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The Transformation of Teacher and Student Roles in the *European Higher Education Area*

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Abstract—This article illustrates how the creation of the *European Higher Education Area* is subverting the traditional roles of students and teachers in tertiary language education. It portrays the shift which has been made from the previous teacher-directed, lecture-based system which has traditionally prevailed in European Higher Education to the present-day student-centered, meaning-based model. The new learning modalities and teacher and student roles to which the *European Higher Education Area* has given rise are all practically examined, using five pedagogical innovation projects as a backdrop. Evidence is then furnished by presenting the results of a qualitative study on the attitudes which student-centered learning is generating in the participating student body. A survey administered in June 2006, 2007, and 2008 to the regular participants in the pedagogical innovation projects yields very positive outcomes for a tertiary education system which is centered on the student and testifies to the progressive consolidation of the new credit system at the University of Jaén in Spain.

Index Terms—European Higher Education Area, European Credit Transfer System, student-centered learning, teacher and student roles, English language teaching, student attitudes

I. INTRODUCTION

A period of immense upheaval in European Higher Education (HE) has been initiated by the so-called Bologna Process. The last decade has seen the introduction of significant changes in the landscape of tertiary education in Europe through the creation of the *European Higher Education Area* (EHEA), which has been channeled via a set of official documents, declarations, and communiqués, from the Lisbon (1998) and Bologna (1999) Declarations to the most recent London Communiqué (2007).

It is in the language teaching arena that this reorientation and reform perhaps acquire a sharper relief, as the application of the new European Credit Transfer System (ECTS) is involving profound changes which are affecting all levels of the curriculum. Objectives are now formulated in terms of key competencies to be acquired; a methodological “plurality” (CIDUA, 2005: 26) which incorporates the latest trends in language teaching is propounded; learning modalities now involve a vast gamut of classroom organizations; ICT acquires a heightened role within materials and resources; and evaluation is more personalized, formative, and transparent. This marked innovation is, however, particularly conspicuous in the new teacher and student roles advocated by the new credit system.

Sure enough, in making the shift to the practical application of the European convergence process, the official documents (e.g. Glasgow Declaration, 2005; Lisbon Declaration, 2007) explicitly state that the promotion of student-centered learning should be a key goal and that a stronger student focus should guide curricular reorientations. This is a particularly lofty goal, considering that European HE has traditionally operated with a transmission of knowledge model based on ex cathedra lecturing (Tudor, 2007). The onus is now on successful learning rather than on the teaching provided (McLaren et al., 2005: 27). There is a concern for equipping students not only with cognitive knowledge, but with a set of skills, attitudes, and values – competencies – which they need for their successful incorporation to the labor market. The link to the outside world, bearing in mind potential employers’ needs (Berlin Communiqué, 2005), is thus made explicit. Lifelong learning (Mackiewicz, 2002) also comes to the fore in order to ensure students are armed with the tools they need to continue learning throughout their lives, transferring what they have acquired to different contexts (Perkins and Salomon, 2001: 370).

The aim of this article is to illustrate how these theoretical postulations on student-centered learning included in official European documents are being implemented in practice in a European HE context. In particular, they will be presented within the framework of an English language teaching (ELT) subject – *Inglés Instrumental Intermedio* – at the University of Jaén in Spain, and grounded on five pedagogical innovation projects which have developed within it. The new student and teacher roles to which the piloting of the ECTS has given rise will be illustrated against the backdrop of these projects, and data will be provided on the students’ attitudes towards their more active and participative role in the new European credit system.

II. CONTEXTUALIZATION OF THE SUBJECT, THE PROJECTS, AND THE STUDY

There is no better angle from which to examine the application of the theoretical underpinnings of the EHEA to ELT than the subject of *Inglés Instrumental Intermedio*, given its purely instrumental and linguistic character. It is a 15-credit core subject in the degree of English Philology at the University of Jaén, which students must obligatorily study in their first year at college. Its aim, as explicitly stated in the B.O.E (Boletín Oficial del Estado) is “*Formación práctica a nivel intermedio en las cuatro destrezas comunicativas, dominio del léxico y del uso del inglés. Estudio del sistema vocálico y consonántico*” (B.O.E. de 17 de octubre de 2000). In other words, it provides students with extensive practice in the four language skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) and with overt instruction in grammatical aspects (from verb tenses to the passive voice or reported speech), lexical competence (collocations, idiomatic expressions, phrasal verbs, or semantic fields related to such general topics as family, health, or technology), functions (e.g., agreeing and disagreeing, expressing opinions, or giving advice), and phonetics (through an introduction to the English vowel and consonant system). It is one of the only two subjects in the degree which focuses purely on the use of English; hence its importance.

Prior to the implementation of the ECTS scheme at the University of Jaén, the subject of *Inglés Instrumental Intermedio* was taught in what Norris and Ortega (2000: 420, following Long, 1991, 1997, and Long and Robinson, 1998) would characterize as a focus on form approach, which integrates forms and meaning, capitalizing on interventions that draw learners’ attention to formal properties of linguistic features in the context of meaningful communication. In teaching especially the oral skills, Communicative Language Teaching (cf. Brown, 1994 or Richards and Rodgers, 2001) was the prime approach, as classroom language learning was linked with real-life communication outside its confines, and authentic samples of language and discourse or contextualized chunks rather than discrete items were employed. All in all, an explicit (Sharwood-Smith, 1981; Stern, 1992), intentional (Schmidt, 1994; Hulstijn, 2001), or instructed (Ellis, 1985, 1994) methodology was followed to foster grammatical and lexical development. A main coursebook was employed, complemented with certain additional materials, and lockstep work in contact sessions with the teaching staff, where paper and pencil exercises were done and corrected, was the norm.

However, since the ECTS scheme began to be piloted in the degree of English Philology in the academic year 2004-2005, the ELT panorama in the subject has substantially changed. The different philosophy which the European Higher Education Area has at all levels of the curriculum (from objectives through evaluation procedures) has spurred us to conceptualize, coordinate, and undertake five pedagogical innovation projects within the subject, all in the past four academic years.

These pedagogical innovation projects have involved the use of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), as understood in the inclusive sense (Levy and Hubbard, 2005: 148), and Data-Driven Learning (DDL) (Johns, 2002) to raise awareness of and remediate the writing weaknesses of our students (2004-2005); setting up a virtual learning environment (VLE) through the ILIAS Platform for the subject, where the undergraduates can download the material they need for the subject, communicate through a forum, or post their recommendations through a virtual “Suggestions Box” (2006-2007); establishing a telecollaboration exchange with the Southern Methodist University of Dallas, whereby each Jaén freshman has a Dallas tutor assigned with whom s/he communicates on a weekly basis and carries out a structured set of ELT tasks via the Blackboard on-line platform (2006-2007); designing a bank of materials for the development of lexical competence through sitcoms and TV series in a virtual learning environment (2006-2007); and setting up a peer tutoring project between English Philology freshmen and sophomores at our university to foster generic cross-curricular competencies (2007-2008).

