terms. This thesis takes up emotion conceptual metaphors as its topic to study, trying to conduct a cross-linguistic research into the conceptualization of emotion concepts. Based on the analysis of linguistic data from English and Chinese, it tends to explore the similarities and differences between Chinese and English in terms of conceptual metaphors of the two most basic emotions including happiness and sadness.**

Index Terms—**conceptual metaphor, happiness, sadness, emotions, comparative analysis**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Research Background

Metaphor enjoys a long history in its evolvement from the early comparison, substitution and interactive theory to current conceptual metaphor, reflecting dramatic changes in people's view towards the relationship between language, mind and society. Aristotle, one of the earliest philosopher and typical representatives in metaphor studies, suggests that metaphor plays a deviant and aberrant rhetorical role and serve as an ornate and emotive instrument. So metaphor is nothing more than literal decoration aimed at impressing others. Accordingly, most metaphor studies in discourse analysis have been carried out by looking into language itself without taking into consideration social and ideological factors. However, by 1980s, George Lakeoff and Mark Johnson challenged all the powerful tradition theory in a systematic way in their ground breaking studies of Metaphor We Live By. Lakeoff and Johnson draw close attention to the relationship between language and thought and convincingly argue that metaphor is not simply a matter of linguistic expression but of concepts, of thinking of one thing in terms of another. What makes the contemporary theory of metaphor unique is the important distinction between conceptual metaphors or metaphorical concepts on the one hand, and linguistic metaphors or metaphorical expression on the other hand (Lakeoff, Johnson, 1980). The distinction between conceptual metaphor and linguistic metaphor is the major issue that distinguishes cognitive view of metaphor from the traditional view of metaphor. Conceptual metaphor is referred to as the fundamental cognitive agency in our conceptualizing of the world by cognitive linguists, such as George Lakeoff and Mark Johnson (1980).

According to the above cognitive linguists, metaphor pervade everywhere in the everyday life of all people, regardless of their race, social status, educational background, sex, context, etc. Entertaining TV shows, which form a natural part of people's daily life of our times, is no exception. For this reason, this study has chosen two entertainment TV shows as the object for investigation and analysis.

B. Aim of the Study

As mentioned above, cognitive linguists take metaphor as a reflection of human cognition. In view of the fact about the cognitive approach to metaphor and current situation of emotion concepts studies, this thesis is designed to conduct a comparative study of conceptual metaphors of emotion between Chinese and English. I set the present task in the hope of contributing my bit to the cognitive theory of metaphor, and also in a way, to cross-cultural communication as well.

C. Research Methodology

In this thesis, the research methodology is mainly qualitative. It takes a series of claims as its assumption. These

claims include: human thought is basically metaphorical; our conceptual metaphor arises from our bodily experience; and the set-up conceptual metaphors impose the structure onto real life and influence our understanding and cognition (Lakeoff, Johnson, 1980).

D.   Source of Data

The linguistic data, on which this study is based, are all derived from ordinary language used by and familiar to native speakers. The data are mainly taken from magazine, novel, short stories, folk/popular songs and everyday language talking about people's the most basic emotions of HAPPINESS and SADNESS.

II.   LITERATURE REVIEW

Conceptual Metaphor Theory

The publication of Metaphor We Live By by the American cognitive linguists George Lakeoff and Mark Johnson in 1980 marked a turning point in metaphor studies since metaphor is regarded as a fundamental cognitive competence and is unconsciously and pervasively employed in people's daily life. As Lakeoff put it,

"Metaphor is pervasive in everyday life, not just in language but in thought and action. Our ordinary conceptual system, in terms of which we both think and act, is fundamentally metaphorical in nature." (George Lake off & Mark Johnson, 1980)

In short, the locus of metaphor is not in language at all, but in the way we conceptualize one mental domain in terms of another, dispelling the traditional view that metaphor is the realm of poetic or figurative language. Then metaphor seems to be with us all the time whether one is aware of it or not. And as far as the nature of metaphor is concerned, something abstract is understood in terms of something more specific.

1. Working Mechanism of Conceptual Metaphor

When using a metaphor, like "Life is a journey", we are likely to assume that the speaker does not mean what he says literally but that he is speaking metaphorically. But how it is possible for speakers to communicate to hearers when they are speaking metaphorically in as much as they do not say what they mean, that is, how does metaphor work? This is an essential question for every metaphorical theory to answer.

There are two important concepts involved in metaphor, that is, the target domain—"the starting point", and the source domain—"the comparison point" (Saeed, 2000). And the emergence of metaphor is due to the comparison between the two domains. And the comparison is realized by a process of mapping.

The studies on metaphorical mappings have been made by many scholars, such as Lakeoff and Johnson (1980), Sweetser (1990), and Fauconnier (1997). The main idea of metaphor is expressing and understanding one kind of thing in terms of another, that is, metaphor can be understood as the mapping from a source domain to a target domain. Lakeoff just applies the term "mapping" to represent the interaction between two domains. Their working together provides us with the relationship between mapping and metaphor:

Each metaphor has a source domain, a target domain, and a source-to-target mapping;

Metaphor is the mapping from the source domain to the target domain;

Mapping is the systematic set of correspondences that exists between constituent elements of the source and the target domains;

The properties mapped from the source domain must fit the inherent structure of the target domain;

After mapping, the properties of source domain go with those of target domain.

To well understand mapping, we should know some traits of mappings for the sake of avoiding misunderstanding and obtaining a better comprehension of mappings.

First, metaphorical mappings obey the hypothesis called the Invariance Principle: the image schema structure of the source domain is projected into the target domain in a way that is consistent with inherent target domain structure. (Lakeoff, 1993)

Another principle is Target Domain Overrides, which decides what properties in the source domain can be mapped. Mappings are partial in that only a part of the properties and structures of the source domain are mapped onto the target domain.

The two principles explain a third characteristic of asymmetry of Mapping, that is, metaphors are directional. The transfer is from the source domain to the target domain.

2. Classification of Conceptual Metaphor

In Lakeoff and Johnson's point of view, conceptual metaphors can generally be divided into three main types: orientational metaphor, ontological metaphor and structural metaphor.

2.1. Orientational Metaphor

Orientational metaphors are also called spatialization since most of them result from our perception of space. Spatial orientations, derived from our constant interaction with our environment and experiences in the physical world, are the basic concepts by which we live, including up and down, in and out, front and back, deep and shallow, central and peripheral. These spatial orientations are directly grounded in the most basic experience of human beings and the experience in sensing orientations can be acquired in the early stage of human growth. This phenomenon has been proved to be correct in psychological studies. So it is natural that we use basic orientation concepts derived from these

basic experience of this kind to understand more abstract concepts such as emotions, health conditions, quantity and social status, etc.

Orientational metaphors give a concept a spatial orientation, for example, in sentences "M spirit rose" and "I'm feeling down", the italic words rose and down are the application of orientational metaphors.

2.2. Ontological Metaphor

As human's primary way of existence is substantial, our experience of physical objects and substances allows us to understand the world and ourselves beyond mere orientation. Thanks to those experiences, we can pick out parts of those experiences and treat them as discrete entities or substances of a uniform kind. Just as the basic experiences of human spatial orientations promotes orientational metaphors, our experiences with physical objects (especially our own bodies) provide the basic for an extraordinary wide variety of ontological metaphors, that is, ways of viewing events, activities, emotions, ideas, etc., as entities and substances.

Ontological metaphor is generated when our experience with physical objects and substances make it possible to conceive of abstract intangible concepts such as emotions, ideas, psychological activities and states as concrete tangible entities and substances.

2.3. Structural Metaphor

In addition to orientational metaphor and ontological metaphor, structural metaphor is another important form of conceptual metaphor. When orientational metaphor and ontological metaphor are elaborated in much specific terms, or when some aspects of a concept are highlighted, we turn to structural metaphor for help. Structural metaphors allow us to used one highly structured and clearly delineated concept to structure another (Lakeoff & Johnson, 1980). Structural metaphor is the case where one structured domain is metaphorically restructured and redefined in terms of another, that is to say, by virtue of the structure of a more familiar and concrete domain, we understand the abstract domain.

3. Features of conceptual Metaphor

Owing to the specialty of the relationship between metaphor and human experience, metaphor has its own features: the ubiquity, systematicity, asymmetry and abstraction.

The ubiquity of metaphor has been noticed by many researchers, like Gibbs (1994), Lakeoff & Johnson(1980), and McNeil (1992). These researchers provide evidences for the prevalence of metaphor is not a privilege of a few specific groups but are ubiquitous throughout both written and spoken discourses.

The second feature, "systematicity, refers to the way that a metaphor does not set up a single point of comparison: features of the source and target domain are joined so that the metaphor may be extended, or have its own internal logic." (Saeed, 2000.) when pervading all kinds of discourses, these conceptual metaphors do not appear isolated from each other. On the contrary, they are closely related, and "metaphorical entailments can characterize a coherent system of metaphorical concepts and a corresponding coherent system of metaphorical expressions for these concepts' (Lakeoff & Johnson, 1980). And consequently, a series of metaphors based on the same experience basis, or image schema, can run through and connect the whole discourse together, so that the reader can understand the discourse lightly.

The third one, asymmetry, according to Saeed, indicated the directional tendency of metaphors. The comparison between the two concepts, or domains, is not symmetric, on the contrary, they only "transfer features from the source to the target" Saeed, 2000).

The final one, abstraction, is related to the asymmetry, "It has often been noted that a typical metaphor uses a more concrete source to describe a more abstract target." (Saeed, 2000) Meanwhile, Saeed also points out that this is not a necessary feature of metaphors: the source and target domains may be equally concrete or abstract.

4. Significance of conceptual Metaphor

As Lakeoff indicated, compared with the traditional theories of metaphor, the conceptual metaphor theory was revolutionary in many respects (Lakeoff, 1993). Metaphor was no longer viewed as a figure of speech, to the "novel or poetic linguistic expression" (ibid). Instead it is a way of thinking, and everyday abstract concepts like time, states, change, causation, and purpose also turn out to be metaphorical" (ibid).

After the publication of Metaphor We Live By, the landmark of cognitive study of metaphor, more and more scholars devoted themselves to this field and other applied disciplines, Henderson (1982) examined metaphor in economics texts; Johnson (1987) argued for the "bodily basis of meaning, imagination, and reason'; Lakeoff and Turner(1989) showed the relevance of the ordinary language metaphoric system for the interpretation of literature; Lakeoff (1991) analyzed the metaphoric system that served to justify war in the Gulf; Fesmire (1994) investigated the body metaphors used to structure mental functioning; Lakeoff (1993) studied the applicability of conceptual metaphor to dream analysis. Steen's remark is quite succinct: "This cognitive approach to metaphor has grown into one of the most exciting fields of research in the social sciences, with psychologists leading the way for cognitive linguists, anthropologists, and poeticians" Steen, (1994)

III. A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR OF EMOTIONS BETWEEN ENGLISH AND CHINESE

Metaphor is a means of conceptualizing human being's bodily experience and understanding the world, through which we comprehend abstract concepts and perform abstract reasoning. Since cognition can influence and be influenced by emotions, the study of human emotions plays an important role in the probe into human cognition. Hu

Zhuanglin (2004) once said that language is regarded as an important tool in the job of learning about cognition and the world. Language of emotions is an effective access to the adequate study of emotions, and the linguistic analysis has been an essential source of information about emotion concepts. In the following part, what will be discussed are the conceptual metaphors of the two basic emotions: happiness and sadness between English and Chinese.

A.   HAPPINESS Metaphors between English and Chinese

1. Similarities

In English, according to Lakeoff and Johnson (1980), a major conceptual metaphor of happiness is an orientational one: HAPPINESS IS UP.   Under this conceptual metaphor, there are some expressions:

a. I'm feeling up.
b. He is in high spirit.
c. We try to keep her spirits up.
d. Cheer up, boy
e. Come on!

In Chinese, there are also similar expressions:

Ta de yi yang yang.
Wo men qing xu gao zhang.
Yi xia zi ti qi le wo de xing zhi.
Ta zheng zai xing tou shang.
Wo hen xing fen.

These expressions reveal that happiness is conceptualized in terms of an upward orientation. Actually most of them are so conventionalized that they may not be taken as metaphorical concepts by native speakers. These expressions are in effect grounded in the human's bodily experience. They arise from the fact that we have upright bodies and the effect posture typically goes with positive valuation of emotional states as well as physical states.

In addition, English and Chinese both have the conceptual metaphor HAPPINESS IS FLUID IN CONTANER, which maps the emotion of happiness onto a fluid in a container. This conceptual metaphor in fact is a specific-level instantiation of the more general metaphor THE EMOTIONS ARE IN A CONTAINER.   It is manifested in English by the examples below:

My heart is full of joy
He is bursting with joy.
I was overwhelming with joy.
Joy welled up inside her.

The conventionalized linguistic expressions under this conceptual metaphor in Chinese include:

Ta xin zhong cong man le xi yue.
Ta men man huai xi yue.
Ta dui sheng huo cong man le zhi re de qing gan.
Yi zhong huan yu yong shang le xin tou.

Kovecses (1986) states that the body is viewed as a container, the emotions are conceived of as the fluid inside a closed container.   When emotions are strong enough and beyond the limitation of the container, it will overflow, burst, so we have the linguistic expressions mentioned above.   Although English and Chinese share the CONTAINER metaphor in expressing happiness, there are descriptive differences between them according to the examples without using "heart" are very common; Chinese tends to use more body parts, such as heart, bosom or chest as the container of happiness.

2. Differences

There are some differences in the conceptual metaphor of happiness between English and Chinese.   Through careful comparison and analysis, the following major differences concerning HAPPINESS metaphors can be observed.   Here, I take the metaphors HAPPINESS IS BEING OFF THE GROUND & HAPPINESS IS FLOWERS IN THE HEART as an example:

In English, besides the above-mentioned conceptual metaphors depicting happiness, there is another conceptual metaphor of upward orientation: HAPPINESS IS BEING OFF THE GROUND. Instances of this type include:

They were in the clouds.
He was just soaring with happiness.
I'm six feet off the ground.
I was floating.

As is observed, this metaphor may be partially concerned with birds, which are usually viewed as symbol of freedom, and thus associated with happiness.

While in Chinese, the HAPPINESS IS BEING OFF THE GROUND metaphor does not seem to be applicable due to our Chinese conventional mode of thought. Chinese people regard "being off the ground" as the indication of being proud, conceited and out of control. When we say "*ta you dian piao piao ran le*" and "*ta you zai yun li wu li le*", we mean that the person is so smug that he has lost his sense. Instead, we have modesty and prudence as virtues by

adhering to the sayings, "*de yi bu neng wang xing*" and "*jiao tra shi di*".

Instead of being described as BEING OFF THE GROUND, happiness in Chinese is sometimes depicted in terms of FLOWERS IN THE HEART. For instance:

Da he chang na le yi deng jiang, wo men yi ge ge xin huan nu fang
Shou dao lao shi de biao yang, ta xin li le kai le hua.

This metaphorical concept, though a minor one, is rooted in the Chinese culture, in which flowers, especially "big red flowers" are traditionally considered as symbol of happiness. Meanwhile, this FLOWER metaphor somehow mirrors the introverted character typical of Chinese people: reaction to happiness in the heart is highlighted. This forms a sharp contrast with westerners who are more extroverted and tend to express emotions more outwardly, just as the metaphor HAPPINESS IS BEING OFF THE GROUND reflects.

3. Summary

To summarize, English and Chinese share some major conceptual metaphors in conceptualizing happiness, which include: HAPPINESS IS UP, HAPPINESS IS FLUID IN A CONTAINER. However, some differences exist in the conceptual metaphor of happiness between English and Chinese, as illustrated by HAPPINESS IS BEING OFF THE GROUND from English, HAPPINESS IS FLOWERS IN THE HEART from Chinese and Chinese tends to use more body-part nouns in the expressions of happiness, such as performing the bro together with eyes to show the emotion of happiness.

B.   SADNESS Metaphors between English and Chinese

1. Similarities

Sadness is an emotion opposed to happiness. In most circumstances, a contrast exists between the conceptualization of the two emotions, which means that sadness has the similar source domains to happiness in some aspects. The first major conceptual metaphor characterizing the conceptualization of sadness in English is an orientational one: SADNESS IS DOWN. Under this conceptual metaphor, there are many conventional expressions:

I'm feeling down.
He's really low these days.
He is in low spirits.
His spirits fell at the bad news.
I'm depressed.

These examples use words like down, low, fall and depressed to express the emotion of sadness. It is not randomly to apply such spatial words to indicate emotion, but a close relation to our bodily experience. As human beings have upright bodies, our postures are mapped to the understanding of emotions. The erect posture typically goes with positive emotions as well as physical states, such as happiness and health; on the contrary, the negative emotions such as sadness and illness often accompany a drooping posture. In the process of human cognition, spatial concepts are projected onto emotional concepts on the basis of the relevance of human posture and emotions, thus comes the result--- the concept of happiness is expressed with up-words and phrases, while the concept of sadness is expressed with down-words and phrases.

The conceptual metaphor SADNESS IS DOWN is also found in Chinese, which is manifested by extensive expressions. For example:

Zhe ji tian ta qing xu hen di luo.
ta hen xiao chen.
Ta zong shi yi fu cui tou shang qi de yang zi.
Wo zong shi da bu qi jing shen lai.
Zhe xiao xi jian zhi rang ta de xin die dai di gu.

Obviously, Chinese has the similar uses in conducting DOWN to map onto SADNESS.

In addition, SADNESS is ordinary conceptualized as dark. The use of this metaphor SADNEDD IS DARK is similar in English and Chinese. The linguistic realization of this metaphor is illustrated below:

He is in a dark mood.
The future looks pretty dismal
Both of us were in a black mood.
I felt very gloomy.

In Chinese, SADNESS IS DARK metaphors are easily found. For instance:

Ting dao zhe ge xiao xi, ta yan qian yi zhen hei, yun dao guo qu.
Ta lian shang hao xiang tu ran meng shang le yi ceng wu yun.
Hei se liu yue zhong yu guo qu le.
Ta mu guang an dan.