The projects have allowed the incorporation of a multiplicity of teaching approaches which have favored the transition from information- to meaning-based education; from a “bulimic” learning where the students merely regurgitate what they have learned, to a more critical learning that sticks. That is, they have promoted what McGonigal (2005) terms “teaching for transformation”. These approximations to language teaching have included autonomous, lifelong, and cooperative learning, CALL and blended learning, the Lexical Approach, task-based learning, Neurolinguistic Programming, and Multiple Intelligence Theory (cf. Author and Ware, 2009). They have also diversified evaluation procedures and techniques, now accounting for 60% of the final grade, thus attaching greater importance to on-going assessment (Madrid and Author, 2004) and to the amount of individual, private, or personal work put in by the student (Ron Vaz et al., 2006).

However, how have these novel teaching initiatives specifically affected student and teacher roles? The next three sections provide concrete examples.

III. LEARNING MODALITIES

To begin with, the previous teacher-directed, lecture-based system, which was essentially built on lockstep theoretical sessions with the whole class, is now only one more type of learning modality which the students engage in. Numerous authors (Casas Gómez and Márquez Fernández, 2004; De Miguel Díaz, 2005, 2006; Giménez de la Peña and López Gutiérrez, 2006; Ron Vaz et al., 2006; Arias Blanco, 2007) testify to the vast gamut of classroom organizations to which the new credit system has led. Amongst them, lectures or conferences, theoretical classes, practical sessions, seminars and workshops, group and individual work, or tutorials are all mentioned.

All these learning modalities can be discerned in the subject of *Inglés Instrumental Intermedio* and can thus be easily and effectively applied to language teaching. To begin with, *theoretical* contact sessions with the teaching staff in large groups have been reduced to two hours a week and are primarily employed to introduce, in a global manner, the concepts and notions of grammar, vocabulary, and the skills which are then explored from a practical point of view in the seminars and practical sessions. In turn, *group work* is fostered in the debates and role-plays which take place on a more regular basis in the new credit system. *Individual work* or *independent/private study*, made possible in the new system thanks to its consideration of out-of-class student work in the conception of credits, has also gained in importance for such activities as the telecollaboration exchange, the preparation and delivery of oral presentations, or the completion of lexical tasks through the online virtual platform. *Practical sessions* subdivide the whole class into two subgroups for work on the oral skills, and *seminars* take place once a week in reduced groups of five to eight students with a clearly practical slant. These seminars, following to a large extent the methodological recommendations of Casas Gómez and Márquez Fernández (2004), involve such varied activities as group debates, role plays, watching and commenting on popular sitcoms in DVD format, doing specialized reading activities, carrying out personalized correction of compositions and awareness-raising of the main mistakes discerned, conference attendance and summaries, personalized work on pronunciation aspects, “coffee and talk” sessions with students from different English-speaking backgrounds (The United States, Canada, Scotland, and England), or the incorporation of new technologies into language teaching (e.g., through the telecollaboration project or the use of DDL and VLE).

Finally, *individual tutorials* are used for reinforcement purposes, problem resolution, personalized work, or follow-up to the development of the telecollaboration, peer tutoring, or VLE experiences. In this sense, they combine what Del Rincón Igea (2000) terms *tutoría de enseñanza-aprendizaje* (for teaching-learning purposes) and *tutoría personalizada* (to work on individual problems and personal approximation to and interpretation of the contents of the subject).

These diverse learning arrangements have been viewed in a positive light by the students (cf. Section 6), since they seem to be benefiting from them, as Taibi (2006) also documents with respect to individual tutorials.

IV. TEACHER ROLES

These diverse learning arrangements have involved, on the one hand, a noteworthy change in the university lecturer’s role, as numerous authors document (e.g., Durán et al., 2006 or Ron Vaz et al., 2006). There is thus a “*nueva y necesaria reformulación del papel docente del profesor universitario*”¹ (Ron Vaz et al., 2006, 2).

In the Spanish university system, the teacher has traditionally been conceived as a *director* or *orchestrator*, *instructor* or *expert transmitter* of knowledge, and as a *source of information* or “*pozo de ciencia*”², in Medina’s (2004: 44) words. As Pozuelos et al. (2006: 2) put it,

*La actual docencia universitaria se encuentra más centrada en la enseñanza que en el aprendizaje, y la percepción más generalizada sobre la función del profesor en este contexto es la de un experto en su materia cuyo rol consiste en transmitir conocimientos relevantes y actualizados a estudiantes que deben ser capaces de memorizarlos y reproducirlos.*³

At present, while maintaining these roles in the more traditional lockstep contact sessions of *Inglés Instrumental Intermedio*, the ELT teacher must also be prepared to assume new ones (McLaren et al., 2005; Martínez Lirola, 2007). To begin with, we are now *motivators*, *dynamizers*, *stimulators*, and *creators* of a positive classroom atmosphere through the numerous pedagogical innovation projects we are putting into practice in the classroom (cf. Section 2). We become *counsellors*, *tutors*, and *advisers* in the personalized tutorials (cf. Section 3). We act as *guides*, *helpers*, *facilitators*, and *resources* in the seminar activities and in providing the students with references and guidelines for their autonomous work. We turn into *observers* and *participants* in the learners’ debates and Power Point presentations on grammar. We *plan*, *monitor*, and *supervise* the on-line telecollaboration exchange, peer-tutoring project, and VLE lexical activities. We, of course, *assess* the outcomes of both the formative and summative work. We also turn into *investigators* of the findings yielded by our pedagogical innovation projects via the empirical studies which accompany them. And we equally need to engage in a greater *collaboration*, *communication*, and *transparency* (Giménez de la Peña and López Gutiérrez, 2006; Miedes Ugarte and Galán García, 2006; Pozuelos et al., 2006) with our colleagues in setting up joint projects (e.g., with *Inglés Instrumental Avanzado* in the peer tutoring experience) and in ensuring smooth transitions between related subjects. In this sense, Giménez de la Peña and López Gutiérrez (2006: 10) stress that “[...] *una de las innovaciones que plantea el nuevo modelo docente es la apertura a la colaboración entre profesores y asignaturas para favorecer la comprensión de distintos puntos de vista o la intervención en diferentes ambientes.*”⁴

¹ “a new and necessary reformulation of the university professor’s teaching role” (our translation)

² “a well of science” (our translation)

³ “Present-day university teaching centers more on teaching than on learning, and the most generalized perception of the teacher’s role in this context is that of expert in his/her subject who transmits relevant and updated knowledge to students who must memorize and reproduce it.” (Our translation)

⁴ “one of the innovations of the new teaching model is the openness to collaborate between teachers and subjects in order to foster the understanding of diverse points of view or intervention in different environments” (our translation)

All in all, the university teacher – with *Inglés Instrumental Intermedio* being no exception – assumes a crucial role as **catalyst of change** (Miedes Ugarte and Galán García, 2006). This, not surprisingly, is entailing a greater amount of work, preparation, dedication, and change of mindset on the part of the teacher (Ron Vaz et al., 2006), which is not being achieved without difficulty (Jiménez Reina et al., 2006) and which sometimes verges on overload (Martos Montes et al., 2006; Pozuelos et al., 2006). In our specific case, the elaboration of original material (e.g. in the VLE project), the set-up, monitoring, and evaluation of the telecollaboration and peer-tutoring experiences, or the investigations undertaken to determine the effects of our innovation are certainly involving a noteworthy effort on our part, though an undoubtedly worthwhile one when we examine the results of our endeavour (cf. Section 6).