In the examples listed above, it presents a figure with the emotion of sadness in the cold, dark color through the words such as dark, gloom, dismal and *hei se*, *an dan*，*wu yun* etc. These expressions are aroused by our experience. It is observed by human beings that when a person, either an English people or a Chinese, becomes sad, he or she feels a loss of control over the situation and perceives his/her contribution purposelessly; and commonly, he or she has poor

appetite and loss vigor; his/her complexion and eyes turn darker. The emotion of sadness then is linked with darkness. And projection from the lightness domain onto the emotion domain is established in human cognition and languages.

2. Differences

English and Chinese belong to two different linguistic systems and have one's own cultural custom, which have the influence on the conceptualization of the things around them. In the metaphorical concept of sadness, differences appear in the two languages.

English has the conceptual metaphor SADNESS IS BLUE but it does not exist in Chinese. Underlying this metaphor, there are many expressions:

She looks blue today.

Rainy days make me blue.

Paul was in a blue mood.

It was blue Monday and he didn't feel like going back to work.

Similarly, there also exists a sadness metaphor peculiar to Chinese. Chinese employs another commonplace conceptual metaphor, which is not so obvious in English, namely SADNESS IS PAIN IN HEART, from which many conventional expressions are derived:

E hao chuan lai, ta de xin dun shi shen shen di chi tong.

Xin tong de gan jue, jiu xin che fei.

Ta mo mo cheng shou zhe wan jian chuan xin de tong ku.

Ta xin ru dao jiao.

Besides "heart", Chinese people tend to use "intestines" to depict sadness, as shown in such phrases as:

gan chang cun duan.

duan chang ren zai tian ya.

chou chang cun duan.

This metaphorical concept to a certain extent mirrors our Chinese character which is characterized by introversion and pessimism, compared with extroversion and optimism embodied in western people's character. When Chinese people encounter something unhappy, for most of them, the actions they perform are to keep it in heart, for in Chinese traditional culture, it advocates an idea of "*ren*", they can seldom take them slightly. Sadness is often hidden inside, which causes pain in the heart.

3. Summary

To sum up, through the above examples and illustrations, it shows that in conceptualizing the emotion of sadness, English and Chinese share many similarities in metaphors, such as SADNESS IS DOWN and SADNESS IS DARK. Differences exist in some aspects because of cultural influences. English has the metaphor SADNESS IS BLUE, while SADNESS IS PAIN IN HEART belongs to Chinese. In addition, Chinese tends to utilize more body parts in the expressions for sadness than English does.

IV.   CAUSES FOR THE SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES OF THE CONCEPTUAL METAPHOR OF EMOTIONS IN ENGLISH AND CHINESE

The previous chapter has presented a comparative study of conceptual metaphors of the two basic emotions: happiness and sadness between English and Chinese. As the study reveals, English and Chinese share some major conceptual metaphors in the conceptualization of the two emotions, but they differ from each other in other aspects.

A.   Causes for Similarities: Shared Experience

Language roots in people's cognitive structure and people talk about things the way they conceive of them. Richards (1936) states "Language is the joint point of different experience in different fields. It is not only the manifestation of cognition, but also part of it, the cognitive system coming from daily experience constitutes the psychological basis of language performance". Lakeoff and Johnson (1980) also point out that systematic analysis of language use can indicate the presence of an underlying metaphoric conceptual process which can explain whole collections of expressions. From the comparative study on the emotion metaphors in English and Chinese in the former chapter, results illustrates that emotion concepts both in English and Chinese are largely conceptualized through the metaphorical process that goes from the more concrete domain to the more abstract domain. Besides this, it is found that the two basic emotions in the two languages are mostly in the major conceptual metaphors. English and Chinese belong to different languages and cultural system, how can they have so many similarities in the emotional conceptual metaphors? The reason is that the similarity is the product of human conceptualization which is profoundly influenced by certain universal properties of the human body. The properties here refer to the embodiment of meaning---meaning reflects "our collective biological capacities and our physical and social experiences as beings functioning in our environment" (Lakeoff, 1987). The fact that these capacities and experiences are same or similar in fundamental respects for human being accounts for the similarity in the expression of emotion between English and Chinese. English-speaking and Chinese-speaking people appear to have very similar ideas about their bodies and seem to see themselves as undergoing the same or similar physiological and behavioral process in many cases when one person is in the state of happiness and sadness. All the similarities support that metaphors are not arbitrary; they are conceptual in nature and are based on human beings'

bodily experiences.

B. Causes for Differences: Cultural Relativity

As pointed out in the previous chapter, there are differences of emotion conceptual metaphor existing in English and Chinese. The reason for the differences comes from cultural influence. Culture is the total pattern of beliefs, customs, institutions, objects and techniques that characterize the life of a human community. Language is a part of culture and plays a very important role in it, it is a social phenomenon and each language stands for one culture, so does in metaphor. Lakeoff (1980) also proposes that the most fundamental values in a culture will be coherent with the metaphorical structure of the most fundamental concepts in the culture.

English and Chinese belong to totally different language system: one of Indo-European, the other of Sino-Tibetan. English culture is greatly affected by the four-humor doctrine which originates from the ancient Western medicine and philosophy, while Chinese culture is greatly affected by the ancient Chinese philosophy and theories in Traditional Chinese Medicine. Different cultural influence brings out the differences in the conceptualization of the two emotions in English and Chinese.

V. CONCLUSION

The thesis conducts a comparative study of the conceptualizations of emotion metaphors on happiness and sadness in English and Chinese. Conceptual metaphor means one conceptual domain is understood in terms of another conceptual domain, which is a projection of property and structure between the two domains.

The comparative analysis of the conceptualization of the two basic emotions in this thesis shows that English and Chinese share similarity in some major conceptual metaphors. The reason for these similarities between the two languages in the conceptualization of emotions are emotional concepts which are embodied, namely they have a basis in human being's bodily experience or they are closely related to the physiological functioning of human body. The similarities prove that metaphors are not arbitrary but embodied or motivated by the physiological reality.

Differences also exist in the conceptualizations of the two emotions between English and Chinese, which is due to the influence of concrete historical and traditional culture factors. Culture influences people's cognition of the world and concepts. In English cultural model, it holds the old west humoural doctrine, but principles in Chinese philosophy and the theories in Traditional Chinese Medicine play an important role in Chinese culture.

In short, conceptual metaphors of emotions are primarily rooted in bodily experience, but meanwhile, they are also influenced by cultural models. To put it in another way, emotion metaphors are characterized by cognitive commonness and cultural diversity. The findings of the study are also expected to help facilitate cross-cultural communication to certain extent by shedding light on the closely related intrinsic relations between language, mind and culture.

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Iranian EFL Learners' Perceptions with Respect to Tasks in Comparison with the Actual Content of the Textbooks[*]

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Abstract—Most of the studies in the field of textbook evaluation in Iran have evaluated the textbooks from the perspective of teachers and have ignored the perceptions of the learners. The purpose of this study was to shed some light on the perceptions of Iranian EFL learners towards tasks and to compare their perceptions with the actual content of their textbooks. To this end, the study employed a descriptive and survey-based design. A questionnaire consisting of two different sections was distributed among 100 first-year high school students in four schools. One class in each school participated in the study. The first-year high school English textbook was carefully analyzed with respect to the percentages of tasks and non-tasks. The results of the questionnaire analysis were then compared to the results of the content analysis of the textbook. The comparison showed that the students generally rated tasks as being highly effective in the learning of English. In contrast, in their actual textbook, there was a much less number of these sorts of communicative activities. These findings show that there are wide gaps between the Iranian learners' perceptions and the actual content of their textbooks. These findings can be used by the textbook designers in order to take account of the learners' preferences and perceptions while designing new editions of textbooks.

Index Terms—textbook, textbook evaluation, task, motivation, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Most of the textbook evaluations so far undertaken have been from the point of view of teachers to the exclusion of the viewpoints, needs, perceptions, and preferences of the learners who constitute the majority of the textbook consumers and whose interest and motivation are necessary for the successful achievement of the course goals. A quick glancing at high school English textbooks used in Iranian schools will reveal the fact that they lack a crucial component for getting students actively engaged in communication; namely tasks. While the textbooks certainly include a number of tasks, it does not seem to be enough to enable the students to be motivated enough to learn a foreign language, that which they usually treat as being something that is detached from the reality of their lives and as a puzzle solving task mainly involving the decoding of linguistic elements in a myriad of exercises that hopelessly attempt to make them masters of abstract grammatical rules without presenting them with enough examples of the actual language use.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. The Importance of Textbooks in Language Learning

Of the various instructional materials, textbooks are the ones that are widely used in language classrooms. Textbooks are considered as being important sources for teachers in assisting students to learn various subject matters including English. They are seen as foundational elements of school instruction and the main source of information for teachers. Textbooks in Iran provide the basis for the large share of the language input learners receive as well as the language practice in the classroom. In fact, for EFL learners textbooks are the primary source of first-hand experience with the target language (Azizifar et al., 2010). Textbooks play a major role in ELT classes in the actualization of the plans and decisions into useful materials, tasks and activities. (Azizifar et al., 2010; Kirkgöz, 2009; Richards, 2001, as cited in Amiryousefi & Ketabi, 2011)

B. Textbook Evaluation

According to Tomlinson et al. (2001) textbook evaluation is an activity in the field of applied linguistics that enables teachers, supervisors, administrators and materials developers to make judgments about the effect the materials have on

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[*] It is to be noted that this study is based upon the M.A. thesis of the first author to be presented at the University of Tabriz.

the people who use them. McGrath (2002) believes that textbook evaluation is of paramount importance for the development and administration of language learning programs.

C. The Role of Tasks in Promoting Intrinsic Motivation

A more recent offshoot of Maslow's view of motivation is the effect of flow on ultimate attainment in Csikszentmihalyi's "flow theory". Csikszentmihalyi (1975, as cited in Brown, 2006) proposed flow theory to better understand motivation. Flow is a type of intrinsic motivation (Liao, 2006). Csikszentmihalyi defines flow as "the state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter; the experience itself is so enjoyable that people will do it even at great cost, for the sheer sake of doing it" (Csikszentmihalyi, 1991, p. 4).

The psychological conditions that make the flow experience possible include:

1. Individuals usually experience flow when they are engaged in tasks that they have a chance of completing.

2. They must be able to concentrate on the task in hand.

3. The task has clear goals, which makes concentration possible.

4. The provision of immediate feedback by the task, also, makes concentration possible. 5. Engagement in an enjoyable activity leaves no room for troubling thoughts.

6. Enjoyable experiences allow people to exercise a sense of control over their actions.

7. Self-consciousness and concern for self disappear, yet the sense of self emerges stronger after the flow experience is over.

8. The sense of duration of time is altered; hours may seem like seconds (Csikszentmihalyi, 1991).

Clear goals and immediate feedback allow individuals know when they have succeeded at the performance of the task (Dietz, 2004). Students who experience flow learn better, so it is important to investigate how flow experience can be achieved by EFL learners. Students could be given language tasks at their appropriate level (condition number 1), and be allowed to complete the tasks without excessive intervention from the teacher's side or without much restriction (condition 2). These learning tasks could be clearly scaffolded by the teacher (condition 3), and evaluation and achievement could be assessed by the learners and their peers in terms of the outcome of the task (e.g. language performance, presentation, report, etc.), Skehan's (1996, as cited in Nassaji, H. & Fotos, 2010) definition of 'task' bears some similarities with Csikszentmihalyi's first four conditions:

A task is an activity in which: 1) The primary focus is on meaning rather than on form; 2) The task is related in some way to real world tasks and bears some resemblance to how language is used in real life; 3) the completion of the task has some priority; and 4) the task performance is assessed in terms of the outcomes of the task.

Condition 5 promotes effortless involvement that takes one's mind off the worries of everyday life. Teachers can try to fulfill condition 5 by using language-learning projects, which encourage meaningful development and use of language skills. Condition 6 encourages engaging students in learning experiences that are enjoyable to them. Condition 7 refers to the importance of language learning through group work and collaboration. Finally, condition 8 suggests that students should be allowed to be immersed in an enjoyable learning task for as long as they see it fit, rather than being told for example "You have five minutes to complete this activity." The application of these 8 conditions in EFL classrooms and allowing the learners to experience flow could lead learners at all levels to perform meaningful and enjoyable language learning tasks to the best of their abilities, which would in effect lead to them seeing language-learning as an enjoyable, voluntary, and worthwhile activity (Finch, 2007). The present study seeks to answer the following questions:

Research Question 1: How effective are tasks in the learning of English from the perspective of Iranian high school students?

Research Question 2: How effective are the actual textbook activities in the learning of English from the perspective of Iranian high school students?

Research Question 3: What is the percentage of tasks and non-tasks in Iranian high school textbooks?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A total of 100 language learners with their age ranging from 15-16 participated in this study. The participants had a bilingual background of Turkish and Persian. All 100 participants were male and they were all first-year high school students. The participants were chosen from four high schools.

B. Design of the Study

This study employed a descriptive, survey-based design. The study was conducted through distributing a translated version of the questionnaire in Persian, which included questions that offered the participants various samples of tasks that can be used in their textbooks and by their teachers in the classroom. The participants were asked to state their preferences by answering Likert-type items in the questionnaire. Afterwards, the first-year high school English textbook was analyzed. The results of the textbook analysis were compared to the preferences and perceptions of the first-year high school students in order to find out the mismatches between their preferences and the actual content of their textbook.

C. Materials

The materials used in this study included a questionnaire that was divided into two parts. The first part presented the students with five samples of tasks, two focused tasks, two unfocused tasks, and one reading task. The listening task was not included because the researcher intended to present the students with tasks that could be performed in Iranian high schools in their present state, and most high schools do not have the luxury of providing teachers with audio tapes. 10 questions followed the sample tasks to provide the students with the opportunity to state their attitudes towards tasks by answering Likert-type questions each of which had five options to choose from; namely, Highly effective – somewhat effective – I do not know – somewhat ineffective – highly ineffective. The second part of the questionnaire constituted 10 Likert-type questions, which were intended to elicit their attitudes towards the actual content of their textbook.

D. Procedures

After obtaining the necessary permissions from the Ministry of Education and also from the principals of the schools and the teachers, the questionnaires were distributed in four classes. No specific criteria were used in the selection of the schools and the classes that participated in this study. The first version of the questionnaire was pilot-tested with 15 participants that were similar in their characteristics to the ones that participated in the main research. After making the necessary changes, the second version of the questionnaire was pilot-tested with 25 students from another high school. The initial results were satisfactory, and the second version was distributed among the participants from three other schools.

After the completion of the questionnaire analysis, the first-year high school textbook was also analyzed in terms of the number of items allocated to tasks. The percentages of tasks and non-tasks in each section of the textbook and in the textbook as a whole were calculated. In order to distinguish between tasks and non-tasks five criteria were used:

1. A task is a workplan, which constitutes a plan for learner activity.
2. The primary focus of a task is on meaning.
3. The performance of a task involves real-world processes of language use.
4. Any of the four language skills can be used in a task.
5. A task engages cognitive processes (Ellis, 2003).

Finally, the results obtained from the analysis of the questionnaire were compared to the results of the textbook analysis. The results of the data analysis were checked by another coder and the inter-rater reliability turned out to be 95%.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS & RESULTS

A. Descriptive Statistics for Research Question 1

The results of the first 10 questions in the questionnaire, which represent the first macro-category; i.e. "the effectiveness of tasks in language learning from learners' perspective" are demonstrated in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
THE RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONS 1-10 IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

	Highly effective	Somewhat effective	I do not know	Somewhat ineffective	Highly ineffective
1	How effective can such tasks be in making language learning enjoyable?				
	31	55	7	4	3
2	How effective can such tasks be in engaging you in learning English?				
	37	37	14	8	4
3	How effective can such tasks be in increasing your motivation to learn English?				
	36	44	11	5	4
4	How effective can such tasks be in causing you to cooperate with your group members to perform the task?				
	35	35	16	11	3
5	How effective can such tasks be in improving your accuracy in producing grammatically correct sentences?				
	40	45	10	4	1
6	How effective can such tasks be in improving your fluency in speaking English?				
	55	28	11	4	2
7	How effective can such tasks be in improving your vocabulary knowledge?				
	38	39	16	6	1
8	How effective can such tasks be in improving your pronunciation?				
	39	44	9	6	2
9	How effective can such tasks be in improving your language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)?				
	58	29	7	4	2
10	How effective can such tasks be in providing you with the opportunity to communicate with others?				
	43	39	8	6	4

As Table 1 shows, most of the students' responses have a tendency towards the effective end of the continuum. The number of responses rating tasks as effective is significantly higher than those rating them as ineffective. Table 2 presents the percentages for questions 1-10 in the questionnaire.

TABLE 2:
THE PERCENTAGES FOR QUESTIONS 1-10 IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Highly effective	Somewhat effective	I do not know	Somewhat ineffective	Highly ineffective
The Total Number of the Selected Options				
412	395	109	58	26
The Percentage of the Selected Options				
41.2%	39.5%	10.9%	5.8%	2.6%
The Merging of the Percentages of the Selected Options				
80.7%		10.9%	8.4%	

The first row of Table 2 presents the sum of the number of responses to each of the five choices in questions 1-10. Table 2 shows that there are 412 "highly effective" choices and 395 "somewhat effective" choices, the numbers of which are significantly higher than the numbers of "highly ineffective" (26) and "somewhat ineffective" (58) choices. Thus, the percentages of the responses rating tasks to be effective (80.7%) are significantly higher than the percentages of those that rated them to be ineffective (8.4%). The results of the analysis of the first 10 questions in the questionnaire are demonstrated in Fig. 1, illustrates the results in the third row of Table 2, in which the percentages in the second row of Table 2 have been merged.
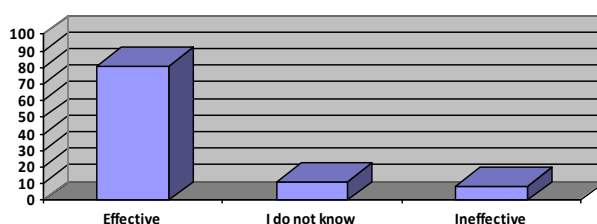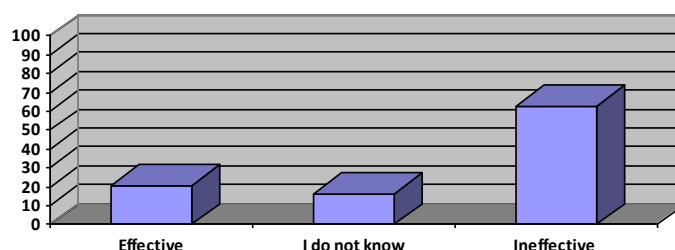

Figure 1.The results of the analysis of questions 1-10 in the questionnaire

Table 2 and Fig. 1, show that 80.7% of the responses considered tasks to be effective in the learning of English and 8.4% of the responses rated them as being ineffective. 10.9% of the responses were indeterminate.

B. Descriptive Statistics for Research Question 2

The results of the questions 11-20, which represent the second macro-category; i.e. the effectiveness of textbook activities in language learning from learners' perspective" are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
THE RESULTS OF THE ANALYSIS OF QUESTIONS 11-20 IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

	Highly effective	Somewhat effective	I do not know	Somewhat ineffective	Highly ineffective
11	How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in making language learning enjoyable?				
	3	11	11	45	30
12	How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in engaging you in learning English?				
	3	14	27	32	24
13	How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in increasing your motivation to learn English?				
	2	15	21	30	32
14	How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in encouraging you to work in groups?				
	1	9	12	30	48
15	How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your accuracy in producing grammatically correct sentences?				
	3	26	19	32	20
16	How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your fluency in speaking English?				
	6	15	11	28	40
17	How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your vocabulary knowledge?				
	4	34	22	22	18
18	How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your pronunciation?				
	2	24	17	28	29
19	How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)?				
	4	21	19	34	22
20	How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in providing you with the opportunity to communicate with others?				
	2	8	7	30	53

As it is shown in Table 3, most of the students' responses tend towards the ineffective end of the continuum. The number of the responses rating the actual activities in the textbook as ineffective is significantly higher than those rating them as effective. Table 4 presents the percentages for questions 11-20 in the questionnaire.

TABLE 4:
THE PERCENTAGES FOR QUESTIONS 11-20 IN THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Highly effective	Somewhat effective	I do not know	Somewhat ineffective	Highly ineffective
The Total Number of the Selected Options				
30	177	166	311	316
The Percentage of the Selected Options				
3%	17.7%	16.6%	31.1%	31.6%
The Merging of the Percentages of the Selected Options				
20.7%		16.6%	62.7%	

The first row of Table 4 presents the sum of the number of responses to each of the five choices in questions 11-20. As Table 4 shows, the percentages of the responses rating the actual textbook activities to be ineffective (62.7%) are significantly higher than the percentages of those that rated them to be effective (20.7%).The results of the analysis of questions 11-20 in the questionnaire are demonstrated in Fig. 2. Fig.2, illustrates the results in the third row of Table 4 which merges the percentages in the second row of Table 4.

Figure 2.The results of the analysis of questions 11-20 in the questionnaire

As it is evident from both Table 4 and Fig. 2, only 20.7% of the responses rated the actual activities in the textbook as being effective. 62.7% of the responses rated them as being ineffective, and 16.6% of the responses were indeterminate.

Above, the results of the questionnaire were presented in various charts and figures. What will follow is a careful analysis of different sections of the first-year high school English textbook in order to determine the number and percentages of tasks and non-tasks in each section.

C. Descriptive Statistics for Research Question 3

Table 5 presents the number of tasks and non-tasks in the Section A of the textbook (The New Words Section).

TABLE 5:
THE NUMBER OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION A

Lesson	Non-Task		Total
	The Number of Items With Sample Sentences	**The Number of "Practice Your New Words" Items**	
One	8	5	13
Two	10	5	15
Three	7	6	14
Four	7	5	12
Five	6	5	11
Six	8	6	14
Seven	6	7	13
Eight	8	5	13
Nine	8	5	13
Sum			**118**

As Table 5 shows, there is a total number of 118 items in Section A, all of which fall into the category of non-tasks. Table 6 presents the percentages of tasks and non-tasks in the Section A of the textbook (The New Words Section).

TABLE 6:
THE PERCENTAGES OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION

The Percentage of Non-Tasks in Section A	100%
The Percentage of Tasks in Section A	0%

Table 7 presents the different types of activities and the numbers of tasks and non-tasks in the Section C of the textbook (The Comprehension Section).

TABLE 7:
THE NUMBER OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION C

Lesson	Task Answering Questions Orally	True or False	Multiple Choice	Sentence Completion	Total
One	6	5	5	6	24
Two	7	6	5	5	24
Three	6	5	5	7	23
Four	7	8	4	0	19
Five	8	6	4	0	18
Six	6	5	4	0	15
Seven	6	5	4	0	15
Eight	8	5	5	7	25
Nine	7	8	4	0	19
Sum					**182**

Table 8 shows that there are 182 items in Section C, all of which fulfill the necessary criteria to be considered reading tasks. Table 8 presents the percentages of tasks and non-tasks in the Section C of the textbook (The Comprehension Section).

TABLE 8:
THE PERCENTAGES OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION C

The Percentage of Non-Tasks in Section C	0%
The Percentage of Tasks in Section C	100%

Table 9 presents the number of tasks and non-tasks in the Section D of the textbook (The Speak Out Section).

TABLE 9:
THE NUMBER OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION D

Lesson	Substitution Drill	Listening	Repetition	Answering Questions	Sentence Completion	Making New Sentences	Task	Total
One	18	0	0	8	0	15	0	41
Two	7	0	0	8	0	9	10	34
Three	18	0	12	0	0	10	0	40
Four	15	0	10	0	0	20	0	45
Five	10	2	0	5	0	10	0	27
Six	0	0	12	0	0	10	0	22
Seven	14	0	0	0	0	14	6	34
Eight	9	0	0	14	0	13	0	36
Nine	12	0	10	13	8	18	0	61
Sum							16	**340**

Table 9 shows that out of a total of 340 items in Section D, only 16 items can be classified as tasks. The percentages of tasks and non-tasks in the Section D of the textbook (The Speak Out Section) are presented in Table 10.

TABLE 10:
THE PERCENTAGES OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION D

The Percentage of Non-Tasks in Section D	95.1%
The Percentage of Tasks in Section D	4.9%

Table 11 presents the number of tasks and non-tasks in the Section E of the textbook (The Write It Down Section).

TABLE 11:
THE NUMBER OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION E

Lesson	Writing	Non-Task	Task	Total	Total Number of Non-Tasks	Total Number of Tasks
One	Writing 1		Task	5	0	5
	Writing 2		Task	5	0	5
Two	Writing 1		Task	5	0	5
	Writing 2	Non-Task		8	8	0
Three	Writing 1	Non-Task		8	8	0
	Writing 2	Non-Task		5	5	0
	Writing 1	Non-Task		5	5	0
Four	Writing 2	Non-Task		5	5	0
	Writing 3	Non-Task		6	6	0
Five	Writing 1	Non-Task		12	12	0
	Writing 2	Non-Task		5	5	0
Six	Writing 1	Non-Task		6	6	0
	Writing 2	Non-Task		8	8	0
Seven	Writing 1		Task	5	0	5
	Writing 2		Task	7	0	7
	Writing 1	Non-Task		6	6	0
Eight	Writing 2	Non-Task		5	5	0
	Writing 3	Non-Task		6	6	0
	Writing 1	Non-Task		5	5	0
	Writing 2	Non-Task		5	5	0
Nine	Writing 3	Task		10	0	10
	Writing 4	Non-Task		10	10	0
Sum				142	105	37

As it is shown in Table 11, out of a total of 142 items in Section E, only 37 items can be classified as tasks, while a large number of them (105 items) cannot be considered as tasks. The percentages of tasks and non-tasks in the Section E of the textbook (The Write It Down Section) are demonstrated in Table 12.

TABLE 12:
THE PERCENTAGES OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION E

The Percentage of Non-Tasks in Section E	73%
The Percentage of Tasks in Section E	26%

Table 13 presents the number of tasks and non-tasks in the Section F of the textbook (The Language Functions Section).

TABLE 13:
THE NUMBER OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION F

Lesson	Non-Task	Task	Total
One	0	1	1
Two	0	1	1
Three	0	1	1
Four	5	1	6
Five	0	5	5
Six	0	1	1
Seven	0	1	1
Eight	0	1	1
Nine	0	1	1
Sum	5	13	18

Table 13 shows that out of a total of 18 items in Section F, most of them (13 items) are tasks and only a few of them (5 items) are non-tasks. The percentages of tasks and non-tasks in the Section F of the textbook (The Language Functions Section) are presented in Table 14.

TABLE 14:
THE PERCENTAGES OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION F

The Percentage of Non-Tasks in Section F	27.7%
The Percentage of Tasks in Section F	72.2%

The number of tasks and non-tasks in the Section G of the textbook (The Pronunciation Section) is presented in Table15.

TABLE 15:
THE NUMBER OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION G

Lesson	Item Number	Non-Task	Task	Total
One	1.	1	0	1
	2.	1	0	1
Two	1.	1	0	1
	2.	1	0	1
Three	1.	1	0	1
	2.	4	0	4
Four	1.	4	0	4
	2.	1	0	1
Five	1.	1	0	1
	2.	1	0	1
	3.	4	0	4
Six	1.	1	0	1
	2.	3	0	3
Seven	1.	1	0	1
Eight	1.	3	0	3
	2.	5	0	5
Nine	1.	5	0	5
	2.	1	0	1
	3.	1	0	1
Sum		40	0	40

As Table 15 shows, out of a total of 40 items in Section G, all of them are non-tasks and none of them qualifies as a task. Table 16 presents the percentages of tasks and non-tasks in the Section G of the textbook (The Pronunciation Section).

TABLE 16:
THE PERCENTAGES OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION G

The Percentage of Non-Tasks in Section G	100%
The Percentage of Tasks in Section G	0%

The number of tasks and non-tasks in the Section H of the textbook (The Vocabulary Review Section) is presented in Table 17.

TABLE 17:
THE NUMBER OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION H

Lesson	Non-Task	Task	Total
One	8	0	8
Two	10	0	10
Three	0	10	10
Four	0	6	6
Five	8	0	8
Six	8	0	8
Seven	0	9	9
Eight	10	0	10
Nine	9	0	9
Sum	53	25	78

As Table 17 shows, of a total of 78 items in Section H, 25 items are tasks and 53 items are non-tasks.

Table 18 presents the percentages of tasks and non-tasks in the Section H of the textbook (The Vocabulary Review Section).

TABLE 18:
THE PERCENTAGES OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN SECTION H

The Percentage of Non-Tasks in Section H	67.9%
The Percentage of Tasks in Section H	32%

Table 19 presents the total number of tasks and non-tasks in different sections of the textbook.

TABLE 19:
THE TOTAL NUMBER OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN THE TEXTBOOK

Section	Total Number of Non-Tasks	Total Number of Tasks	Total Number of Items
A	118	0	118
C	0	182	182
D	324	16	340
E	105	37	142
F	5	13	18
G	40	0	40
H	53	25	78
Sum	645	273	918

Table 19 shows that out of a total of 918 items in the different sections throughout the textbook, most of them (645 items) are non-tasks and only 273 items are tasks. The total percentages of tasks and non-tasks in the textbook are presented in Table 20.

TABLE 20:
THE TOTAL PERCENTAGES OF TASKS AND NON-TASKS IN THE TEXTBOOK

Total Percentage of Non-Tasks in Textbook	70.2%
Total Percentage of Tasks in Textbook	29.7%

V. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

The first research question was how effective tasks are in the learning of English from the perspective of Iranian high school students. 80.7% of the responses indicated that the majority of the students considered tasks to be effective in the learning of English and 8.4% of the responses rated them as being ineffective.

The second research question was how effective textbook activities are in the learning of English from the perspective of Iranian high school students. Only 20.7% of the responses rated the actual activities in the textbook as being effective and 62.7% of the responses demonstrated that the majority of the students considered them to be ineffective.

The third research question was about the percentages of tasks and non-tasks in the textbook. The analysis of the different sections of the textbook showed that a large share of the textbook (70.2%) is allocated to exercises (non-tasks), and only a small percentage of the textbook constitutes tasks (29.7%). The results of the analysis of the questions in the questionnaire were in sharp contrast with the results of the textbook analysis; i.e. while the majority of the students preferred tasks over the actual textbook activities, a low percentage of the textbook is dedicated to tasks.

Also, as the learners' responses showed, tasks provide them with greater time to communicate than the actual activities in their textbooks, most of which do not call for group work. Meaningful production practice has a number of benefits for learners such as enhancing their fluency by increasing automaticity through practice which may cause students to attend more to relevant information, notice gaps in their own production, test their hypothesis, and talk about language and collaboratively solve problems (Saville-Troike, 2006). According to Swain (1985, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001), having opportunities for the productive use of language is essential for students. Tasks provide both the input and output necessary for successful language acquisition to take place.

Plough and Gass (1993, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2011) believe that the negotiation of meaning, which becomes possible through the using of tasks, helps focus the learner's attention on some aspect of the utterance produced by the learner, i.e. grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc. which requires modification. This is in line with the students' high rating of tasks as being effective in enabling them to produce grammatically correct sentences, improving their vocabulary knowledge, and their pronunciation.

With regard to fluency, a fairly high percentage of responses (83%) rated tasks to be effective in improving learners' fluency, as opposed to 21% for the actual textbook activities. This could be because all of the sample tasks presented in the questionnaire involved interaction. The poor rating of the actual textbook activities could be because the majority of them do not encourage the students to interact with each other. The analysis of Section D (Speaking Out) revealed that over 95% of the activities in this section are exercises (non-tasks) that are concerned with grammar rather than meaning-focused communication and developing fluency. Through the use of intermittent phases of focus-on-form and focus-on-communication during the performance of tasks, learners can develop effective fluency. They can move their IL forward in the focus-on-form phase and develop effective fluency by being forced to communicate in real-time during the focus-on-communication phase (Salmani-Nodoushan, 2008).

A high percentage of the responses (85%) rated tasks as being effective in promoting accuracy, as opposed to 29% for the actual textbook activities. According to Schachter (1974, as cited in Salmani-Nodoushan, 2008), less proficient L2 learners often use avoidance and communication strategies, which may reduce the pressure on their partially-efficient interlanguage to change. This can promote accuracy.

According to Widdowson (1989), time pressure to communicate in real-time will push the learners to rely on the lexical mode of processing rather than the syntactic mode. This is because the syntactic mode is often employed when

the emphasis is on accuracy. This implies that, as 77% of the responses have rated, as opposed to 38% for textbook activities, tasks can be effective in improving the vocabulary knowledge of learners.

Employing public speaking tasks such as presentation and debate tasks creates an environment in which all four language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing can be improved. Speaking plays an important role in both of these tasks. Peer evaluation can help improve the students' listening skill, particularly during debates provided that participants are required to take notes and give responses to the speeches delivered by their partners. Moreover, since students will have to skim, scan, and read specific materials in depth to be able to find relevant information to use in their presentations and debates, they will improve their reading and writing skills while they are preparing themselves for the task through taking notes, completing argumentative essays, and preparing for oral presentations, students improve their writing skill.

The findings of this study confirm Rahimi and Hassani's (2012) findings, where students did not perceive high school textbooks as valuable learning sources. In their study, they found a positive correlation between Iranian EFL learners' attitudes towards their textbooks and their attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language. As the present study showed, the negative attitudes of the students towards their textbook activities and the wide difference between their preferences and the actual content of the textbook had a negative impact on their level of motivation for learning English. Evidently, students often develop negative attitudes towards learning English as a foreign language as a result of the lack of stimulating and authentic materials and tasks (Richards, 2001). Authentic materials are meaningful to students, and engage them personally. Such materials also increase their intrinsic motivation.

Since for Iranian EFL learners textbooks are the primary source of first-hand experience with English (Azizifar et al, 2010), high school English textbooks should be revised, and they should provide students with opportunities to interact with the materials that motivate them to learn English (Gibbs, 1992, as cited in Rahimi & Hassani, 2012). The study also revealed that students did not find the actual textbook activities as being effective in the development of their four language skills. These findings confirm the findings of those studies that have discussed that language skills and components such as reading, listening, speaking, writing, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation are poorly developed and presented in Iranian EFL textbooks (e.g. Ketabi & Talebinezhad, 2009), even though the findings of most of these studies are based on teachers' ideas and perceptions. Textbook designers could increase the number of tasks in various sections of high school English textbooks so that they become more valuable sources of learning by being more in line with what students find to be motivating and useful.

The results of this study suggest that there are great mismatches between the actual content of the textbook and what the students perceive to be motivating and useful in the learning of English; i.e. the use of tasks, the percentage of which was shown to be insufficient in the actual textbook. The results of this research can be useful to textbook designers if they are willing to consider the perceptions of learners in the possible future revisions of high school textbooks. It can also give language teachers at high school level some insights about what their students perceive to be more effective in the learning of English, how they would like to go about learning the language, and to what aspect of language they need to allocate more time in order to compensate for the shortcomings of the textbook. The results of the study would still be valid in the event of high school textbooks undergoing revision in the future, since the results reflect the preferences of learners which could be compared to the content of the revised textbooks, or may even be taken into consideration in future revisions.

APPENDIX A. THE ENGLISH VERSION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Below, you see some samples of tasks that can be included in your English textbook and be used in the classroom. Please read about these sample tasks and share your opinion about them by answering the relevant questions.

Task 1: Think about your favorite season. Work individually for 5 minutes and make a list of all the reasons why you like that particular season. (For example, I like spring because I like flowers.) Now, work in groups and explain your reasons to your group members. If they like a different season, try to describe the negative aspects of their favorite season. Then, your teacher will talk to the class about his favorite season and you will have the opportunity to agree or disagree with him.

Task 2: Read the following text for 5 minutes. Discuss with your group members whether you found the topic interesting and why. Make a list of the things you liked about the text. Then, discuss in your group about whose list includes more interesting points about the text. Ask him to read the list out loud to the class. The teacher and the rest of the students will comment on the list.

Let's think you are in a foreign country. If you don't know the language of that country, you may have a lot of problems. Here is the story of a Frenchman who was traveling in the United States. One day he was eating in a restaurant and wanted to order some mushrooms. Because he didn't know English, he asked for a pencil and paper and carefully drew a picture of a mushroom. But his drawing was not very good. The waiter looked at his drawing and went away. He returned in about twenty minutes with a large umbrella.