V. STUDENT ROLES

A similar difficulty in the transformation of student roles is being perceived in the new system (e.g. Díaz Negrillo and Valera Hernández, 2006), especially when it concerns freshmen (as is the case of *Inglés Instrumental Intermedio*), who have to learn to take responsibility for their own learning and to undergo an academic and personal maturation process. They are no longer passive recipients or empty vessels who accumulate and repeat the information received (Domingo et al., 2007), but, rather, the protagonists of the learning process. In Martínez Lirola's (2007: 36) words, "[...] *el alumno, estimulado por la voluntad interactiva del profesor, ha de participar activamente en el aula, tomando las riendas cuando el profesor o la actividad se lo exija. Debe cambiar ciertos hábitos acomodaticios y pasivos, convencerse de que es, en realidad, el centro del proceso y afrontar con decisión ese reto.*"⁵

This learner-centered education has induced significant changes for the studentship, which, again, are clearly felt in *Inglés Instrumental Intermedio*. The learners are more **autonomous** and **independent** (McLaren et al., 2005; Ron Vaz et al., 2006; Martínez Lirola, 2007) (e.g., through the telecollaboration tasks and lexical activities they have to complete in their personal work hours); more **active** and **participative** in classroom activities (Giménez de la Peña and López Gutiérrez, 2006) (e.g., by means of the "jury" system established to evaluate their classmates' presentations or the "coffee and talk" sessions organized with native English speakers); more **creative** (Martínez Lirola, 2007; Domingo et al., 2007; Author, 2009) (as can be observed, e.g., in the way they design their oral presentations); and more **involved in the decision-making process** (Taibi, 2006) (e.g., through the "Suggestions Box" created on-line for them to post their suggestions for the subject or through our choice of DVDs for the VLE project based on their preferences). This clearly leads to an increased **personalization** of the learning process (Ron Vaz et al., 2006) and to a heightened **contact** and **closer relationship** between teacher and student (Martos Montes et al., 2006), as is evinced in some of the e-mails received from our students (cf. Fig. 1). According to Martos Montes et al. (2006) and Felder and Brent (1996), all these changes are also favoring more significant learning, greater retention of knowledge, and processing at a deeper level on the part of the student.

Dear Marisa,
 Hi!! How's that going? I hope good.[...]
 Thank you for the breakfast on Wednesday!!!! That was very kind of you!!! I had a lot of fun and met a very nice girl. We were invited to a birthday party - Jamie's 21st birthday - and Loli, Elena and me joined. We met a lot of people - most of them English - and had a great night. I have nothing else to tell you. C u tomorrow in class!
 María Jesús

Figure 1. Extract from a sample e-mail from an *Inglés Instrumental Intermedio* student.

VI. THE EVIDENCE: RESULTS FROM THE QUALITATIVE STUDY

It follows from the foregoing that the application of the ECTS is generating new teacher and student roles and learning modalities which favour the interaction of both agents in the teaching-learning process. However, what kinds of attitudes is the new system generating in the participating student body? How does the latter feel about taking center-stage in the new system? A survey administered in June 2006, 2007, and 2008 to the regular participants in the pedagogical innovation projects (15 in 2007 and 10 in 2007 and 2008) has allowed us to answer these questions.

⁵ "The student, stimulated by the teacher's interactive will, must participate actively in the classroom, taking control when the teacher or the activity require it. S/he must change certain passive habits, in the conviction that s/he is, in fact, the center of the process, facing that challenge decisively." (Our translation)

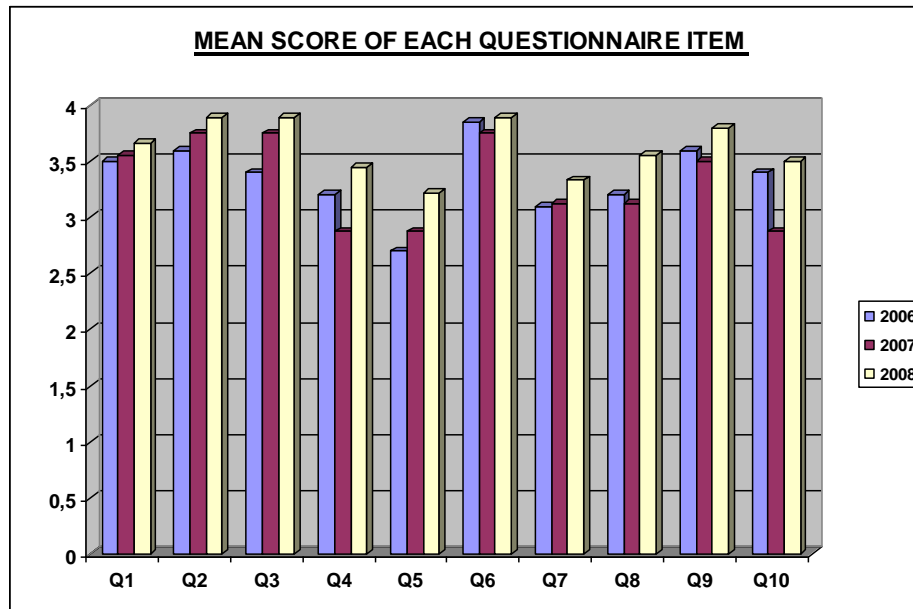


Figure 2. Mean score of each questionnaire item in the three years of ECTS piloting.

Overall, in the three years of piloting of the ECTS experience, the sample values the learning modalities, timetabling, evaluation, and teacher's commitment to the new credit system extremely positively, as mean scores between 3 and 4 (on a 4-point Likert-type scale) are obtained for the items considered in the survey (cf. Fig.2).

As the pilot experience has consolidated in the subject, the students have seen an increasingly appreciable difference between the methodology followed in the lockstep contact sessions and the seminars (item 1), and have increasingly valued the activities in the seminars - considering they offer better conditions for learning (item 2) - and the use of group work and individual tutorials, which they hold have a positive repercussion on learning outcomes (item 5). This same trend of growing appreciation discerned for the learning modalities also applies to item 7, where the learners view the new system as optimizing learning outcomes, each year more than the last.

Items 4 and 10, while presenting an important positive leap in students' attitudes from the first to the third year considered, also evince a slump in the 2007 cohort's attitudes. Both questions probe the freshmen's opinions on the amount of individual or private work put in by the student. It seems that, in the second year of piloting considered, the students do not see this amount of work as adequate or proportional (item 4) as in the other two academic years, and, thus, tend to prefer a system which is based on traditional contact sessions with the teaching staff (item 10). This finding is interesting and perhaps reflects the different learning styles of the 2007 students. It also accords with the outcomes of a quasi-experimental quantitative study we conducted that year to determine the possible differential effects of the ECTS as compared to the traditional Spanish university method. When considering the intervening variable of performance on the university entrance exam, we ascertained the students with the poorest results in this exam (Ds) appeared to work better within the traditional credit system, based more on lockstep teaching and less on independent work on the part of the student. Madrid & Hughes (forthcoming) have also recently come across the same skepticism towards non-presential sessions on the part of the students studying FL Teacher Training within the ECTS at the University of Granada. They found many learners did not agree with reduced in-class time and expressed their desire to have more presential sessions in order to be able to complete all the tasks assigned by teachers.