Task 3: Your teacher will give each of your group members a card, which includes statements beginning with "Find someone who......." as in "Find someone who likes tennis." Walk around the classroom and try to find someone who

agrees with that statement. Next, pair up with that person and ask him to explain to you why he agrees or disagrees with the stated action. Make a list of his reasons and report them to your teacher.

Task 4: Ask one of your group members to walk out of the classroom. Choose an object (such as your pen) and hide it somewhere in the classroom. After your friend is back, he should try to find the hidden object by telling your group members where he guesses / thinks / believes the object is hidden. For example "I think / guess that the pen is in Ali's bag."

Task 5: Each student in your group will be given two pictures depicting a part of a story involving a character who is doing different things in each picture. Work individually and write a few sentences about what the character is doing in your picture. Then, share your sentences with your partners and together decide what the proper order for the story is. Elect a student from among your group who can recite the story orally well. The teacher and the other students will comment on the story.

1. How effective can such tasks be in making language learning enjoyable?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
2. How effective can such tasks be in engaging you in learning English?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
3. How effective can such tasks be in increasing your motivation to learn English?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
4. How effective can such tasks be in causing you to cooperate with your group members to perform the task?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
5. How effective can such tasks be in improving your accuracy in producing grammatically correct sentences?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
6. How effective can such tasks be in improving your fluency in speaking English?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
7. How effective can such tasks be in improving your vocabulary knowledge?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
8. How effective can such tasks be in improving your pronunciation?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
9. How effective can such tasks be in improving your language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
10. How effective can such tasks be in providing you with the opportunity to communicate with others?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

The following questions are about the actual activities in your English textbook.

11. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in making language learning enjoyable?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
12. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in engaging you in learning English?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
13. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in increasing your motivation to learn English?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
14. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in encouraging you to work in groups?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
15. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your accuracy in producing grammatically correct sentences?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
16. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your fluency in speaking English?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
17. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your vocabulary knowledge?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
18. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your pronunciation?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
19. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in improving your language skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective
20. How effective are the actual activities in your textbook in providing you with the opportunity to communicate with others?
   ☐ Highly effective   ☐ Somewhat effective   ☐ I do not know   ☐ Somewhat ineffective   ☐ Highly ineffective

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A Survey on Domestication and Foreinization Theories in Translation

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Abstract—The two translation strategies domestication and foreinization each has a long history of development. Both domesticating and foreinizing translation are products of a given culture and society. The choice of translation strategies is not haphazard but context-bound. Thus domestication and foreinization should be viewed in a historical and dynamical way.

Index Terms—domestication, foreinization

As two major translation strategies, domestication and foreignization have long been the focus of the debate in translation circle. The former is "a term used to describe the translation strategy in which a transparent, fluent style is adopted in order to minimize the strangeness of the foreign text for target readers" and the latter "is used to designate the type of translation in which a target text is produced which deliberately breaks target conventions by retaining something of the foreignness of the original" (Shuttleworth and Cowie, 2004, p59). Opinions of different translation theorists diverge in the choice between the two translation strategies in translation practice. But reviewing the development of these two strategies, it is easy to find out that both of them are deeply rooted in specific social and cultural circumstances. In other words, the choice of domesticating and foreinizing strategies is not only made by the translators, but more importantly, made by the specific social situations.

I. DOMESTICATION

Domesticating strategies have been implemented at least since ancient Rome (Baker, 1998). In 300 BC, Greece was conquered by Rome and the Romans began to consider translation as "a form of conquest"(Tan, 1991, p22). As a result, "Latin translators not only deleted culturally specific markers but also added allusions to Roman culture and replaced the name of the Greek poet with their own, passing the translation off as a text originally written in Latin" (Baker,1998, p241).

In 46 BC, Cicero, a representative of ancient western translation theory, concluded from his translation practice of the speeches of the Attic orators Asechines and Demosthenes:

I did not translate them as an interpreter, but as an orator, keeping the same ideas and. forms, or as one might say, the figures of "thought", but in language which conforms to our usage. And in doing so, I did not hold it necessary to render word for word, but I preserve the general style and force of the language. (Munday, 2001, p19)

Apparently, there was a dichotomy of translation strategies into free translation and "word for word" translation. "An orator" was to produce free translation in which the ideas and thought of the original work were retained while "an interpreter" was to give "word for word" translation or namely literal translation. Cicero was in support of free translation and labeled literal translation as the work of the unskilled and insisted that the latter should be avoided.

At the end of the fourth century, Saint Jerome cited the authority of Cicero's approach to justify his own Latin translation of the Greek religious works. He described his translation strategy as "I render not word-for-word, but sense -for- sense" (Munday, 2001, p20). In his opinion, adhering to the form of the source text would produce an absurd translation and cover the sense of the original. The primary work of a translator was to convey the ideas and contents of the source text in the target language, but the words in the source text to express such ideas and contents were dispensable. To illustrate the concept of the target language taking over the sense of the source text, Jerome used the military image of the original text being marched into the target language like a prisoner by its conqueror (Robinson, 1997). After Jerome, the discussion on free and literal translation lasted for more than one thousand years: John Dryden advocated "paraphrase" that involved changing whole phrases and more or less corresponded faithful or sense-for-sense translation. His free translation method in his version of Aeneid was so complete that "fluency" was seen to be "a feature of Virgil's poetry instead of the strategy implemented by the translator" (Venuti, 2004). In his essay "*On the Principle of 7ianslation*" in 1791, Alexander Fraser Tytler put forward famous three "laws": 'The Translation should give a complete transcript of the ideas of the original work; The style and manner of writing should be of the same character with that of the original; The translation should have all the ease of original composition (p16).

They represented two different opinions about translation: faithfulness of content and faithfulness of form, and can be viewed as the reformations of the sense-for-sense and word-for-word dichotomy by Cicero and St Jerome. After centuries of debates on literal and free translation from Cicero to the twentieth century, the 1950s began to witness the theoreticians' systematic analyses of translation. Roman Jakobson introduced the notion of "equivalence in difference"

in his paper "*On Linguistic Aspects of Translation*" in 1959 which gave new push to the theoretical analysis of translation. In 1964, Eugene A. Nida formulated his concept of "dynamic" or "functional equivalence" in translation and later restated and developed them. "A translation of dynamic equivalence aims at complete naturalness of expression," said Nida, "and tries to relate the receptor to modes of behavior relevant within the context of his own culture" (*Toward a Science of Translating* p159). The phrase "naturalness of expression" signaled "the importance of a fluent strategy to this theory of translation and it is obvious that fluency involves domestication" (Venuti, 2004). Nida proposed that "the translator must be a person who can draw aside the curtains of linguistic and cultural differences so that people may see clearly the relevance of the original message" (Nida and Waard, 1986, p14). He transferred the focus from the comparison between the original text and the translated version to the comparison between the two communicative processes and took every linguistic and cultural factor which was possible to affect the reception of information into consideration. He said that "the new focus, however, has shifted from the form of the message to the response of the receptor"(Nida and Taber, 1969, p738). And he contended that an ideal translation should have the same effect on the target text readers as the source text did on its readers. In his opinion, "the readers of a translated text should be able to comprehend it to the point that they can conceive of how the original readers of the text must have understood and appreciated it", or in a broad sense, "the readers of a translated text should be able to understand and appreciate it in essentially the same manners the original readers slid" (Nida, 2000, p118). It's obvious that Nida is reader-oriented and his theory is for the translator to leave the reader in peace and move the author to the reader.

II. FOREIGNIZATION

To enquire into the trend of foreignization in western translation theories, one very important figure must be mentioned, Laurence Venuti and his works *The Translator's Invisibility* and *The Scandals of Translation*.

"As a theory and practice of translation, however, a foreignizing method is specific to a certain European countries at particular historical moments" (Venuti, 2004, p20). "A foreignizing strategy in translation was first formulated in German culture during the classical and Romantic periods, perhaps most decisively by the philosopher and theologian Friedrich Schleiermacher" (Baker, 1998, p242). In an 1813 lecture on the different methods of translation, Friedrich Schleiermacher, a German theologian and philosopher, argued, "[...] there are two. Either the translator leaves the author in peace, as much as possible, and moves the reader towards him; or he leaves the reader in peace, as much as possible, and moves the author towards him" (Venuti, 2004, p19-20). Schleiermacher advocated the first method since he thought German "can thrive in all its freshness and completely develop its own power only by means of the most many-sized contacts with what is foreign" (Lefevere, 2004, p165). It suggested that a translator should do his/her best to preserve the strangeness of the source text and expose the target reader to the linguistic and cultural otherness of the source text. Then the translator must adopt "an `alienating' method of translation, orienting himself/herself by the language and content of the source text. He/she must valorize the foreign and transfer that into the target language" (Monday, 2001, p28).

The two methods were described by Schleiermacher but not liven concrete terms. In 1995, Lawrence Venuti in his work The Translator's Invisibility named the first method "foreignizing method" and the second "domesticating method". According to Venuti, a domesticating method is an ethnocentric reduction of the foreign text to language cultural values, bringing the author back home, and a foreignizing method is an ethno deviant pressure on those values to register the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text, sending the reader abroad. From then on, the debate on domestication and foreignization extends from the layer of language involved in the debate on literal translation and free translation to another one of cultural and political connotation.

By his investigation of western translation history and theories, Venuti concludes that fluency has long played a dominant role because the canon of foreign literatures in English is supposed to take shape based on the western ideology (Venuti, 2004). A foreign text, therefore, in the traditional translation practice, is produced in accord with the ethnocentric and imperialist value. Namely, the advocated principle in translation is fluency or domesticating method.

Venuti (2004) believes that a foreignizing translation is highly desirable, as it seeks to resist the dominant target-language cultural values and signify the linguistic and cultural difference of the foreign text instead of eliminating them, which is also the basic idea of the deconstruction translation theory which will be referred to later. It is a strategic cultural intervention pitched against the hegemonic English-language nations and the unequal cultural exchanges in which they engage their global others. From Venuti's point of view, "foreignizing translation in English can be a form of resistance against ethnocentrism and racism, cultural narcissism and imperialism, in the interests of democratic geopolitical relations" (p20). Venuti (2004) advocates and practices a resistant translation strategy, a term synonymous to foreignization, because it locates the alien in a cultural other, pursues cultural diversity, foregrounds 'the linguistic and cultural differences of the source-language text and transforms the hierarchy of cultural values in the target language (p308).

However, he opposes the domesticating translation in the Anglo-American cultures. One reason is that this strategy results in transparent and fluent translations, which in turn lead to the invisibility of translators. Transparency "effaces the work of translation and contributes to the cultural marginality and economic exploitation that English-language translators have long suffered, their status as seldom recognized, poorly paid writers whose work nonetheless remains indispensable because of the global domination of Anglo-American culture" (Venuti,2004, p17). Venuti said that the

motive of *The Translator's Invisibility*" is "to make the translator more visible so as to resist and change the conditions under which translation is theorized and practiced today, especially in English-speaking countries" (ibid.), which will later be referred to in another book by Venuti (1998), *The Scandals of Translation.*

Another reason has much to do with his respect for cultural others and the struggle for cultural equality. For Venuti, translating involves looking for similarities between languages and cultures, only because it means constantly confronting dissimilarities. It can never and should never aim to remove these dissimilarities entirely. A translated text should be the site where a different culture emerges, where the reader gets a glimpse of the cultural other. The prevalence of fluent domestication has supported the developments of British and American cultures that are "aggressively monolingual, unreceptive to the foreign, accustomed to fluent translations that invisibly inscribe foreign texts with English-language values and provide readers with the narcissistic experience of recognizing their own culture in a cultural other" (Venuti, 2004, p15).

The two reasons are: interrelated, because "to recognize the translator's invisibility is at once to critique the current situation and to hope for a future more hospitable to the differences that the translator must negotiate" (Venuti, 2004, p313).

III. DOMESTICATION AND FOREIGNIZATION IN CHINA

Translation practice and theory research in China also has a long history. During the development, disputes over domestication and foreinization are intense as well.

According to Wang Dongfeng (2002), the theoretical development of the translation strategies in China can be divided into three phases in chronological order:
1. "Wen" (elegant) versus "Zhi" (simple) in Buddhist Scripture translation;
2. "Literal" versus "Free" in modern times;
3. "Domestication" versus "Foreignization" in contemporary age.

A. First Period

The debate over "Wen" (文) and "Zhi" (质) began about two thousand years ago in the late Eastern 13an Dynasty. Zhi Qian, a translator of Buddhist scriptures in the Three Kingdom Period, was said to be the first one who recorded the conflict. He complained in the preface to Dhammapada (《法句经序》) that Zhu Jiangyan's translation was almost literal but not elegant. But then He advised "to follow the original without amp modification". Translators of Zhi Qian's time held Buddhist scripture as holy and insisted that Buddha's words should be rendered in a simple way. Therefore, they adhered closely to the original and the "simple" school prevailed. In the Eastern Jin Dynasty, one of the most outstanding translators was Shi Dao'an (AD314-385), who emphasized the principle of "faithfulness" and insisted that translators should "adhere to the original text but not ruin the meaning" (Chen, 2000, p12). The situation that "Zhi" dominated in Buddhist scriptures translation did not change until the time when Kumarajiva (AD344-413), an Indian invited by Shi Dao'an to revise the translation by Chinese Buddhists began to take charge of the translation work in Chang'an. His translations were readable and elegant but sometimes "went too far from the original" (Chen, 2000, p19). According to Liang Qichao, it was Xuan Zang (600-664), one of the greatest Buddihist translator in Tang Dynasty, who balanced "Wen" and "Zhi" so that his translations were a}}curate, intelligible and graceful and reached the peak of Buddhist translation in China (Luo, 1984).

B. Second Period

The first wave of literary translation in China came with Lin Shu's successful rendering of La Dane aux, Camelias in 1899. In order to cater to the taste of the readers, Lin Shu turned to typical Chinese language of that time and domesticated many foreign texts while his credit was more or less compromised by his arbitrary deletion, addition, and rework. Yan Fu, another prominent figure at that time asserted in the preface to his translation of On Evolution in 1898 that "there are three difficult things to do in translating: faithfulness, expressiveness and elegance" (Chen, 2000, p106), which has exerted a tremendous influence upon many succeeding Chinese: translators yet sowed the seeds of a future controversy after May Fourth Movement. The later discussions on "faithfulness" and "expressiveness" gradually evolved into the debate over free translation and literal translation. May Fourth Period was an important time for the development of translation theory in China. The debate over free and literal translation could be regarded as a preliminary form of today's debate on domestication and foreignization.

In the 1920s, to enrich Chinese language by introducing new ways of expressions and retaining the foreign flavor, Lu Xun, one of the most radical representatives of literal translation school, claimed "rather to be faithful in thought than to be fluent in language". He employed many Europeanized structures in his translations as an opposition to fluent translation strategy, a typical example of which is his translation *The Collection of Foreign Novels,* but this collection only sells less than 60 copies after it was published. Later, his unidiomatic ways of expression which made the target text difficult to be understood were attacked by free translation school. Liang Shiqiu (1902-1987) said that reading Lu's translations was like reading a map and trying to locate places with one's fingers. He noted that they were more than "stiff', and were even "dead translations". In 1930s and 1940s, the free translation school still dominated the field of literary translation field, most literary translators including Fu Donghua paid more attention to the "verve" of original

texts and the fluency of the translated texts rather than the form of the original texts, what's more, translators even "change the structure of the original text according to their own wishes" (Sun, 2002). But during this debate, especially with the effort of people like Lu Xun, Qian Zhongshu and Guo Moruo, the "faithfulness" school began to take some influence, and many foreign words as well as western grammatical structures were imported which thereby facilitated the development of vernacular Chinese. It is worth noting that Lu Xun's insistence on literal translation is based on the reform of Chinese language, and it transfers the problems of translation into political problems of literary and cultural reconstruction. Wang Dongfeng that there is a degree of resemblance or even the sameness between Lu Xun's literal translation and Venuti's foreignization(Wang, 2002).

From the late 1930s on, free translation gradually prevailed in the translation field of China. Recognizing the great linguistic gap between Chinese and western languages, many influential literary translators such as Zhang Guruo, Zhu Shenghao and Fu Donghua had used domesticated language to translate foreign literary works. Their stressed the presentation of the soul of the original text and insisted on natural translation method. Fu Donghua once described Europeanization as "imitation" and said the imitation of foreign things was as deplorable as that of ancient things. He then said that "the beautiful is only what is imagined anal created" (Luo, 1984, p442). In the 1950s, Fu Lei put forward "Resemblance in Spirit" which was borrowed from the theory of Chinese classic painting. In the preface to his revised Chinese version of Balzac's Le Pere Goriot, he said, "in terms of effects, translating is just like painting, both aimed at the resemblance in spirit rather than in form"(Fu, 1984, p20). From then on, literary translation had been uplifted to the realm of aesthetics and arts, and literary translators had set "transference of spirit" as the goal of a successful translation. In 1964, when Qian Zhongshu commented on Lin Shu's translation, he proposed that an ideal criterion of literary translation was "Sublimation" by which he meant:

When translating works, translators are not only supposed to retain the original flavor but also show no unnaturalness caused by linguistic differences between two languages. The target text should be so faithful to the source text that it does not read like a translation because there is not the slightest translation in the source language text.(Luo, 1984, p696)

Fu Lei's "Resemblance in Spirit" and Qian Zhongshu's "Sublimation" had exerted tremendous influence upon later Chinese literary translators and reached the summit of free translation.

C.   Third Period

The debates in the earlier periods were actually of technical level and limited to linguistic problems. Recently, criticism on translation strategies gradually moves out of the scope of language. More and more importance has been attached to cultural research in current translation studies and the ideology behind the process of translating. Many scholars and translation theorists come to realize that they have much in common with the experts in cultural anthropology and there is a need to look beyond the confines of linguistically oriented translation studies and search for cross-cultural approaches. Wang Dongfeng in his essay "About Domestication and Foreignization" says that "the debate on domestication and foreignization can be regarded as the poetic, cultural and political rather linguistic extension of the time-worn controversy over free and literal translation" and asserts "domestication and foreignization can be regarded as the conceptual extension of literal translation and free translation, but they are not the same" (Wang, 2002, p25). Domestication and foreignization, therefore, become the hot topic in the translation circle.