Another curious finding affects item 5, which explores whether the ECTS requires an overwhelming effort on the part of the sample. Although this item obtains the lowest score on all three years - something positive for the subject -, it is undeniably higher in 2008. This last group has been the one to value the ECTS experience most positively on all the questions considered, yet they also acknowledge it has required substantial - verging on excessive - commitment and work on their part.

Evaluation (item 8) is quite positively valued in all three years: the students believe that the evaluation criteria in the new credit system are more precise and realistic in reflecting the real workload of the learner. However, the most highly ranked questions are 6 and 9. The highest scores are invariably obtained for item 6 - the cohort sees the teacher as extremely committed to the new methodology involved in the ECTS -, and item 9 reveals that the students prefer a tertiary education system which is centered on the student.

VII. DISCUSSION

The outcomes yielded by this qualitative study have been very encouraging. The attitudes generated in the participating student body by the novel learning models and teacher and student roles involved in the new credit system have been extremely positive, and, in general, increasingly so as the years of piloting have consolidated the ECTS

experience. The student-centered learning to which this new system has led thus seems to be generating high student satisfaction, something which accords with Felder and Brent's (1996) findings.

These results are particularly heartening when we consider the outcomes of the qualitative study which was conducted by García García (2005) after the first year of ECTS pilot experience in the degree of English Philology at the University of Jaén. Both students and lecturers considered the new system implied no change or improvement in learning modalities, and students in particular felt that lecturers were not really committed to the proper development of the project. After three further years of piloting, the situation has changed dramatically, and the findings of our survey provide testimony to the fact that the major bumps along the road to student-centered learning have been smoothed.

VIII. CONCLUSION

While countries like the U.S. have a long tradition in student-centered instruction, continental Europe has always followed a more knowledge-oriented paradigm in tertiary education. The situation is – thankfully – now changing, fuelled by the creation of the EHEA, which is acting as a powerful lever for reform.

This article has portrayed how the theoretical underpinnings of the EHEA and its new credit system – the ECTS – are being practically implemented in the language teaching arena in HE. In particular, it has focused on teacher and student roles, illustrating how they have been subverted through the implementation of five pedagogical innovation projects within the piloting of the ECTS at the University of Jaén. The attitudes which this reorientation is generating in the participating student body have also been examined via a qualitative study conducted in the past three academic years (2006, 2007, 2008), and which has revealed high student satisfaction.

There are still, undoubtedly, further adjustments to make and resilience to overcome in making the shift from an information- to a meaning-based tertiary education which centers on the student. After all, as Schechtman and Koser (2008: 312) rightly point out, “Transformations will not be easy”. However, making the transition to student-centered learning holds great promise, and our experience and outcomes allows us to maintain a definitely positive outlook on it. As Felder and Brent put it (1996: 47), “it may take an effort to get there, but it is an effort well worth making”.

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A Discussion on Developing Students' Communicative Competence in College English Teaching in China

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Abstract—With the spread and development of English around the world and its increased use in China, research about improved methods to develop college students' English level has become of great importance. This has promoted changes in both the teaching and learning process. This paper analyzes the necessity and feasibility of developing students' communicative competence in College English Teaching (CET) and also discusses the advantages and challenges of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) for CET. A questionnaire is used to determine students' understanding of the term of communicative competence, as well as to discover their opinions about teaching and learning within the framework of fostering their communicative skills. As it seems an appropriate time to implement communicative teaching approach in Chinese universities, this paper also raises the issue of future reform based on current CET in China.

Index Terms—English language teaching, communicative competence, college English teaching

I. ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING IN CHINA

It is apparent that in the 21st century, the trend of globalization is leading to closer relationships between countries. Of all the different languages, English, as a global/international language (EGL/EIL) or a Lingua Franca (ELF), is widely used in communication between people and countries. The English language has spread and developed globally, which is a fact that cannot be ignored. In China, for instance, McArthur (2002: 353) has pointed out the importance of English, by stating that "English is massively the principal foreign language taught (and sought after) in the PRC (People's Republic of China), where it has high status as the global medium of education, travel, entertainment, e-communication, and business."

As the main foreign language taught and employed in communication with foreigners, the use of English has dramatically increased in China, especially in the last decade. The number of English learners in this country exceeds 250 million (Chen & Hu, 2006) nowadays. However, English Language Teaching (ELT) in China has not affected the traditional teaching model whereby students learn English just to pass exams and teachers lecture mainly to help students achieve this goal. The result is that students do not have enough English to communicate effectively with others. In China, this is called "Dumb English" or "Deaf English"¹. Obviously, students' overall skills cannot be enhanced, especially for students at the college and university level. In order to improve the situation based on need analysis, the Chinese Ministry of Education published *College English Curriculum Requirements* (2007), which states that:

The objective of College English is to develop students' ability to use English in an all-round way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future work and social interactions they will be able to exchange information effectively through both spoken and written channels, and at the same time they will be able to enhance their ability to study independently and improve their cultural quality so as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchanges.

Though such a teaching method cannot be widely implemented as expected currently, this statement can be seen as a measure of reform for College English Teaching (CET) in order to develop university students' communicative competence.

II. THE CONCEPT OF COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND ITS DEVELOPMENT

One of the earliest concepts of communicative competence was introduced by Hymes (1972). He believed that the ability to communicate properly should be cultivated in language teaching. Students should learn how to use a language in their daily communication in order to demonstrate their mastery of a language.

Hymes' (1972) theory of communicative competence has been widely acknowledged and accepted by English

¹ "Dumb English" (learners cannot express themselves) or "Deaf English" (learners cannot make themselves understood) can both refer to "a consequence that students cannot use English to communicate with others".

educators and scholars (Canale & Swain, 1980; Kunschak, 2004; McKay, 2002). As the concept of “communicative competence” is being further developed, different language skills such as linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, strategic and pragmatic competences are receiving increasing focus (Davies, 2005; Hedge, 2000). Kramersch (2006, p.36) states that “language learning, as the acquisition of communicative competence, is now defined as the expression, interpretation and negotiation of meaning between two interlocutors or between a text and its readers”.

It is believed that one of the main goals of both ELT and CET in China nowadays is to develop students’ communicative competence, as more students will regard English as a communicating tool after graduation. If students can use the English knowledge, skills and cultural aspects they have learned to communicate with people of different cultural backgrounds in real language contexts, they are then using English as a communication tool.

III. THE NECESSITY AND FEASIBILITY OF DEVELOPING STUDENTS’ COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

After the publication and implementation of the *College English Curriculum Requirements* (2007), both listening and speaking skills have become key criteria by which to measure the success of CET in China. Thus, we can see that the ultimate purpose of CET in China today is not just to have students pass exams by blindly using the “cramming” teaching method in large classrooms.

Generally speaking, students who major in English are a minority at Chinese universities. More students will use English in future careers such as business, law, and journalism. English will be used as a tool to communicate or negotiate with different people after their graduation. In other words, the popularity of English worldwide provides a clear reason to reform ELT in China, get rid of exam-oriented education, and to focus on developing students’ listening and speaking skills so they learn to communicate effectively with others.