In his essay "Domestication—A Way of Translation", Liu Yingkai argues that "domestication will reconstruct the realities of foreign countries, obliterate the national features, compel them to be assimilated by the target language, and thus distort the original text"(Liu, 1987, p60). He sharply criticizes the prevailing practice of domestication in Chinese translation circle such as the overuse of Chinese four-character phrases, archaisms, images and idioms. Since then, a new round of dispute over domestication and foreignization arises. Guo Jianzhong makes a detailed analysis of the concepts of domestication and foreignization in his essay "A Cultural Approach to Translation" and comes to a conclusion that they will coexist for ever (Guo, 1998). Later, Sun Zhili points out that "foreignization tends to be dominant in China's literary translation in the 21th century"(Sun, 2003, p44). He also provides a further analysis of advisability and feasibility of "Foreignization First, Domestication Second" strategy based on the general trend in current world-wide situation. Cai Ping, however, holds that the purpose of translation is to communicate. Domestication is preferred because it is easy for the readers to understand while foreignization should make it hard for them to read or appreciate. He then draws a conclusion that the latter should give way to the former (Cai, 2002). In the debate over translation strategies, it is apparent that the voice of advocating foreignization sounds louder and many scholars are motivated by Venuti. For them, "the significance of foreignization lies in three aspects: accelerating cultural communication and increasing the target reader's knowledge of the foreign culture; meeting the aesthetic expectations of the target readers for translated literature; benefiting the development of the Chinese language"(Sun, 2003, p49-50).

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The Effect of Students' Knowledge about Ideology of Translation on Their Translation Qualitative Assessment of a Screen Script

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Abstract—This paper aims to compare the Stagecoach screen script , written by Dudley Nichols and Ben Hecht, (1939) with its Persian translation by Vandad Alvandipour (2009), based on three constraints_ discoursal constraints, textual constraints and generic constraints_ proposed by Ian Hatim and Basil Mason (1990) as the components of semiotic dimension of a text and as a method of ideological evaluation of translation. After the comparison, a test was designed in a multiple choice format and was given to two groups of M.A translation studies students (21 students in each group) to check their knowledge on ideology in translation studies. The survey was conducted giving one group a treatment (the application of three constraints in a text to give students a viewpoint on how to apply ideological components in a text) before the second test was given to both groups. The second test aimed at evaluating the student's ability in applying their knowledge for assessing the translation of a screen script. The result shows that although students had average level of knowledge about the subject (according to the result of the first test), they were unaware of the applicability of these constraints (according to the result of the second test). These findings encourage the increasing integration of applied courses into the translation curricula, as translation students only enjoy pure theoretical translation courses.

Index Terms—screen script, translation, ideology, assessment, discourse

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the famous writings of the 20th century is screen script writing. It has been seen many times that screen scripts are delivered to the markets in a novel, story or poem format. However, can screen script be considered as a story or a poem? There are two points of views for screen script evaluation:

a) Screen script is an instrumental writing in which the description of the production process of a movie, scene description, description of the place of objects, along with the dialogues between two or more people are included. This kind of writing has no value by itself and may be put aside after the shooting and editing process and become completely useless.

b) Adopting a literary view point, screen script can be regarded as the beginning of a cinematic innovation and through the literal view point. Sometimes a screen script is not the mere instruction of different processes of shooting, but it has a kind of innovation in its essence which can be considered as a literary work, especially if the writer is famous and has many other literary masterpieces. As an example, Bahram Beyzaei who has many screenplays in the history of theatre in Iran is well-known in the country for his valuable screenscript. There is a literal innovation in his screen scripts especially in his dialogues, scene description and style of narration.

Screen scripts were not like what we can see today. The first scripts of cinema were like a short written description which were brought to the location and the rest of the story was produced spontaneously by the director. After the 20th century the screenwriting expanded and changed to the developed structures with specific rules.

Screenscript translations in Iran started from translation of only summary of scripts. Persons who started this translation in Iran were Parviz Taeedi and Hooshang Taheri.For example Nights of Cabiria (1957) by Federico Fellini was translated by Parviz Taeedi and so did Citizen Kane (1941) in 1978. Hooshang Taheri translated many books from German language to Persian. Some of the screenscripts translated by him are as follow: Hiroshima my love (1959), translated in 1969, Wild strawberry (1957) by Ingmar Bergman, translated in 1969, Red desert (1964) by Michleangelo Antonioni and Nazarin(1959) by Luis Bunuel. Also Gholamhossein Saedi translated Cow in 1973.

Screenscript in comparison with screenplay or novel does not have a literary independency and nobility. Many of them have been printed and delivered to the market based on the literary essence of the screenscripts. The elements of a movie script consists of characters, location, plot, sounds, etc. A script consists of three acts structures; the three acts are setup (of the location and characters), confrontation (with an obstacle), and resolution (culminating in a climax and a dénouement). There are three bodies of a script: Headings- including camera location, time, and scene location etc,

Narrative-including action, sounds, character and setting, dialogue-including the name of the person, the actor direction and speech.

Screenscript translation involves transferring dialogs, scene descriptions, guidelines for directors, and cameraman into the target language. In translating a screenplay, dialogues are very important and as Reiss (2000) holds films should be translated in a way to "preserve the same effect on the hearer that the original has in the source language." (p.46) The translator of a screenscript should be interested in cinema as well as being expert in translation .The screen script should not be translated like a novel with extreme literally dialogues which makes it hard to understand in a time constraints. Unlike reading a book in which we can go back and read the paragraphs that we did not understand before, watching a movie necessitates instant understanding of the screen script, therefore a screen script should be translated in an easier way. For translating a script, it's not enough to know the terminology of the screen; a translator must also be able to transfer horror, pain, joy or suspense from the original script.

As screenscript translating is a challenging work and the translator should consider different aspects like writing principles, linguistic differences, pragmatics etc., this research first analyzes the translation based on three constraints that B.Hatim and I.Mason proposed for translation evaluation and ideology analysis. As J.Munday mentions in his '*Introducing translation studies*': "They pay extra attention to the realization in translation of ideational and interpersonal functions (rather than just the textual function) and incorporate into their model a semiotic level of discourse" (2001, p.97). Basic principles of their model are based on Hallidayan Model of language and discourse which looks at language as communication. Here linguistic choices are important as they are representative of sociocultural framework. There is a difference between House and Hatim & Mason theory. The main difference is the definition of discourse in these two models. Hatim and Mason define discourse as, "modes of speaking and writing which involves social groups in adopting a particular attitude towards areas of sociocultural activity. (For example Racist discourse, bureaucratese,etc)

(As cited by Munday, p.236)

Fundamentally, Hatim and Mason add the semiotic dimension to their theory which governs the relations between discoursal elements as signs. They propose these three constraints (1994) as parts of semiotic system within which ideology emerges.

Stagecoach (1939) is a classic Western film directed by John Ford. The screenscript, written by Dudley Nichols and Ben Hecht, which is an adaptation of "The Stage to Lordsburg", a 1937 short story by Ernest Haycox . Stagecoach is one of the best samples of the influence of literature on cinema. It performs a main role in the western genre and changed to a classic western prototype. Film theorist Andr é Bazin has written of John Ford's *Stagecoach*: "*Stagecoach* is the ideal example of the maturity of a style brought to classic perfection…*Stagecoach* is like a wheel, so perfectly made that it remains in equilibrium on its axis in any position. (1992, p.366-70)

The plot takes the name of stagecoach as the basis for narrative divisions. This screen script is the story of a group of passengers of a stagecoach each of which is the representative of a sect of a society, they start a journey and at the end all of them will be refined. The main events happen in places where stagecoach stopped for rest and these stops are a change in a routine of a journey with the stagecoach. The destination is future Lordsburg, Lordsburg of justice and social equality. The apaches were representative of wild forces of nature. As critic Andrew Sarris said the big part of stagecoach is Ford's "Double Image; alternating between close-ups of emotional intimacy and long shots of epic involvement, thus capturing both the twitches of life and the silhouettes of legend." Stagecoach changed to the eternal western classic type. The characters become the archetype of western genre; the events made the main dramatic opposition of this genre.

II. THREE CONSTRAINTS OF SEMIOTIC DIMENSION

There is a close relationship between translation and social conditions. Translator's act is based on their social conditions while the target and source languages have different societies. Hatim and Mason (1997) also consider translation not as an isolated phenomenon but as a part of social life. They focus on translation process as they believe that if we only focus on the translation product, without considering decision making procedures, our understanding is not comprehensive. They also believe also that it is not possible to have a mere objective model, and they set some parameters for analysis of translation process.

By means of Hatim and Mason's framework we can clarify the linguistic choices expressed in message, the social intention of the originator of the message, unravel the human and conceptual relations which go to make up the context we communicate and uncover the structure and textuality of the text.

In the process of translating a text from one language to another, there are restrictions for exact transferring because of cultural, ideological, social and linguistic differences. Hatim and Mason believe that the translator should transfer the text through linguistic and cultural boundaries; "in doing so, the translator is necessarily handling such matters as intended meaning, implied meaning, presupposed meaning, all on the basis of the evidence of the text." (1997, p.47)

They proposed their framework based on the Hallidayan (1976) model of language .There is a difference between the model of text processing proposed by Hatim and Mason and those proposed by other scholars like Hallidayan and J.House (1977). The difference is that they see text as a social event and therefore the text expressions do not come together accidentally but as motivated by contextual factors. Hatim and Mason believe that social aspect of a text is very important and even more significant than textual genre. They also mention that the social context characterizes

today's method of translation from those in the past like literal translation, technical translation, and so on. According to them context has three dimensions: communicative, pragmatic and semiotics. They define three constraints within the semiotic dimension of the context; Discoursal constraints, Generic constraints and Textual constraints.

A.　Generic Constraints

Genre (Generic) is conventional forms of texts associated with particular types of social occasion .However; Hatim and Mason hold that there is no matched relationship between lexis and grammar and that the social events are connected with particular genres. Therefore, genre has a significant role in the translator's decision. "The convention of genres are indices of particular cultures which exert a strong influence over the way the genres are to be encoded in a text". (Hatim and Mason 1990, p.70)

As an example of how genre influences the translator's decision look at the following texts:

"a fat man wearing a top hat, places a bottle of whiskey in front of Luke and pulls out the stopper. Looking rather apprehensive, he produces a glass and Luke pours himself a slug of whiskey."

"متصدی بار که مردی چاق است و کلاهی دراز بر سر دارد یک بطر نوشیدنی جلوی لوک میگذارد و درپوش آن را بر می دارد. او که نگران به نظر می رسد یک گیلاس هم جلوی لوک می گذارد. لوک مقداری نوشیدنی برای خود می ریزد."

/motosadi bar ke mardi chagh ast va kolahi deraaz bar sar daard yek botr nooshidani jeloy luke migozarad va dar poosh aan ra bar midarad. Oo ke negaran be nazar miresad yek gilas ham jeloy luke migozarad. Luke meghdari nooshidani baray khod mirizad./

From the perspective of top-down analysis these two texts have the same generic specification, as both are published as a screen script for readers. Yet, the existence of this genre in two different societies, cultures and religions, causes some differences. Here the word "whiskey" is translated to "drink" which is more general and can include alcoholic and non-alcoholic drinks. The cinematic genre in Iran has some rules and restrictions; the translator cannot use the brand name of alcoholic drinks. This is for religious and social reasons and it may not be acceptable or understandable. However, the cinematic genre in the source conventions does not face such restrictions. Although this is because of social and cultural differences, possibilities exist at the level of lexical selection like other part of the sentence (/Bar/and /Gilas/) to show that this is a kind of alcoholic drink and the translator reduces heterogeneity of the source text and target text.　　Therefore, this allows target readers to have access to the writer's intention.

B.　Discoursal Constraints

Hatim and Mason believe that the denotational aspect of a word is not enough and that a connotative dimension should be added as well. They also put three categories under the discoursal constraints, they include are coherence, theme and rheme and transitivity.

1. Coherence

Textual occurrences, which are related to grammatical system of language, are contextually motivated.　As Hatim and Mason argue "coherence is not something created by text ,but rather an assumption made by language users that ,in accordance with the cooperative principle ,texts are intended to be coherent". (1997, p.194) They defined coherence as conceptual connectivity which include, 1. Logical association, 2. Arrangement of events and 3. Continuity as human experience. The coherence of the text needs to be transferred in translation process. In the following part there are some examples to show the lexical cohesion between English and Persian:

Example 1.

Title: "Until the Iron Horse came, the Stagecoach was the only means of travel on the untamed American frontier. Braving all dangers, these Concord coaches -- the "streamliners" of their day -- spanned on schedule wild, desolate stretches of desert and mountainland in the Southwest, where in 1875 the savage struggle of the Indians to oust the white invader was drawing to a close. At the time no name struck more terror into the hearts of travellers than that of GERONIMO -- leader of those Apaches who preferred death rather than submit to the white man's will."

" پیش از امدن اسب آهنی ، دلیجان تنها وسیله برای سفر در سرزمین های وحشی امریکا بود. این کالسکه های کنکوردی – پیشتازان روزگار خود بودند- خطر را به جان میخریدند و بر طبق برنامه های زمان بندی شده ، کویر متروک و خشک و جاده های کوهستانی جنوب غرب را در می نوردیدند. سال 1875 سالی بود که مبارزات وحشیانه سرخ پوستانی که هدفشان بیرون راندن سفید پوستان غارتگر بود به پایان خود نزدیک میشد. در آن زمان هیچ نامی مانند نام "جرونیمو" دل مسافران را به لرزه نمی انداخت. چرونیمو رهبر آپاچی هایی بود که مرگ را به تسلیم شدن در برابر خواسته سفید پوستان ترجیح می دادند".

/pish az amadan asb ahani, delijan tanha vasileh baray safar dar sarzamin hay vahshi amrica bood. In kaleskeh haay konkordi_ pishtazan roozgar khod boodand- khatar ra be jaan mikharidand va bar tebgh barnameh hay zamaan bandi shode, kavir matrook va khoshk va jadeh hay koohestaani jonoob gharb ra dar minavardidand. Sal 1875 Sali bood ke mobarezaat vahshianeh sorkh poostaani ke hadfshaan biroon randan sefid poostan gharatgar bood be payan khod nazdik mishod. Dar an zaman hich naami manand nam "Geronimo" del mosaferan ra be larzeh nemi andakht. Geronimo rahbar apache haei bood ke marg ra be taslim shodan dar barabar khasteh hay sefid poostan tarjih midadand. /

TABLE 1.
THE COMPARISON OF LEXICAL COHESION OF ENGLISH AND PERSIAN TEXT

English Lexical Cohesion Example for Text 1	Persian Lexical Cohesion Example for Text 1
Luke Plummer, Luke Plummer, Luke , Luke, he, he, Luke Plummer	Look plammer, Look plammer, Look, Look, Look plammer/
Kid, Kid, Kid , Ringo , him, he,	/Ringo kid, Ringo, Ringo, kid,oon, oon/
First place, Second place, but, and , then, and	
Kill, gun-fight , get shot, kill, the pen, fight	/doel, mikoshe, koshte shod, nakoshe,zendoone, zendoon,zendoone/
Kill, kill	
Plummer, Plummer, Plummer, Plummer, Plummer	/plammer, plammer, plammer, plammer, plammer/
	/ama, avalan, dovoman, va, va, va, bad ham/

In order to cover the different aspects of the screen script, another part has been selected from the dialogue between Buck and Curly to investigate the coherence rendered by the translator:

Example 2.

"BUCK

Luke Plummer and the Kid.

(curly merely looks straight ahead)

They'd be a lot more peace on the frontier if Luke Plummer was too full o' lead to hold his liquor.

CURLY

I ain't sayin' I don't share your sentiments, Buck, but you're a born fool. First place Luke would kill the Kid in a gun-fight. Second place if Luke did get shot he's got two brothers jest as ornery as he is, and if Ike Plummer didn't kill the Kid then Hank Plummer would. (he spits off disgustedly)

Nope, safest place for Ringo is in the pen and I aim to get him there all in one piece. Time he gets out Luke Plummer will of picked a fight with the wrong man and it'll all blow over.

BUCK

(looking at Curly with astonishment)

Well, I'll be doggoned! I done you an injury, Curly. I thought you was after the reward.

CURLY

(reproachfully)

Reward! Why, the Kid's old man and me was friends.

(he stares off into the horizon)

Besides, I can use that five hundred in gold."

"باک : به لوک پلامر و رینگو کید. [نگاه کرلی صرفا متوجه روبه رو است.]اگه لوک پلامر آب کش بشه، شهر روی آرامش به خودش میبینه. کرلی ببین ، نمیخوام بگم نظرت را قبول ندارم ، باک،اما تو ذاتا احمقی! اولا، لوک تو دوئل رینگو را میکشه. دوما، تازه اومدیم و لوک کشته شد، اون دوتا داداش عوضی اش چی؟ اگه آیک پلامر کید رو نکشه،هنک پلامر این کارو میکنه. [با نفرت آب دهانش را بیرون میریزد.]نوچ!بهترین جا برای رینگو همون زندونه، و من میخوام اون رو صحیح و سالم تحویل زندون بدم. تو مدتی که اون تو زندونه،لوک پلامر هم بایه آدم ناجور سرشاخ میشه و یارو میفرستش اون دنیا!بعد هم همه چی تموم میشه."