Improving college English teachers’ abilities and qualifications necessarily means improving college students’ communicative skills. Teachers should participate in designing CET syllabi and be aware of the objectives of CET. Many Chinese who have earned master and doctoral degrees related to the English language/literature or Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) become valuable resources for CET. Many such teachers are overseas returnees and are both enthusiastic and better understand the English language and culture. Therefore, the prospective and reformative consciousness of such teachers gives CET new opportunities and passions.

University facilities and resources are also gradually improving comparing with the past decade. Multimedia teaching provides a platform for developing speaking skills by stimulating students’ interest and participation in class (Yang & Fang, 2008). Moreover, CET in China today is more student-centered. Instructors can mostly act as catalysts in the process of communicative language teaching (CLT). As Kramersch (2006, p.38) have pointed out, “[teachers] set up the conditions under which learners learn to learn. The teacher is to be a ‘guide on the side, rather than sage on the stage’”.

We should also be aware of the different attitudes of teachers and students toward English teaching and learning. It cannot be denied that many college students still do not have specific reasons for learning English, or they learn English simply to pass exams. Therefore, it is not an easy task to implement a project to develop university students’ communicative competence.

IV. THE ADVANTAGES OF DEVELOPING STUDENTS’ COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

While developing their speaking abilities and increasing their vocabulary level, students simultaneously develop their listening skill and also gain confidence during the process of communication. It is apparent that an English context is automatically created during various activities when implementing CLT while English is used as the medium for students to communicate with each other. The English context can help students cultivate their sense of the language, and create an atmosphere where students can improve their English ability. CLT provides students an opportunity to speak and share ideas in a relatively relaxing way. Therefore, students become the protagonists in the classroom, and their initiative and motivation are both enhanced. A problem that the lack of an English context may block students’ English study can be solved by implementing this teaching method, because CLT not only focuses on developing students’ listening and speaking skills of English, but also reading and writing skills.

CLT can introduce new teaching methods, creating a diversified teaching process. Teachers can use various resources to help students develop their communicative skills, which is another manifestation of the diversity of the teaching method. For example, English teachers can use pictures to promote group discussions, thereby helping students understand the informational and cultural background of various topics. Games can also be used to help students learn vocabulary and practice their writing skills. More specifically, teachers can help students create an English context when teaching grammar and Western culture. They can ask students questions such as “If you had been born in the United States, how would your life be different now?” “What experiences would you have had?” “What things would not have happened to you that actually have?” During group discussions, students not only practice their spoken English, but also learn about different cultures. Grammar can also be practiced during this process.

However, the challenges of CLT cannot be ignored and the traditional ELT model in China may not be easily changed. This is why we must also discuss some problems and challenges of CLT in China.

V. THE CHALLENGES OF DEVELOPING STUDENTS’ COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE

First, a traditional limitation to developing students' communicative competence is the inadequate interaction between teachers and students. Teachers simply spend much time lecturing while students take notes and seldom participate in class. The relatively tedious test-based teaching method makes students reluctant to freely participate in classroom discussions. Therefore, the communicative teaching approach is still on a journey from theory to practice in Chinese universities. Currently, teachers and students do not fully realize the benefits of enhancing the latter's communicative competence in the process of ELT. We should also note that the number of students in English classes is greater than expected (generally around 40 to 60 in one class), compared to the number of English majors (generally around 20 to 30 in one class). Therefore, greater numbers of students do not have enough opportunity to communicate with each other in English. Students' lack of initiative may also influence the effectiveness of teaching.

Second, another obstacle to implementing CLT is the method of evaluating CET in China. College English Test Band 4 and Band 6² are still important evaluation standards to test students who are not English majors. Currently, the evaluation reforms pay more attention to developing students' integrated ability. Although at some Chinese universities (such as Fudan University, Jilin University, and Shantou University), Band 4 and Band 6 certificates are no longer related to a student's degree, the overwhelming effect of the evaluation test is to put pressure on students to learn English, making the system of connecting certificates to improve job opportunities hard to change. Students who take the oral English proficiency tests are mostly higher-intermediate students, who comprise a small portion of the university population. Although some universities pay more attention to developing students' communicative competence, the traditional assessing system is still ingrained, and the dichotomy between "accuracy" and "fluency" is still worth considering if this teaching method will be more widely implemented in China.

Another challenge of CLT may be related to the students themselves. CET is mostly used for students who are not English majors, who may have different opinions about English teaching and learning. The lack of input and output of English leads to a lack in students' reading vocabulary skill, which might make it difficult to successfully implement this teaching method. Furthermore, different attitudes toward learning English may also impede students' learning. Therefore, it is necessary that teachers and students create a good balance between English teaching and learning, thus allowing college students' communicative competence to gradually improve.

VI. QUESTIONNAIRE

A. *Description of the Questionnaire*

A questionnaire was applied to explore college students' understanding of CLT and their need to learn English at university. A medium-sized tertiary university was chosen because it is located in Southern China, where ELT has undergone some reform in order to focus on the communicative teaching approach and developing students' critical thinking. Altogether 150 participants answered the questionnaire; 87 respondents were lower-intermediate students and 63 were higher-intermediate. Both groups of students were asked to answer the questionnaire during a break in their English class or during free periods. It is hoped that the results of the questionnaire will reflect students' opinions about the implementation and effectiveness of the communicative teaching approach in teaching and learning English.

B. *Discussion*

² College English Test Band 4 and Band 6 is a testing system designed to test the English level of college and university students who do not major in English. Certificates have been regarded as one of the key elements for students to gain better jobs after graduation.

TABLE 1
STUDENT OPINIONS ABOUT COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE AND CET

Questions	Options	Inter. Students	%age	Adv. Students	%age
Have you ever heard the term “communicative competence”?	Yes	26	29.88	17	26.98
Of the four basic skills in learning English, which one do you think is the most important?	Listening	10	8.7	7	11.11
	Speaking	69	79.31	48	76.19
	Reading	3	3.45	5	7.94
	Writing	2	2.30	2	3.17
What do you think communicative competence emphasizes?	Listening	2	2.30	1	1.59
	Speaking	81	93.1	60	95.23
	Reading	2	2.30	1	1.59
	Writing	1	1.15	1	1.59
What is your main purpose for learning English at university (first choice)?	To get enough credits because I have to learn English	1	1.15	8	12.70
	To pass exams such as CET Band 4 and CET Band6 and get a better job in the future	21	24.14	5	7.94
	To practice and improve my spoken English in order to and get a better job in the future	51	58.62	39	61.90
	Others	8	9.19	6	9.52
(to lower-intermediate Students) Do you think College English teaching meet your expectations?	Yes	59	67.82		
	No Idea	24	27.58		
	No	4	4.60		
(to higher-intermediate Students) Do you feel satisfied with College English teaching?	Yes			17	26.98
	No Idea			22	34.92
	No			24	38.10

Regarding the first question, 29.88% of students at the lower-intermediate level had heard the term “communicative competence”, while only 26.98% of students at the higher-intermediate level had heard this term. This term is not too familiar among these students, though it can be assumed that more students are familiar with the Chinese term and not the English translation. It is undoubtedly necessary that the purpose and benefits of implementing CLT should be explained to students.