/bak: be luke plummer va ringo kid. [negah kerli serfan motovajeh ro be ro ast.] age luke plummer ab kesh beshe, shahr rooy aramesh be khodesh mibineh./

/kerli bebein, nemikham begam nazart ra ghabool nadaram, buck, ama to zatan ahmaghi! Avalan, luke too doel ringo ra mikoshe. Dovoman, tazeh oomadim va luke koshteh shod, oon dota dadash avazi ash chi? Ageh ayk Plummer kid ro nakoshe, hank Plummer in karo mikone. [ba nefrat ab dahanash ra biroon mirizad] noch! Behtarin ja baray ringo hamoon zendoone, va man mikham oon ro sahih va salm tahvil zendoon bedam. Too modati ke oon too zendoone, luke plummer ham ba ye adam najoor sar shakh mishe va yaro mifrestatsh oon donya! Bad ham hame chi tamoom mishe./

TABLE2.
THE COMPARISON OF LEXICAL COHESION IN ENGLISH AND PERSIAN TEXT

English Lexical Cohesion for Text 2	Persian Lexical Cohesion for Text 2
Stagecoach, these, concord coaches , means , streamliners, their	/delijan,vasileh,kaleskeh hay konkordi, in –pishtazan roozgar/
No name struck more terror	/Nam, Nami/
into the hearts of travellers than that of GERONIMO (parallel lexical cohesion)	/hich name mannad nam "Geronimo"/
leader, Geronimo, Indians, those Apaches	/Geronimo , Geronimo, rahbar/
the white invader , the white	/sorkh poostani, apache haei/ Sefid poostan gharatgar , sefid poostan/
the untamed American frontier , desolate stretches of desert and mountain	/kavir matrook va khoshk va jadeh hay koohestani, sarzamin hay vahshi/
was, was	/Boodand, bood, bood/
	/Sali , sal/

This part has been selected from the beginning of the screen script and is related to the narration. Below there are the lexical cohesion found in this specific part:
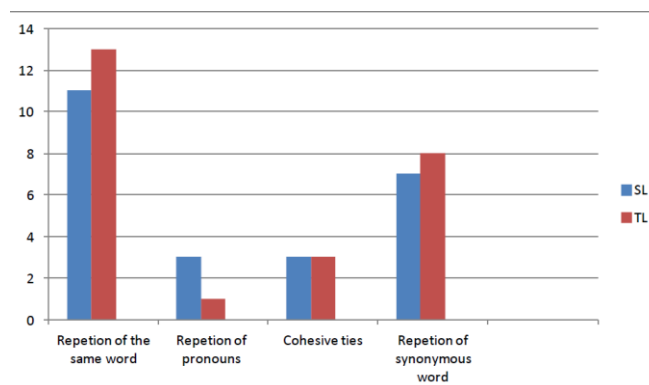
Figure 1. Lexical Cohesion in Persian and English Texts

As the chart shows, lexical cohesion can be considered in different ways; through the repetition of the same word, using pronouns, cohesive ties and repetition of synonymous words. The translator repeats the same or synonymous words more than the writer as this can be a compensation for the other issue, i.e., using pronouns. Cohesive ties have been translated properly to the target language.

As Hatim and Mason argue repetition of the words is motivated. Therefore, the translation needs to be relayed. The repetition compromise the overall effect of the text.

2. Theme-Rheme arrangement

One of the aspects of texture is theme-rheme arrangement. Theme and rheme assumption refer to discourse and is not just the property of sentence. "Thematic elements are 'context-dependent' and consequently of lesser communicative importance than 'context-independent' rhematic elements". (Hatim and Mason, 1990, p.212) Theme and rheme ordering is not just a basic word order and is not random which means that it can show aspects of context such as intentionality and text type focus. Theme and rheme ordering involves three aspects: predictability and recoverability, saliency and shared assumption. Translators have to take into account the thematic structure of the original text to preserve the implication and intention of the text producers.

"At the time no name struck more terror into the hearts of travelers than that of GERONIMO"

'' در آن زمان هیچ نامی مانند نام

"جرونیمو" دل مسافران را

به لرزه نمی انداخت."

/Dar an zaman hich naami manand naam "Geronimo" del mosaferaan ra be larze nemiandakht./

In English sentence the name of "Geronimo" situated at the end of the sentence which causes more suspense than the Persian translation. In English the reader wants to know the name of the person who "struck more terror into the heart of travelers" but the translation of this sentence come after the name of Geronimo.

"Braving all dangers, these Concord coaches – the "streamliners" of their day –"

"این کالسکه های کنکوردی – پیشتازان روزگار خود بودند- خطر را به جان میخریدند"

/in kaleskeh hay konkordi- pishtazan roozgar khod boodand- khatar ra be jan mikharidand. /

In this sentence "braving all dangers" is at the beginning of the sentence while in Persian translation it comes at the end of the sentence. Also the place of "Concord coaches" and "streamliners of their day" are changed in Persian translation which change the place of emphasis.

"They'd be a lot more peace on the frontier if Luke Plummer was too full o' lead to hold his liquor."

"اگه لوک پلامر آب کش بشه، شهر روی آرامش به خودش میبینه".

/age luke plummer ab kesh beshe, shahr rooy aramesh be khodesh mibine./

In this sentence the place of rheme and theme is changed. "They'd be a lot more peace on the frontier" comes at the end of the Persian translation.

3. Transitivity

Transitivity refers to the sentence arrangement. Whereas some languages tend to place inanimate actors in theme position, other languages tend to place action.

Example:

"They'd be a lot more peace on the

"شهر روی آرامش به خودش میبینه "

Frontier"

/shahr rooy aramesh be khodesh mibine/

In the English version there is no action but in the Persian translation the verb has object and the sentence metaphorically means "the city can see the peace on it".

"(Curly merely looks straight ahead)"

"نگاه کرلی صرفا متوجه روبه رو است".

/negah kerli motovajeh ro be rost/

Here in English sentence the verb "look" show the action of the sentence in which Curly is the agent. In Persian translation, the look of Curly ("نگاه کرلی") is the subject. The back translation of this sentence is the look of Curly is connected ahead.

"it'll all blow over"

" یارو میفرستش اون دنیا "

/yaro mifresatsh oon donya/

In English sentence "it" is subject while in Persian translation there is an agent. The back translation of Persian sentence is 'someone will send him to the other world'. Here there is more action in the sentence while the English sentence means 'it will be finished'.

C. Textual Constraints

Hatim and Mason (1991) believe that discourse and genre are too expanded to be able to come to a structured mode of expression. Therefore a more stable framework is needed which will be reached at by adding "text"." Within the model of discourse processing advocated here, a textual structure is one in which communicative intentions are made mutually relevant in the service of a given rhetorical purpose" (Hatim and Mason, 1976, p.90). They considered cohesion as the aspect of texture which by joining sentences together sustains textuality as a coherent text. The meaning behind the cohesion and coherence is when contextual values (including most prominently, text type focus) are reestablished.

For textual analysis Fairclough's framework (1995) is also added to Hatim and Mason's to complete the analysis and also because their explanation is very general and it is difficult to apply it as a framework. Fairclough defines different issues regarding discourse and text analysis, he defines the textual part as a factor connecting parts of text together and connecting texts to their contexts. Fairclough's textual analysis is as follow

Grammatical relations:

a. Patataxis: Equal or coordinate clauses: The birds were singing and the fish were jumping.

b. Hypotaxis: Subordinate a clause to the main clause: The birds were singing because the sun was shining.

c. Embedding: One clause functions as an element of another clause (its subject) or as an element of a opharse: The man who came to dinner...

Semantic relations:

A. Causal

A1. Reason (because...)

A.2. Consequence (so...)

A3.Purpose (in order to...)

B. Conditional (if)

C. Temporal (when)

D. Additive (And)

E. Elaboration (Exemplification or rewording)

F. Contrastive/Concessive (but)

Example 3.

Text 1

"He takes one last look at her, then digs his spurs into the mustang and the horse leaps forward. Camera pans left slightly as he canters off, leaving Dallas watching him ride away, her arm lifted in a little gesture of farewell.

Pan left with Ringo as he rides his horse hard, jumping the fence that rings the compound and galloping to the top of a rise a hundred feet away. As he tops the rise, galloping straight forward, he suddenly sees something that makes him saw on the bit. The horse comes to a dead stop as if it had four-wheel brakes. He dismounts again, looking around.

Dallas is watching anxiously from outside the corral. Her arm is still half-up in her incomplete gesture. From behind her comes Curly's voice."

Persian Translation:

"رینگو برای آخرین بار در چشمان دالاس نگاه می کند و بعد مهمیزش را به بدن اسب می کوبد و اسب به راه می افتد. دالاس برای او دست تکان می دهد.

رینگو سوار بر اسب از روی نرده ی کم ارتفاعی که محوطه ی توقفگاه را از صحرا جدا می کند می پرد و در مسیرش به سمت صحرا ،از یک سربالایی که حدودا سی متر از توقفگاه فاصله دارد بالا می رود. هنگامی که او به بالای سربالایی می رسد،ناگهان چشمش به چیزی می افتد و دهانه ی اسب را می کشد. اسب بلافاصله می ایستد ،مانند وسیله نقلیه ای که چهار ترمز توامان به او دستور توقف داده اند. رینگو از اسب پایین می آید و با چشمانی جست و جو گر دور و برش را نگاه می کند.

دالاس مضطرب از دور او را تماشا می کند. دستش هنوز در هوا معلق است. ناگهان صدای کرلی از پشت سر شنیده می شود."

/Ringo baray akharin bar dar cheshman dalas negah mikonad va bad mehmizash ra be badan asb mikobad va asb be rah mioftad. Dalas baray oo dast tekan midahad./

/ringo savar bar asb az rooy nardeh y kam ertefaee ke mohavateh y tavaghofgah ra az sahra joda mikonad miparad va dar masirash be samt sahra, az yek sar balaei ke hododan si metr az tavaghofgah faseleh darad bala miravad, hengami ke oo be balay sar balaei miresad, nagahan cheshmash be chizi mioftad va dahaneh asb ra mikeshad. Asb belafaseleh mi isad, mannad vasileh naghlieh ke chahar tormoz toaman be oo dastoor tavaghof dadeh and. Ringi az asb paeen miayad va ba cheshmani joso joo gar dor o barash ra negah mikonad./

/dalas moztarb az door oo ra tamasha mikonad. Dastash hanooz dar hava moalgh ast. Nagahan seday kerli az posht shenideh mishavad/

Gramatical Relation Example (1)

TABLE 3.
COMPARISON OF GRAMMATICAL RELATION IN ENGLISH AND PERSIAN TEXT

Gramatical Relations for English Text	Gramatical Relation for Persian Text
Patataxis : "Pan left with Ringo as he rides his horse hard, <u>jumping the fence that rings the compound and galloping to the top of a rise a hundred feet away</u>."	**Patataxis :** /ringo savar bar asb az rooy nardeh y kam ertefaaei ke mohavateh y tavaghofgah ra az sahra joda mikonad miparad <u>va da masirash be samt sahra, az yek sar balaei ke hodoodan si metr az tavaghofgah faseleh darad bala miravad.</u>/ /nagahan cheshmash be chizi mioftad <u>va dahaneh y asb ra mikeshad</u>/ /ringo az asb paein miayad <u>va ba cheshmani jost o joo gar dor o barash ra negah mikonad</u>/
Hypotaxis: "Pan left with Ringo <u>as he rides his horse hard</u>, jumping the fence that rings the compound and galloping to the top" "Camera pans left slightly <u>as he canters off</u> leaving Dallas watching him ride away, her arm lifted in a little gesture of farewell." "<u>As he tops the rise,</u> galloping straight forward, he suddenly sees something that makes him saw on the bit."	**Embedding :** / ringo savar bar asb az rooy nardeh y kam ertefaaei <u>ke mohavateh y tavaghofgah ra az sahra joda mikonad miparad</u>/ /az yek sar balaei <u>ke hodoodan si metr az tavaghofgah faseleh darad bala miravad.</u>/
Embedding: " he suddenly sees something <u>that makes him saw on the bit</u>" " jumping the fence <u>that rings the compound</u>"	

Example 4.
"MRS. PICKETT
There ain't no soldiers here but what you see.
LUCY
(anxiously)
But my husband, Captain Mallory. I was told he was here.
MRS. PICKETT
(off)
He was, dearie. Got orders night afore last to join the soldiers at Apache Wells.
Lucy, very upset, turns away, trying to be courageous, but the strain shows.
BUCK
(off)
Well, that means we got to turn back.
GATEWOOD
(off)
I can't go back.
(he catches hold of himself and blusters)
See here, driver, this stage has started for Lordsburg and it's your duty to get us there."
Persian Translation:
"خانم پیکت خارج از تصویر اگه شما سربازی می بینی، ما هم میبینیم!
لوسی با نگرانی اما شوهرم... سروان ملری، بهم گفتن که اون جاست.
خانم پیکت خارج از تصویر این جا بود، عزیزکم. پریشب دستور رسید که به سربازهای آپاچی ولز ملحق بشن.
لوسی که بسیار ناراحت شده است سرش را بر میگرداند وسعی دارد شهامت خود را حفظ کند اما نگرانی اش آشکار است.
باک : خارج از تصویر خب، با این حساب باید برگردیم.
گیت وود خارج از تصویر من نمی تونم برگردم. سعی میکند خودش را کنترل کند اما نمی تواند. ببین، راننده، مقصد این دلیجان لدرزبرگه و و ظیفه ی تو اینه که ما رو به اون جا برسونی."

/khanoom piket kharj az tasvir ageh shoma sarbazi mibini, ma ham mibinim/

/loosi ba negarani ama shoharam…sarvan merli, beham goftan ke oon injast./

/khanoom picket kharj az tasvir in ja bod, azizakam. Parishab dastoor resid ke be sarbaz hay apache velz molhagh beshan/

/loosi ke besiar narahat shod east sarash ra bar migardanad va say darad shahamat khod ra hefz konad ama negarani ash ashkar ast./

Buck: kharej az tasvir khob ba in hesab bayad bargardim.

Gatewood kharj az tasvir man nemitoonam bargardam. Say mikonad khodash ra control konad ama nemitavanad. Bebin, rananadeh, maghsad in delijan lodersborg e va vazifeh y to in eke ma ro be oonja beresooni./

Semantic Relations:

TABLE 4.
COMPARISON OF PERSIAN AND ENGLISH SEMANTIC RELATION

Semantic Relation in English Text	Semantic Relation in Persian Text
Purpose : "Got orders night afore last to join the soldiers at Apache Wells."	**Conditional** : /age shoma sarbazi mibini, ma ham mibinim!/
Additive : " he catches hold of himself and blusters" . ". this stage has started for Lordsburg and it's your duty to get us there."	**Contrastive** : /va say darad shahamat khod ra hefz konad ama negarani ash ashkar ast/ /loosi ba negarani ama shoharam/
Elaboration : ." Well, that means we got to turn back."	**Additive :** /maghsad in delijan lodrzborge va vazife y to in eke ma ro be oon ja beresooni/ /loosi ke besiar narahat shod east sarash ra bar migardanad va say darad shahamat khod ra hefz konad/
Contrastive : ." There ain't no soldiers here but what you see". ." But my husband, Captain Mallory" ." trying to be courageous, but the strain shows".	
Hypotaxis : "Lucy, very upset, turns away, trying to be courageous"	

The comparison shows that semantic relations are not equal in English and Persian sentences. As it is mentioned above, the subcategories of semantic relation exist in both Persian and English sentences but they do not occur at the same place.

Survey on knowledge of students and their ability in applying it

For the second part of this paper, two separate groups of M.A translation studies students from the University of Isfahan were chosen. There were twenty one members in each class. One group was the control group and the other one, the experimental group. At first, , a pre test was given to each group to see the degree of their knowledge about the ideology of translation, which included 25 questions regarding different aspect of ideology, discoursal, textual, generic factors for translation evaluation in general as well as questions about Hatim and Mason & Fairclough's framework. After the pretest, a paper was given to the experimental group which included the example of application of three constraints (the combination of Hatim and Mason and Fairclough's framework) in a text to clarify the application of such theory. After that, another test with 25 sentences, in which there were some parts of Stagecoach screenscrip with its Persian translation, was given to the students to evaluate the ideology of translation according to the discoursal, textual and generic factors or any other factors they have in their mind. Participants of the control group were not forewarned in any way before the second test, no explanation was given after the pretest and immediately they replied to the second test.

III. RESULTS

The result of this paper is based on the differences between the control and the experimental group. The result of the pre test shows that both classes have a similar level of knowledge on the subject matter. As this is shown in Table 1, the means of two groups are very close, i.e., the mean of control group is 13. 62 and that of experimental is 13.14. The results of T test shows that there are no significant differences between the means of two groups.

TABLE 5.
PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	control	13.62	21	1.962	.428
	experimental	13.14	21	2.57460	.56182

Furthermore, as Table 2 shows, the mean of posttest of the experimental group, after receiving the treatment, is more than the control group which signifies the effect of the treatment on the experimental group. This shows that the mean of the control group for post test was 12.14 and for the experimental group was 20.76. The result of paired sample T test reveals that there is a significant difference between the means of the two groups. The findings illustrate that although both classes had similar degree of knowledge about the subject, the experimental group was more successful in applying this knowledge in the evaluation of translation because they got familiar with the tangible instances of application of their knowledge in analyzing a screen text along with its translation.

TABLE 6.
PAIRED SAMPLES T TEST

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	postcontrol	12.14	21	2.104	.459
	postexprimental	20.76	21	2.68151	.58515

IV. CONCLUSION

This study can provide several implications to translation studies students. The first implication of this study is for translation student that just studying translation theories is not enough for translated text evaluation. They need to know how to apply these theories in a text as well. Secondly, translation teachers and syllabus designers can benefit from the results of this study. Just including theoretical courses does not seem to be effective for translation students. They should also get familiar with applications and actual analysis of translated texts in order to get improved in their courses. Moreover, materials developers can get great hints from the present study in providing effective textbooks for translation studies students.This study focused on the three constraints of ideology evaluation (Discoursal, Textual and Generic) in translation, proposed by Hatim and Mason and also a framework of textuality by Fairclough. John Ford's Stagecoach screenscript was chosen as the basis of the study. In the first part of the paper, Hatim and Mason and Fairclugh's frameworks were applied in some part of this screen script, both in Persian and English version to evaluate the target text based on these two frameworks. In the second part of the paper, a survey has been done on two groups of translation studies student. Group A replied to a pretest and a posttest and group B replied to the same pretest, received a treatment and replied to the same post-test. The result showed that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group in evaluating a text and its translation.

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A Contrastive Study of Chinese and English Address Forms

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Abstract—Address forms are easily observed in people's daily utterances, which play a significant role in the smooth development of a whole communication process. There are various address forms in Chinese and English addressing systems, which have similarities and differences. This paper is a contrastive study of address forms in the two languages. The significance of the study is first presented. And the contrastive study is carried out in the second part through four aspects, i.e., names, kinship terms, titles, pronouns, respectively. The causes of such differences are finally expounded, among which cultural orientation is the primary one.