Question two is designed to discover students’ thoughts about the four basic skills in English learning. Not surprisingly, students at both levels believed speaking is the most important skill – 79.31% of the lower-intermediate students and 76.19% of the higher-intermediate students chose this skill. The listening skill was chosen by around 10% of the students in both levels. Few students regarded reading or writing as the most significant skill when learning English. Also, few students chose two skills altogether because they might believe, for example, that speaking and listening skills inherently go together. Generally speaking, as students have to go to interviews or communicate with various people after graduation, speaking seems to be the most important skill for them.

Although not too many students had heard the term “communicative competence”, many seemed to understand what communicative competence emphasizes. More than 90% of the students at both levels believed that the communicative teaching approach focuses on speaking skills (because students are exposed to various communicative activities, such as group discussions, role playing, and debating). However, the components of communicative competence, which are linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence (Dai & Chen, 2008; Hedge, 2000), and the purpose of CLT are far more complicated.

When referring to the main reason for learning English at university, more students at both levels chose the option “to practice and improve my spoken English in order to get a better job in the future”. Of the lower-intermediate students, 24.14% learn English because they want to pass exams such as College English Test Band 4 and Band 6 and to get good jobs in the future. This is both understandable and predictable. Of the higher-intermediate students, 12.70% learn English simply because they have to, while 7.94% do so in order “to pass exams and get better jobs”. Students at the lower-intermediate level want to learn about Western culture and learn English to communicate with others because English is an international language. For students at the higher-intermediate level, they may learn English in order to travel, for fun, or to use it as a communication tool.

The last question was meant to determine lower-level students’ expectations and higher-level students’ satisfaction with CET. Among the lower-intermediate students, 67.82% thought positively about learning English at university and believed that CET can meet their expectations. However, many higher-intermediate students felt dissatisfied with CET. Their reasons were that they did not learn useful things and that their English ability had not improved, there was not enough opportunity to practice English in class, class is boring, and they did not like the teaching style.

VII. IMPLICATIONS

From the questionnaire, we can see that quite a number of students still maintain high aspirations for learning English at university; improving speaking skills is one of the most important things for students. As Hedge (2000, p. 71) notes, “communicative language teaching sets out to involve learners in purposeful tasks which are embedded in meaningful contexts and which reflect and rehearse language as it is used authentically in the world outside the classroom”.

Therefore, I believe that CLT is useful for creating a learning environment and should be implemented in more Chinese universities. Also, curriculum design and class size should be adapted to better fit this teaching method. Developing college students' communicative competence should help students more easily use their English. Their pragmatic competence can also be developed through cultivating their English ability using this teaching method, allowing students to learn English in a more practical way. Scovel (2006, p.10) points out that "[communicative competence] does not neglect grammatical competence; it simply builds upon it by emphasizing that other skills need to be acquired if one is to become a fluent and accurate speaker of another language". Therefore, it is also necessary to have a post-communicative model (Figure 1: see, also, for example, Brumfit, 1979; Byram, 1988) when implementing CLT.

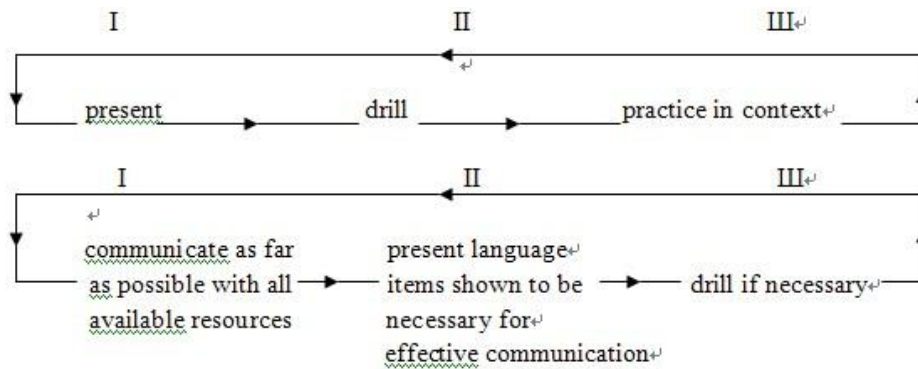


Figure 1 A traditional, Post-communicative Model by Brumfit, 1979

ELT in China needs to be discussed by both teachers and students so they might gain a proper understanding of the objective and how ELT can be further developed and reformed. According to Bygate (2001, 17-28), teaching English is not simply providing “the opportunity for learners to use language in order to communicate meaning without focusing on accuracy” and “a distinct methodology and syllabus may be needed”.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The use of CET will produce new English speakers, especially in EFL countries such as China. We should also understand that it is necessary for CET to have reasonable objectives and requirements, and that it is necessary to improve current teaching methods to improve students' oral English proficiency.

Developing students' communicative competence is mandatory for ELT in Chinese colleges and universities, and should be a priority when teaching and learning English today. College English teachers should be armed with sufficient knowledge to guide students in the process of learning English. Therefore, it is promising to implement integrated skills into English teaching when promoting the communicative teaching approach. We should look at CLT as a task within the bigger framework of ELT. Therefore, from the discussions above, it will be appropriate to implement the communicative language teaching approach to help college students in China improve their English skills.

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The Effects of Glosses on Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition in Reading

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Abstract—The study has been intended to find out the question of how the three different types of glossing, i.e. glossing in both Chinese and English, glossing in Chinese, glossing in English, exert effects on the incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading. Two testing sections are involved in this study, including the immediate retention testing section and the delayed retention testing section. Based on this finding, implications for the field of foreign language teaching and suggestions have been put forward.

Index Terms—type of glossing, incidental vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary acquisition

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Importance of Vocabulary Learning

Vocabulary learning is essential for the learning of a second language, which constitutes a great challenge and enormous task for both second language learners and teachers. As Wilkins (1974) puts that without grammar very little can be conveyed, but without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed. According to Hatch (1983), “basic communicative competence is largely concerned with the strategies the learners use to solicit the vocabulary they need in order to get meaning across”. Therefore, lots of studies have been done on second language vocabulary acquisition.

B. Theoretical Significance of the Research

Many researches have been done on the effects of glosses on incidental vocabulary acquisition. They have mainly on the following issues: what kind of language the glosses shall be in; where the glosses shall be put; and what kind of the glosses shall be in (i.e. multiple choice glosses, monomial glosses, or no glosses).

This research will not only analyze different forms of the glosses, but also give a more detailed description of the influence of glosses on second vocabulary acquisition. It can provide a better explanation for the influence of glosses on incidental vocabulary acquisition. In addition, researches in this field are very few in China, so it can become a reference for Chinese researchers to do further studies.

II. THEORY

A. Definition of Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

The fact that incidental acquisition takes place in U learning is generally acknowledged researchers. “Most scholars agree that except for the first few thousand most common words, L2 vocabulary is predominately incidentally” (Huckin & Coady, 1999) Then what is incidental vocabulary acquisition?

The earliest experiment on incidental vocabulary acquisition was done by Gibson (1985). He designed a strip story experiment to study learning vocabulary through speaking, but he didn't give a definition of IVA. Nagy, Herman & Anderson (1985) bring forward the concept of incidental vocabulary acquisition on the basis of studying how school children acquire their mother tongue. They believe that incidental learning from context accounts for a substantial proportion of the vocabulary growth that occurs during the school years. Long (1981) and Krashen (1985) propose Interactive Hypothesis and Input Hypothesis respectively, but they didn't define incidental vocabulary acquisition. Krashen (1989) argues that language learners could acquire vocabulary and spelling most efficiently by receiving comprehensible input while reading. He intends to use his Input Hypothesis to explain such an unconscious learning process, and describes this process as similar to incidental acquisition.

Schmidt (1994) says that the vocabulary learning refers to the learning without an intent to learn, or as the learning of one thing, e.g. vocabulary, when the learner's primary objective is to do something else, to communicate. Nation (1998) points out that incidental vocabulary acquisition means learners could acquire vocabulary by paying their attention to other things, especially information carried on by the language, and not to learn vocabulary technically. Joe (1998) also mentions that incidental/indirect vocabulary acquisition indicates that learners paid their attention to the comprehension of the context, not the vocabulary in the course of their learning. And it is very effective to acquire vocabulary. Huckin and Coady (1999) define incidental vocabulary acquisition as a learning process of guessing words in reading, and it is a by-product of cognitive activity.

Paribakht & Wesche (1999) regard incidental vocabulary acquisition as the learning process happens when learners

try to understand the new words they have heard or read in context. Learners could acquire vocabulary when focusing on something else unrelated to vocabulary learning. Laufer and Hill (2000) define it as the by-product of other activity, such as reading or communication without the learner's conscious intention to learn the words. However they pointed out that even though this kind of learning is incidental or unintentional, it is not unattended, that is, the students are not purposely trying to learn the vocabulary but their attention is called to the words they do not know.

Laufer (2001) point out that incidental vocabulary learning should be defined in contrast to intentional learning. Intentional vocabulary acquisition refers to an activity aiming at committing lexical information to memory. Incidental vocabulary acquisition means that learners acquire the vocabulary incidentally when they are carrying through other learning tasks, e.g. reading articles, listening to English songs. According to Laufer (2003), incidental vocabulary acquisition can be defined as the acquisition of vocabulary as a by-product of any activity not explicitly geared to lexical acquisition. Incidental learning does not mean that the learners do not attend to the words during the task. They may attend to the words (for example, using them in sentences, or looking them up in the dictionary), but they do not deliberately try to commit these words to memory.

Although many researchers have defined incidental vocabulary acquisition from different aspects, there is not an all-sided and authoritative definition of IVA. In this paper, the researcher will adopt the definition made by Laufer (2003) that incidental vocabulary acquisition refers to the acquisition of vocabulary as a by-product of any activity not explicitly geared to lexical acquisition. Few researchers have studied the relationship only between listening and incidental vocabulary acquisition, because generally listening and speaking cannot be separated. Elley (1989) designed two experiments to testify his assumption that young children can learn new vocabulary incidentally from illustrated storybooks read to them. The results show that oral story reading constitutes a significant source of vocabulary acquisition, whether or not the reading is accompanied by teacher explanation of word meanings. Duppy (1993) find that visual and listening can facilitate incidental vocabulary acquisition. After watching Eve minutes' segment of a new movie, the subjects did a vocabulary test.

B. Researches on the Effects of Glosses on Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition

In this study, the term refers to the supply of vocabulary meanings. Providing vocabulary glosses may be an effective way to help L2 learners to understand new words in a specific context. There are several reasons to use glosses in aiding learning. First, they help readers understand new words more accurately, considering the fact that deriving meaning from context is difficult and risky in some aspects (e.g., Stein, 1993; Hulstijn, 1992). Second, frequent input, looking at the words in the glosses and in the context, can help to retain the meaning in the memory longer (Watanabe, 1992). Students prefer to have glosses in their second/foreign language reading materials (e.g., Jacobs & Dufon, 1990). Studies with regard to glossing mostly focused on the effects of glossing on second language vocabulary learning and second language text comprehension. This review will discuss text-based and computerized studies respectively.

III. RESEARCH AND DISCUSSION

A. Research Questions of the Present Study

The present study has been intended to find the effects of different types of glosses, that is, glossing in Chinese, glossing in English, and glossing in both Chinese and English, on incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading.

The specific research questions are stated as follows:

Q1: Does a better understanding of the reading passage lead to a higher rate of retention of word knowledge?

Q2: Which type of glossing, among glossing in Chinese, glossing in English and glossing in both Chinese and English, is the most effective in enhancing incidental vocabulary acquisition through reading?

B. Research Design

The subjects are 103 students of Qingdao University of Science and Technology.

There are 774 words in total in this passage and there are 17 new words in addition to the 18 target words. That is to say, the coverage of words is about 97%; which is just between 95% and 98%. As has been generally accepted, the coverage of 98% is needed for reading for pleasure, and for basic necessity, 95% is needed. So the present coverage in the reading passage is just within this range.

C. Procedure

Three classes of non-English-major freshmen of the same proficiency in English took part in the present study. All the tests were finished during normal periods of classes. First, subjects were asked to finish a reading comprehension test, which contains ten comprehension questions after a reading passage.

The reading passage contains 18 target words, among which six are glossed in Chinese, six in English and the remaining six in both Chinese and English. After all the subjects had finished the test, papers of this comprehension test were collected. Then the test of the knowledge of the target words was carried out. A week later, a delayed test was given of the new words.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. *Effects of Glossing on the Word Knowledge in Immediate Retention*

The following table (Table 1) presents us the results of three different types of glossing in immediate test.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF IMMEDIATE TEST

	N	Mean	Min.	Max.
CE	6	.406	.00	1.00
E	6	.389	.00	1.00
C	6	.531	.00	1.00

Notes: CE = (average of items Glossed in) Chinese and English
E = (average of items Glossed in) English
C = (average of items Glossed in) Chinese

Since it is more convenient to demonstrate the results of the test, averages are used again in this part. For each item, the full score is one point. As could be concluded from the table above, the mean of the scores in glossing in Chinese (0.531) is the highest among the three types and the means of the scores (i.e. 0.406 and 0.389 respectively) in other two types are very close to each other. On the other hand, the standard deviations of the three tests are close to one another, which shows that students did not differ much in the performance within each of the three types of glossing.

The reason why the type of glossing in both Chinese and English (CE) failed to achieve the highest retention rate of word knowledge may be due to various reasons. First of all, as has been testified by the data from the interview with students after the first testing, on encountering this type of glossing, some students did not read carefully or even just ignored the English definition.

Generally, English definitions are much longer than Chinese definitions, or their Chinese “equivalents,” more exactly. As a consequence, students were in such a hurry to finish the reading task that they may just scan the Chinese definition following its English counterpart quickly and carelessly. This is in line with what we have discovered in literature review.

On the other hand, glossing in mother tongue is easy to understand and convenient to remember for most of the subjects. Another possible reason might be that without the long English definition preceding the short. Chinese definition, subjects may have a lower degree of anxiety while reading the gloss.

Glossing in English (E) is the least effective one. For one thing, just as has been mentioned above, English definition is usually much longer than its Chinese counterpart. This is harder for subjects to understand and even more difficult to commit to memory. For another, this might increase the degree of anxiety of students, thus producing a “vicious circle”.

In a word, in the test of immediate retention of incidental vocabulary acquisition, glossing in Chinese (C) is the most effective, and glossing in both Chinese and English (CE) is the second most effective, and the poorest is glossing in English (E).