Index Terms—contrastive analysis, address forms, Chinese and English addressing systems, cultural orientation

I. THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY OF ADDRESS FORMS

Address forms are easily observed in people's daily utterances. They play a significant role in the smooth development of a whole communication process. Dunkling (1990) lists some possible reasons for vocative usage of address forms. There are thirty items in all. They are in no particular order of importance, and relate to many different situations. The first four are cited here to show the necessity and importance of address forms in our daily life.

① To attract the attention of a particular person, especially when other people are present.

② To express the speaker's attitude to the hearer, especially if that attitude is highly emotional, of great fondness, or extreme contempt.

③ To demonstrate the hearer that he or she has been identified or recognized. This is often a welcoming use of the hearer's name. A head waiter might consider it important to greet regular customers in this way.

④ To flatter the hearer, perhaps by the use of a title to which the hearer has no right, or by a flattering word such as "lovely". (p.16)

Even with the brief list, we could see that an address form might need to be used in certain situations for a number of reasons. It is difficult to see how speakers could express and communicate without them. Syntactically, most address forms are nouns or noun phrases, and they are attached to utterances or sentences, but the positions of them are optional and they are usually independent of the grammatical structure of the sentences, e.g.

① Initial position: Tom, I met your brother today.

② Middle position: Come here, Jack, I have some words with you.

③ Final position: Good morning, Mr. Brown.

Concerning this, Quirk (1985) points out that "in its optionality and freedom of position, it is more like an adverbial (or, more precisely, like a disjunct) than any other element of clause structures." (p.89) Indeed, address forms occur nearly everywhere in a sentence. In this sense, it is optional. But is an address form optional? No. An address form is not only a grammatical element, but also a communicative and pragmatic element.

A potential visitor to Germany, if prudent, will learn when to use *du* and when to use *Sie*, and a foreign student coming to England would be wise to know the difference between addressing a teacher as "Jim" and calling him "Professor Smith". Not only does such preparation prevent embarrassing mistakes, but it enables one to understand the full implications of remarks made by others.

Address forms are common in every language, and frequently and easily observed in personal communication and have long been considered as a very salient indicator of status relationship. They are a social phenomenon and an extremely important sociolinguistic variable. The significance and importance of the study on personal address is clearly described by Philipsen and Huspek (1985) as follows:

"Personal address is a sociolinguistic subject par excellence. In every language and society, every time one person speaks to another, there created a host of options centering around whether and how persons will be addressed, named, and described. The choices speakers make in such situations, and their meanings to those who interpret them, are systematic, not random. Such systematicity in language behavior, whether of use or interpretation, is universal, although what elements comprise the personal address system and what rules govern its development, vary across contexts. And such variation in structure is, according to the extant empirical literature, correlated with social ends and social contexts of language use. From this view, personal address is a systematic, variable, and social phenomenon, and these features of it make it a sociolinguistic variable of fundamental importance." (p.94)

II. CONTRASTIVE ANALYSIS OF CHINESE AND ENGLISH ADDRESS FORMS

Address forms are a universal part of human communication. No one can avoid addressing in interaction. Though all nations use addressing terms and common rules, and regulations may be found behind different addressing systems, the norms of what is appropriate to say to whom and under which conditions an address form is rated as "correct" vary greatly from nation to nation, or to be more exact, from culture to culture, showing considerable variation from one language group to another but within one language group as well.

It is very likely that some address forms are just unique in a particular culture and may even differ greatly from those of other cultures. This phenomenon has important implications for language learning and for intercultural communication in general. If we don't understand the address form system of the opposite interlocutors from other cultures, misunderstanding will arise. Therefore, it is necessary to know both our address system and the address systems in other cultures. This is also true with the Chinese and English address forms.

It is not only acceptable but even normal for one person to receive many different addresses from different speakers: a teacher could be addressed as "Mrs. Dillon" by her pupils, as "Sarah" by her colleagues, as "Sal" by her family, and as "Mom" by her children. (Dickey, 2002, p.8) Consequently, we have the various kinds of address forms.

Though an address system is subject to diversification and complication, people still try to classify them. Tian Huigang (1998), a Chinese scholar, classifies it into five sub-categories: kinship terms, social addressing terms, names, pronouns, and polite addressing terms. Quirk (1985) uses the term "vocative", which is divided into seven sub-groups: kinship terms, occupational terms, titles, honorific terms, general nouns, epithets and pronouns. For the ease of demonstration, the author would like to cut it into six categories which are: names, kinship terms, titles, pronouns, endearment terms, and common nouns, and focus on the first four categories.

A. Names

(1) Full names

According to Lou Guangqing (1985), there are three modes of name forms in the address system, which are as follows: ① NF^1—S +(X)+G; ② NF^2—G+(X)+S; ③ NF^3—G+(X)+(Y). *NF=name form; S=surname; G=given name; X=the first variable; Y=the second variable; ( )=noncompulsory element. (p.37)

Chinese follow the mode of NF^1 in which surname is put in the first place, and the given name follows it. X is a zero form in the mode, so the personal name is composed of two elements: S and G, e.g. 张华 and 王小飞. American and European people's names are the mode of NF^2 in which given name precedes the surname. It is the reversed form of that of Chinese. X can be a zero form or a middle name. Thus, a possible English name will be G+S or G+X+S, e.g. James Brown, George Walker Bush. As for NF^3, the Burmese, the Indonesian, the Arabian, etc. use it, and they have no surnames.

Names in Chinese are very complex. The most common form for the Han people is composed of two parts—surname and given name. A Chinese person may be addressed in the following ways: ① full name, e.g. 李小强; ② given name, e.g. 小强; ③ surname(less common), e.g. 李; ④ full name + title, e.g. 李小强先生; ⑤ surname + title, e.g. 李先生; ⑥ given name + title, e.g. 小强同志; ⑦ modifiers (such as "小/老") + surname, e.g. 小李/老李，or surname + certain modifiers (such as "老"), e.g.李老.

A common English name is usually composed of two or three parts. The first name is also called given name. If the person is a Christian, his first name will be given at his baptism, so it is also called the given name or the Christian name. Last name is commonly referred to as surname or family name. It is often the father's family name, so it is also called family name or last name. The majority of English-speaking people also have one middle name. The first name and middle name does not necessarily have immediate family connection of any kind. Middle name is the second given name. It tends to be drawn from the first name stock but can be other family name. When written, middle name is often shortened to the initial letter. For example: Ann Joseph Strong, Ann J. Strong.

The most common way of addressing in English community is first name. It can be used reciprocally between people of different age, rank or sex. Children may address familiar adults, their parents or their grandparents by their first names, and strangers might first name each other shortly after the first round of introduction. Last name alone is more likely used to address a male addressee. Surname plus first name is generally intended to keep the distance between the two or to perform certain pragmatic functions like warning, threatening or remonstrating, which should not be neglected in translation. As to diminutive names, being quite different from the original, such as "Betty" for "Elizabeth" and "Billie" for "William", they are sometimes misleading for readers as well as translators. The rendering of diminutive names may be hard sometimes, since a literal rendering usually fails to reveal the intimacy between the speakers.

(2) Nicknames

A nickname refers to an extra name, normally unofficial and not used in formal situations or for legal purposes, which can serve to identify a person. A nickname is often given to a person by others according to one of his distinguishable features either physically or mentally. For instance, one may nickname a person 小眼镜, 胖墩，Fatty, etc.

We are concerned here only with vocative nicknames, used in direct address to the person concerned. Some nicknames are purely referential. Mrs. Thatcher is called "the Iron Lady", but it is not suitable for someone to say to her

"How are you, <u>Iron Lady</u>?" Those nicknames which are used vocatively are of different types. A group nickname is known to a number of people. People can get a lot of different group nicknames at various stages of their lives, at school, at work, etc.

(3) Transferred, substitute, and nonce names

The definition of a transferred name can be easily illustrated by a well-known example. If we overhear someone saying to a friend: "I saw you at the cinema last night, <u>Romeo</u>.", we don't assume that "Romeo" is the first name or nickname of the man being addressed. We know that he is momentarily being compared to Shakespeare's tragic young lover, whose name is used to mean "a man who is very much in love". We can be fairly sure that the man seen at the cinema was with a girl friend to whom he was paying great attention.

A substitute name is slightly different. A man may call a stranger "Jack", "John" or "Jimmy", which are used to replace any other standard first name. It is simply a typical first name, used as a temporary substitute for whatever first name the man happens to be with. In a way, they are similar to the Chinese "张三" or "李四".

A nonce name is a name brought into temporary existence for use to a particular person, a word being converted to name status for the purpose. The conversation is achieved with the help of a name prefix or title, such as "Mr.", "Mrs.", or "Miss". In earlier times, they are more likely to use a professional description or a more abstract term to create names like: Mr. Policeman, Mr. Lawyer. Some vocative expressions of this type become fossilized as titles, e.g. Mr. President, Mr. Chairman. But such cases in English seldom happen in contrast to Chinese, in which official titles are often used as address forms. e.g. 经理, 主任. But they have no "Mr." preceding the titles.

B.   Kinship Terms

Kinship terms are terms for blood relationship and for affine. They are rather complicated. One can apply a kinship term in direct address and two or more referential forms when talking about the relatives. Kinship terms are of great value to the study of address forms because kinship terms are a universal feature of different cultures and very important in the social organization.

Kinship terms in Chinese are marked by its detailed stratification as well as the clear distinction between the paternal side and the maternal side. For example, the vocative form "aunt" in English may find a number of counterparts in Chinese like "大娘, 婶婶, 舅妈, 阿姨, 姑姑". This phenomenon will certainly bring difficulty to their translation. Moreover, great respect is shown to seniority. When interaction occurs between family members or relatives, the older generation invariably receives kinship addressing whereas the younger one may be addressed either by kinship terms, names, or by other names.

Kinship terms in English do not show particular emphasis for the distinction between the paternal side and the maternal side. We may find evidence in terms like "cousin, aunt, uncle, brother, sister". For "cousin", eight Chinese equivalents can be found, that is 堂兄, 堂弟, 堂姐, 堂妹, 表兄, 表弟, 表姐, 表妹. When it comes to the translation of such terms, the translator certainly has a tough job to deal with. Comparing with the Chinese kinship terms, kinship terms in English do not take seniority into much consideration.

Kinship terms are greatly used in addressing in Chinese address system. As address forms, they can be divided into two categories. One is the kinship terms that are used to address real kins as is mentioned before. The other is the kinship terms which are used to address nonkins.

Those nonkins are treated as the extension of kins. Not all kinship terms are used to address nonkins. Kinship terms like 爷爷, 奶奶, 叔叔, 阿姨, 大哥, 大姐 are often used. That the kinship terms are used to address nonkins is the fictive use of kinship terms, or is called "the extension of kinship terms". Chinese people treasure kinship, and the use of kinship terms shows warmth, friendliness and kindness. On the contrary, Westerners are not used to this usage. But some of the kinship terms continue to be well used in other ways. "Sister", for example, may refer to a member of a religious order of women, such as a nun. "Brother" may be used to a trade union colleague. The terms remain basically family terms, but their meanings have been considerably extended.

C.   Titles

(1) Social titles

In old China, there are several titles which are not used today such as 阁下, 陛下. The main forms of social titles in China today are 同志, 师傅, 先生, 小姐, 女士, 老师. These terms may be used alone, or together with surname or full name, and sometimes with modifiers like 大/小/老 or with other titles.

The normal social titles are "Mr., Mrs., or Miss" followed by the last name of the person being addressed. The British social system distinguishes a number of other categories of persons who are members of the nobility or children of some members of the nobility, or have received one of the highest British honors. They are conventionally addressed by such terms as "Sir"+ first/ last/ full name, "Lady"+ first/ last/ full name, "Lord"+ first/ last/ full name, "my lord", "my lady", etc. For instance, Sir Paul, Sir Paul McCartney, Lady Thatcher, Lady Jane Grey, Lord Derby. Some of these social titles are hereditary, and many are bestowed during a person's lifetime.

(2) Professional titles

Titles indicating one's profession also appear as address forms in Chinese very often. Though not necessarily so, professional titles, especially those indicating high social status, are well acknowledged and accepted when the

addresser has some ideas about the profession of the addressee. Examples of Chinese names of professions as titles are 医生, 警察, 司机, 经理, 教授, 工程师, etc. In China, nearly all the professional titles can be address forms.

However, professional titles used as address forms in English are comparatively scarce. Only certain fields of professions can be used in this way. Ministers of religion are normally addressed by titles, such as "Vicar", "Rector". Members of medical profession, from the trainee nurse to the eminent surgeon, have titles which place them precisely in the hierarchy. The academic world is another area where professional titles, such as Professor, Senior, Tutor and Dean, are frequently used.

(3) Official titles

Official titles are commonly used as address forms in China. They can be used alone or prefixed by the surname or sometimes full name implying added deference. Almost all administrative titles may be used as address forms, such as 省长, 市长, 局长, 主任. As to those served in the army, people would address them by the name of the position they assume, like 司令, 军长, 师长, 指导员. Since people in the West are generally regarded as equal no matter what jobs they take, official titles used as address forms in English are rather limited.

D. Pronouns

Almost every language has the first, second and third person pronouns. However, among the three kinds of pronouns, it is the second person pronoun that is used as address (Fasold, 2000). Many languages still have two active singular second person pronouns in addressing, and there is a distinction between a familiar and a polite second person pronoun, such as "您/你" in Chinese, "tu/vous" in French and "du/Sie" in German.

In Chinese, "您/你"are seldom used to draw the attention of the person addressed. Occasionally one hears "喂，你!" But it is impolite to use "你" in getting attention. Yet we can use other ways to express politeness and respect to more than one person, such as "二位", "三位", "各位", "诸位". English once had distinction between "thou/you". They say "you" to many persons and "you" to one person. At that time "you" showed reverence and polite distance and, also, the invariable plural. Nowadays, the pronoun "thou" is reserved to prayer and native poetry, but in the past it was the form of familiar address to a single person. We know that using "you" in English to get others' attention is impolite. It is true with Chinese. Examples are "Hey, you!" and "Excuse me, you!" Corresponding to the "二位", "各位" in Chinese, "both of you", "everybody", "every one", "all of you", etc. are used in English.

III. CAUSES OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN CHINESE AND ENGLISH ADDRESS FORMS

Natural environment gives birth to different patterns of culture as well as different types of society, and the psychology of people in the society is nothing but the outputs of the corresponding culture. Many factors may lead to the differences of address forms. These factors mainly include cultural factors, social factors, psychological factors and geographical factors. They are closely related with each other directly or indirectly. Of all these factors, culture is the most important. Cultural orientation decides every aspect of it.

The Chinese cultural orientation is the ideas of Confucius while in the English-speaking countries it is the Western religion and philosophy. Confucianism is a philosophy of human nature that considers proper human relationship as the basis of society. In studying human nature and motivation, Confucianism sets forth four principles from which right conducts arise: *Ren* (humanism), *Yi* (faithfulness), *Li* (propriety) and *Zhi* (wisdom or a liberal education). Therefore, in China, harmonious relationship between people is foremost important. The relationship is based on love and benevolence, i.e. affectivity based. In the society, power and solidarity out of higher social order or elder age is greatly respected. Of all the relationships, kinship is the most important and highly valued or "family dominance", emphasizing the effect of families in a society. As a result, for example, the family name of a Chinese goes before the given name.

The Western culture puts the greatest emphasis on individualism, which is much more valued than in China. They also have the feeling that they must get involved. But the primary mode of the American and the English involvement is that one can voluntarily join or voluntarily withdraw from. Due to this cultural orientation, the dominant paradigm of communication is an individualistic one. Thus the interpersonal relationship is very simple. The relationship between family members is loose, so the kinships are much fewer than those in China.

In addition to the above, Chinese people think highly of hierarchy, which stresses the distinction of different class levels, such as the difference between the superiors and inferiors, the older and the younger. In Chinese kinship relationships, ascending generations are superior to descending generations. The primary relationships are not the equal relationships that are between brothers and sisters, but hierarchical, like those between parents and children. It is the place of older generation to lead and of the younger generation to follow. If hierarchy is not based on kinship relationship, then it may be based on age, social status, experience, education, gender or one of the many other dimensions of social organization within a culture. The sense of hierarchy can be well perceived through Chinese address forms. Except for the age order, Chinese kinship terms also have the strict distinction between paternal side and maternal side of the relatives. When one is addressing another, generation difference must be emphasized, as well as the younger or older difference between brothers and sisters. Moreover, if one has an official position, he usually receives the official title from the inferiors, as is a usual phenomenon in China.

Whereas the English-speaking people, especially Americans, hold high of the equality. Deeply influenced by the Bible,

they believe that all men are created equal. All people should be treated equally before the law and given equal rights and opportunities. Therefore, their belief in equality has great effects on their address system and their actual use of address forms. First names are largely used in amount. People address others, even their parents, by first names, irrespective of the difference of age and social status. Meanwhile, they have no difference between paternal side and maternal side.

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On Sex Discrimination in Persian Proverbs

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Abstract—Proverbs are important part of a language and carrier of a culture. They reflect people's perspective and society systems. The discrimination and derogation against women in societies can be reflected in proverbs because they impact the social concepts greatly. By studying proverbs, the deep-rooted gender biased ideology in a society is observable. Persian is not a gender language, but studying 12,000 Persian proverbs through this research shows there are elements of oppression in some proverbs of this language which relate to women and violate the rights and dignity of them. 179 proverbs out of 12,000 ones include discrimination against both sexes. 84% of them include elements of semantic derogation against females and 16% include sex discrimination against males. Semantic derogation in Persian language shows women dominantly as: "evil and capricious", "The root of disasters" and "inferior and worthless" beings and men dominantly as "avaricious" absolutist and "cruel."

Index Terms—sex discrimination, semantic derogation, sexism, gender language, proverbs

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of language and gender has attractively considered in the past decades in the world, but research on language and gender in the Persian cultural world remained silent.

Social views and attitudes of people can be seen in language, and social phenomena as reflected in language. So language reflect different attitudes toward women (Wang, 2012, p. 150)

Language use is the evidence of the values and beliefs of that society and all kinds of unequal phenomena in the society including sex discrimination are bound to be shown in language. Studying Persian proverbs shows, females are defamed, laid and belittled in the position of being subordinate to males in Persian culture and society.

Proverbs are representative to be used to make a research on sex discrimination. They are short well-known phrases or sentences, which are usually the reflection of life. They are also a part of language and a kind of idiom which spread among the folks with popular image and rich significance (Ibid).

Researches on sex discrimination in Persian are rare, but in some other languages there are a lot of researches of this type. Here some of these studies are presented.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

OHA (1998) Studies Igbo[1] language, and shows that the representations of womanhood in Igbo proverbs are mainly negative: women are typically portrayed as being senseless, morally debased, devilish, childish, and weak. It's because of male-oriented rhetoric in Igbo proverbs that signify prejudice and hostility toward women in social discourse. The derogation of women in Igbo proverbs affects both the use of proverbs in the culture and male-female relationship in Igbo land.

Kehinde Yusuf (2002) compares semantic derogation in English and Yoruba languages and finds that the English language ignores women by allowing masculine terms to be used specifically to refer to males and generically to refer to human beings in general. Yoruba is like English sexist in some respects, and sexism in English has been imposed on some otherwise non-sexist aspects of Yoruba language, and that contact between the languages may have prevented the transfer of some sexist features of Standard English into Nigerian Pidgin English.

Fontecha and Catalan (2003) present a contrastive cognitive analysis of metaphorical usages of the word pair's fox / vixen and bull / cow, with their Spanish counterparts to find out whether these examples of animal metaphor are equally conceptualized in English and Spanish.

They reveal that there exists semantic derogation (imbalance) for women in both languages. In other words, in the collected metaphors, women are more negatively depicted than in the case of metaphors referring to men. Semantic derogation in the two pairs of animal words analyzed occurs more in terms referring to females than in those referring to males.

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[1] -Igbo language: native language of the Igbo people, an ethnic group primarily located in southeastern Nigeria.

Shen Dan (2008) studies Chinese language which is an ideographical and non-gender language. And mentions that this language express gender-related messages linguistically. Through analysis one can see that many Chinese metaphors bear negative sexual and moral overtones to describe women. It is noted that women are Called (bird) or (chick) when they are young and attractive, but when they are old, they are referred as (pig) or (dog). In Contrast, male Counterparts don't have such referring terms. It is obvious that linguistic discrimination still prevails in the current Chinese society.

Rodriguez (2009) shows in a comparative research that the speakers of English and Spanish often understand gender differences in terms of animal imagery. In both languages, metaphors presenting women in the guise of chickens, bitches or vixens. This offers a window on the role given to women in these societies which consider women as inferior and subordinated to men. Rodriguez states that man and woman are often conceptualized as animals of some sort in both languages.

Men are frequently referred to as studs, bucks, wolves, *toros* (bulls), *zorros* (foxes) and *linces* (lynxes) whereas women are referred to with such metaphors as chick, bird, kitten, *pollita* (chicken) or *gatita* (kitten).

Balogun (2010) posits that there are elements of semantic derogation in some Yoruba proverbs which refer to women and violate their rights and that these proverbs are indicator of discrimination against women in Yoruba culture. This paper declares that many Yoruba proverbs clearly point to the oppression of women in Yoruba society, these proverbs are very offensive and oppressive and female referents feel humiliated by them.

Lixia and Eng (2012) explore snake metaphors across the two languages, English and Chinese, within the framework of conceptual metaphor theory to identify the existence of metaphors cross-linguistically.

They find out that when the gender of humans is taken into consideration, the specific conceptual metaphors generalized for the man and the woman from these two languages are different, and the snake metaphorical expressions have a much more derogative meaning for the man in Chinese but a more derogative meaning for the woman in English.

Wang (2012) reflects a study on Chinese and English proverbs to prove that these proverbs show deep-rooted gender biased ideology in society men are superior to women. Women are subordinate to men, men are stronger than women. Both of these languages include obvious discrimination and derogation to females, that is, subordinate and negative.

III. METHODOLOGY

This study surveys the incidence of sexism in the structure and use of Persian, and focuses on the semantics of female's subjugation and derogation in Persian proverbs. OHA (1998) defines proverbs as forms of figurative communication with didactic functions in studied conversations, which were found to possess evidences of male attempt at maintaining control over discourse in society.

The fact these stereotypes have been encoded in a form of communication usually respected and highly valued in Persian culture suggests the degree rhetoric in the society has been masculinized.

As it is mentioned, Persian is not a gender language, means a language that has grammatical gender to distinguish words between masculine, feminine, and /or neutral class. Lexical specification of a noun is specified as female-specific or male-specific (Hellinger & Bussmann, 2002, p. 5). But studying Persian proverbs shows that there are elements of sex discrimination in this language. Sex discrimination in most cases refers to the discrimination against females. It is prejudice against women on the basis of sex and because of the interconnections of language and reality; language is definitely sexually prejudiced against women (Wang, 2012, p.151).

This research analyses the existence of sex discrimination in Persian language through its proverbs and based on the definition of sexism, sexism in language in general comes in 3 major forms: language ignores women, it defines them as less significant than men, and it out rightly deprecates the female (Kehind Yusuf, 2002, p.8).

And on the definition of social gender, which has to do with stereotypical assumptions about what are appropriate social roles for women and men. It is a Category that refers to the socially imposed dichotomy of masculine and feminine roles and character traits (Kramarae & Treicher, 1985, p.173). In addition, sociolinguistics is the science which studies the relationship between language and society, between the use of language and social structures in which the users of language live (Wang, 2012, p.150).

In pursuing the objective of this study, data Comprising 151 Persian proverbs relating to womanhood and 28 proverbs relating to manhood were collected from the dictionary "14,000 Persian proverbs" (by Shakoor-zadeh). All the collected proverbs were analyzed semantically and each proverb was identified according to the sex of its user. In some cases, proverbs relating to womanhood or manhood were not used at all. Thus the collection of data was slightly prolonged, but it did not affect the objective of this study. Semantic analysis of the Persian proverbs shows that all of them should be categorized as face-threatening potential cases, not as non-face threatening or neutral ones for women, and face-threatening, neutral and praising for men (in this research the focus is on the face-threatening proverbs against men and women).

Through the study, the images of Iranian men and (strongly) women constructed along with showing sex differences between them to support the existence of sex discrimination against women by presenting female-related proverbs.

IV. ANALYSIS

As it is mentioned, there is an unbalance between the Persian proverbs referred to women and the ones referred to men. Such an unbalanced existence can be viewed as a fact that when people speak, they do not just utter linguistically, but speak culturally and ideologically too. West et al. (1997) believe that frozen expressions have been used for a long time and they surely have embodied fundamental collective beliefs and stereotypes.

Persian proverbs reflect gender-biased ideology in Iranian society.

Men are considered superior to women, women are subordinate to men, men are stronger and more talented than women. Men work out while women are in charge of housework. So Persian includes obvious discrimination and derogation to females, derogation in this research refers to works that convey negative, demeaning or sexual connotations.

This part illustrates sex discrimination against females in Persian proverbs in 25 aspects through 151 proverbs related to women.

As noted before for studying sex discrimination in Persian, 12,000 Persian proverbs were studied and analyzed, through which 151 proverbs include sex discrimination against females and obtain 25 negative and insulting characteristics attributed to women, the most frequent of them are "worthless and inferior", "evil and capricious" and "being the root of disasters."

Proverbs can be considered as a part of a cultural heritage of a language so studying them can reveal the views to man and woman in the ancient periods of the Persian societies.

The most frequent characteristic related to women through the Persian proverbs is *"worthless and inferior"*. In other words, Persian language defines women as less significant than men and deprecates them. For example:

(I) "be xâne nešastan bovad kâr-e zan" (L.T.[2] at home staying is the work of women)

(II) "bil-e čubi va pir-e zan barây-e ham zadan-e Halim[3] xub-and" (L.T. shovel woody and old women for beating Halim good are)

Besides ignoring, obscuring and insulting women, as have been shown above, the Persian language defines women as less significant than men. Women are considered as consumers with no talent, strength and ability to do a significant carrier and are just created to do house-working.

"Evil and capricious" are other characteristics attributed to women through Persian proverbs, such as:

(I) "vaqti šeytân dar makr-e xod mimânad be sorâq-e zan miravad."

(L.T. when Satan in trick his own gets stuck to near woman goes). This example shows women are not only not respected, but is humiliated and affronted by being considered as more wicked and filthy than the Satan, in a way that when Satan gets stuck in tricking and misleading human beings, goes to woman to get help and guidance!

Spender (1985, Pp.23-24) states that the semantic derogation of women fulfills a dual function: it helps to construct female inferiority and it helps to confirm it. In a society where women are devalued the words which refer to them assume negative connotations. But because the options for defining women are confined to negative terms, because their meanings are primarily those of minus male, women continue to be devalued.

A woman is also referred to as "*the root of disasters*", as in:

(i) "zan nadâri, qam nadâdri"

(L.T. wife not have, grief not have)

(ii) "marg-e zan hič kam az lezzat-e dâmâdi nist!"

(L.T. Death of wife less than the enjoy of being a bridegroom is not!)

Both of these instances are used when a man wishes to indicate that the presence of a woman is the root of disasters and her absence the source of happiness and satisfaction.

It is often claimed that language is discriminatory against women, studying Persian proverbs proves this claim!

One of the most deprecating features of the Persian language is in the comparison of woman with animals like dog in *cruelty* and *rudeness*. These subordinate and negative characteristics are attributed to females through proverbs such as:

(i) "Zan-e salite sag-e bi qalâde ast"

(L.T. woman shrew dog without collar is)

Women are compared with **mule** and **dog** in annoying and having bad temper, with **scorpion** in rascality and sedition, such as: "Mâdar šohar aqrab-e zir-e farš ast" (L.T. The mother-in-law scorpion under the carpet is)

With **hen** in stupidity and folly, such as: "aql-e čehel zan be andâze yek morq-e siâh ast!" (L.T. the wisdom of forty women equal with a hen black is!)

With **donkey's tail** in unkindness: Such as: "bovad mehr-e zanân hamčon dom-e xar" (L.T. is kindness of women like the tail of donkey)

With **dog** in a way to consider women less than a dog in loyalty: In other words discrimination and derogation to females is shown in persian proverbs by presenting women as *unaffectionate, unkind* and *unfaithful* beings.

Such as: "sag vafâdârad, nadârad zan vafâ" (L.T. dog loyalty has, doesn't have woman loyalty)

With **cow** in fatness, such as: "mesl-e gâv-e čâq" (L.T. like a cow fat) however, this proverb can be used for both sexes, but convey more negative connotation when is used to refer to women. Most of the time this term is used by a man to express his disgust and sense of humiliation against a fat woman.

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[2] -Halim: and Iranian food looks like soup.
[3] -Literal translation

Wang (2012, p.150) believes that proverbs are small pieces of human wisdom that have been handed down from generation to generation. So in order not to transfer this unequal and biased wisdom to the future generations, the society has to undergo a revolution of reforming the language. Persian is not except and should be reformed to improve its inequality and bias against women.

In addition to the noted characteristics, women are known as ugly, untrustworthy and unreliable, inefficient and clumsy, selfish, talkative and gossipy, stingy, money lover, untidy, not virtuous, not grateful, liar, abusive and rude beings and also as some one who pretends to be better than in real is, and as someone having potential of doing devilish and repulsive actions.

Wang (2012, p.152) also states that sex discrimination proverbs provide a glimpse of the sex discrimination in reality, and they can be remembered easily and spread universally both in folk and society. In short, the sex discrimination proverbs influence the social concept and social role deeply and reinforce the gender bias in reality.

Studying Persian proverbs proves that superior and positive rigid verbal stereotypes attribute to men, whereas the inferior and negative ones attribute to women. But, although, to be linked with male is to be linked to a range of meanings which are positive and good, there are some Persian proverbs which show sex discrimination against men. The number of these proverbs is much fewer than the ones which show semantic derogation against women, and also fewer than the proverbs which are used to praise, applause, appreciate, esteem and thank the men.

As Dan (2008) states, language is so socially constitutive, it there fore gives rise to important issues its power and function setting up influential ideological effects. So language use can help produce unequal power relations between gender categories.

So power asymmetry can be realized through the unequal representation and positioning of men and women in different status. And language may be sexist passing off conventional beliefs and prejudice.

People need to address each other as a daily practice and it is difficult to avoid categorizing each other by gender when doing so. This topic is very important and hot in the sociolinguistic area.

This part focuses on the semantics of male subjugation and derogation in Persian proverbs. Although as it was mentioned, Persian proverbs as forms of figurative Communication with didactic functions are found to possess evidences of male attempt at maintaining control over discourse in society. In other words, Persian has a kind of male-dominated culture and it affected on the Persian language and cause the proverbs signify prejudice and hostility toward women in social discourse.

Studying Persian proverbs shows there are 28 fixed expressions including sex discrimination against Male, through which 15 negative characteristics are attributed to men, the most dominant of them are avaricious, absolutist and cruel.

Although it is very difficult to range the degree of negative features, analyzing the concerned proverbs reveal that the most frequent negative characteristics attributed to men tend in fact to applaud them covertly. In other words, when Persian proverbs present a man as cruel, avaricious absolutist, self-conceit, lazy and self-indulgent, avenger, and one who breaks his promise, tend to describe him as strong, powerful, audacious, determined, un wavering and awe-inspiring being who is free and out of any one's control and known culturally and socially as the protector and supporter of a family.

Here some Persian proverbs including semantic derogation against men are represented.

"be x âter-e m âl-e donyâ barâdar češm-e bar âdar r â dar mi?âvarad" (L.T. for the wealth of the world brother eye of brother takes out).

This example refers to the *avaricious* of men, though we can consider the word "brother" in it the same as the pronoun "man" in general addressing all beings, including both sexes.

Because the tendency and desire for over ambition and amassing wealth exist naturally in all human beings, and being avaricious is a common feature between man and woman, and also there are some proverbs with the same content referring to females.

Another term which reflects the male-Centeredness of the Persian language is being "*Cruel*". "n ân-e šuy dandân d ârad" (L.T. Bread of the husband tooth has).

This illustrates that man is the supporter of his family and provide for their expenses, and his family are all indebted to him.

Among Persian proverbs, one of the most frequent in use example is "tonbân-e mard ke do tâ šod, fekr-e zan-e no mi?oftad" (L.T. trousers of the man that double become, thought a woman new fall into).

Again the reason of existence of such proverbs should be sleeked in the culture and religion of Persian society, which grants an absolute authority to men to do as their wish and impose easily their decisions upon women.

The usage of such metaphorical expression, which means: when a man becomes rich, he will think of remarrying (not have the capacity of being wealthy), shows women's aversion, disgust and critique against social unbalance and unfairness.

Some proverbs reinforce the belief that males are the central important members of the dominant group and provoke them to be furious and coarse in order not to be called "*a person with no prejudice*." For example: "qeyrat-e mard-i nad âri zan max âh" (L.T. Prejudice of man kind don't have, wife don't want). It seems necessary to mention that "having prejudice" for men has positive connotation in Persian culture and not having it toward women is a fault and will cause critique against males.

Persian language and culture also provoke men to be dictator, ignore their wives' opinions and ideas and not consult with them in any important issues, in order not to be called *"inefficient"* and one who is under his wife control.

For example: "vây bar mard-i ke az zan kam-tar ast" (L.T. shame on the man who than the woman less is)

Arouse and advice those to be courageous, stable and strong in some proverbs and to have a firm will power to keep their promise in some others. Through these proverbs women are directly or indirectly insulted and humiliated.

"zahr-e mardân nadâri, čon zanân dar xâne baš" (L.T. courageous of men don't have, like the women in house be).

"Mard-i ke ahd mišekanad kam-tar az zan ast" (L.T. a man who promise break, less than a woman is)

As it is seen, in order to advice men through Persian proverbs, females will be degraded.

Other characteristic attributed to Men through Persian proverbs are as followed: *self-conceit* and *proud*, *lazy*, *avenger* and *short-conceit*.

The preceding discussion seems to confirm that the Persian proverbs emphasize male positive images or stress male-dominance over females. But they tend to depict a negative image of the women.

In most of the proverbs women are subject to lower and humble social positions who are overpowered by men. The discriminating proverbs show the dominant social norms and rules which are concerning the behaviors and roles of men and women in a male-dominated society. So the remaining phenomenon of male priority and female subordinate in Persian culture is not surprising at all.

V. CONCLUSION

Gender discrimination in language come from different dimensions, but discrimination and derogation are usually covert and difficult to be noticed without conscious awareness.

Proverbs can be considered as the essence of language and a mirror of reality, so they can reflect people's views, values, attitudes, behaviors or systems of the society.

Language and reality are interact and related closely. Reality effects and forms Language and language reflects and impacts reality.

Persian is not a gender language but there exist gender inequality and sex discrimination in this language, which is harmful. Because gender-related representations can perpetuate stereotyped roles and reinforce biased attitudes towards women.

There is a dualistic view of men in Persian proverbs: the positive and negative (which the positive view is the focused one). The positive dimension shows the promotion of face for man as could be seen in most of the proverbs related to males, in order to show men as strong, powerful, talented, hard-working, mighty, dominant and sometimes as cruel, absolutist and avaricious beings in Persian culture and society.

It is important to be noted that Persian like the English language ignores women by allowing masculine terms to be used specifically to refer to males and to refer to human beings in general. For example: "Mard bâyad ke eyb-e xod binad" (L.T. Man should fault his own sees), in this example "Man" refers to people in general, ignoring of its sex.

But, there is a negative face for women in Persian proverbs. An offensive, insulting, humiliating and degrading view to show women as inferior, weak, evil, capricious and worthless beings who are the root of disasters!

Sexism in Persian is clear and semantic derogation and discrimination against women is obvious. There are totally 179 Persian proverbs which include discrimination against both sexes, out of which 84% related to females and only 16% related to males.

This discrimination against women can be dangerous, because the language remembers its users to humiliate females and prevent them of having some social roles and jobs. This matter can be more crucial with the growing activities of feminists all around the world in modern societies.

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Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

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Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 10 to 15 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
  o Submission of extended version
  o Notification of acceptance
  o Final submission due
  o Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublisher.com/tpls/.

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