B. *Effects of Glossing on the Word Knowledge in Delayed Retention*

Table 2 in the below demonstrates the results of the second test of word knowledge.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DELAYED TEST

	N	Mean	Min.	Max.
CE	6	.268	.00	.83
E	6	.233	.00	.83
C	6	.253	.00	.83

Notes: CE = (average of items Glossed in) Chinese and English
E = (average of items Glossed in) English
C = (average of items Glossed in) Chinese

From Table 2, it could be seen that different from what has been found in the immediate test, the mean of the scores for the words glossed in both Chinese and English (CE) is the highest among the three. The type of glossing solely in Chinese (E) has dropped to the second place. And the same as the results in the immediate testing, glossing in English (E) is the last one in the three.

In other words, there is no significant difference among the three types of glossing in the delayed test of the word knowledge.

V. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTION

A. *Conclusion*

In conclusion, the major findings of the present study are stated as follows:

- 1) A better comprehension of the text does lead to a higher rate of incidental vocabulary acquisition of word knowledge.
- 2) Glossing in both Chinese and English (CE) is the most effective in enhancing the word knowledge in both the immediate retention and in the delayed retention.

3) Glossing in Chinese (C) is the most effective in the immediate retention test of word knowledge. But this type is the least effective in enhancing the word knowledge in the delayed retention.

4) Glossing in English (E) the poorest in enhancing the word knowledge in the immediate retention.

B. Suggestion

Accordingly, in the future studies, more subjects should be included in the experiment to improve the generalization of the conclusion. In addition, subjects of different proficiency, including college students of different grades, junior and senior high school English learners, between the testing sections may be included. Last but not least, the time span should be lengthened to thoroughly long-term the present effects of different types of treatments.

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“A Study of Pragmatic Transfer in Compliment Response Strategies by Chinese Learners of English”

by Jiemin Bu

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[3] Tran, Giao Quynh. (2010). Replying to compliments in English and Vietnamese. *The International Journal of Language, Society and Culture*, Issue 30, 104-130.

A Social Cultural Approach to Discourse Analysis

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Abstract—Discourse analysis as a research method can be found in two major families, linguistic-based analysis (such as conversation) and culturally or socially based discursive practices. From the angle of method, discourse analysis can be divided into five categories, that is, structural analysis, cognitive analysis, social cultural analysis, critical analysis and synthetic analysis. In the paper, Social cultural analysis is chosen to be discussed as it regards discourse as interactional activities and emphasizes the social function of language. Language interaction involves all sorts of social cultural contexts; the author tries his best to make an exploration in discourse analysis from the social cultural approach so as to contribute something to the research.

Index Terms—social culture, discourse analysis, context, cognition

Discourse analysis can be divided into five categories from the angle of method, that is, structural analysis, cognitive analysis, social cultural analysis, critical analysis and synthetic analysis. Social cultural analysis regards discourse as interactional activities and emphasizes the social function of language. This method not only analyses word and sentence expression form and meaning, but also analyzes all kinds of social cultural factors related to discourse. This method insists that the speaker as an individual and one entity of a society not only want to transmit information or expresses thoughts, but also attempt to engage in certain social activities in different social situations and social institutions. Most discourse analysis concentrates on form, meaning, interaction and cognition, while social cultural analysis emphasizes the function of context besides what mentioned above. Since that language interaction involves all sorts of social cultural contexts, we cannot fix the meaning of language element in terms of its place in the whole sentence. We should also take the context, in which the discourse is produced, into consideration. On the different levels of the discourse, we can see that the social features of the participants plays an important role in the context, such as gender, classes, ethnics, age, social status and so on. The relationship between discourse and context is a dialectical one. Discourse is not only in and under the effect of context, but also influences, establishes or transforms context.

Language has a magical property: when we speak or write we craft what we have to say to fit the situation or context in which we are communicating. But, at the same time, how we speak or write creates that very situation or context. It seems, then, that we fit our language to a situation or context, in turn, that our language helped to create in the first place. Another way to look at the matter is this: we always actively use spoken and written language to create or build the world of activities and institutions around us. However, thanks to the workings of history and culture, we often do this in, more or less, routine ways. These routines make activities and institutions, like committees and committee meetings, seem to exist apart from language and action in the here and now. Nonetheless, these activities and institutions have to be rebuilt continuously and actively in the here and now. This is what accounts for change, transformation, and the power of language-in-action in the world.

We continually and actively build and rebuild our worlds not just through language, but through language used in tandem with actions, interactions, non-linguistic symbol systems, objects, tool, technologies, and distinctive ways of thinking, valuing, feeling, and believing. Sometimes what we build is quite similar to what we have built before; sometimes it is not. But language-in-action is always and everywhere and active building process.

Whenever we speak or write, we always and simultaneously construct or build six things or six areas of “reality”:

1. The meaning and value of aspects of the material world: I enter a plain, square room, and speak and act in a certain way (e.g. like someone about to run a meeting), and, low and behold, where I sit becomes the “front” of the room.
2. Activities: we talk and act in one way and we are engaged in formally opening a committee meetings’ we told and act in another way and we are engaged in “chit-chat” before the official start of the meeting.
3. Identities and relationships: I talk and act in one way one moment and I am speaking and acting as “chair” of the committee; the next moment I speak and talk in a different way and I am speaking and acting as one peer/colleague speaking to another.
4. Politics (the distribution of social goods): I talk and act in such a way that a visibly angry male in a committee meeting (perhaps it’s me!) is “standing his ground on principle,” but a visibly angry female is “hysterical.”
5. Connections: I talk and act so as to make, what I am saying here and now in this committee meeting about whether we should admit more minority students connected to or relevant to (or, on the other hand, not connected to or relevant to) what I said last week about my fears of losing my job given the new government’s, turn to the right.
6. Semiotics (what and how different symbol systems and different forms of knowledge “count”): I talk and act so as to make the knowledge and language of lawyers relevant (privileged), or not, over “everyday language” or over “non-lawyerly academic language” in our committee discussion of facilitating the admission of more minority students.

In general, there are two types of meaning that I argued, in the book written by James Paul Gee, he attaches to words and phrases in actual use: situated meanings and cultural models. After a brief review of these two notions, he turned to a discussion of an important and related property of language, a property he called “reflexivity.” That was the “magical” property of language, which he discussed at the outset of the former chapters, in virtue of which language-in-use both creates and reflects the contexts in which it is used.

A situated meaning, as we saw, is an image or pattern that we assemble “on the spot” as we communicate in a given context, based on our construal of that context and on our past experiences (Barsalou 1991, 1992; Clark 1996; Hofstadter 1997; Kress 1996; Kress and van Leeuwen 1996). Here I will give two utterances: “The coffee spilled, get a mop”; “The coffee spilled, get a broom”. In the first case, triggered by the word “mop” in the context, you assemble either a situated meaning something like “grains that we make our coffee from” or like “beans from which we grind coffee.” Of course, in a real context, there are many more signals as how to go about assembling situated meanings for words and phrases.

Situated meanings don’t simply reside in individual minds; very often they are negotiated between people in and through communicative social interaction. Here is an example. Someone in a relationship says “I think good relationships shouldn’t take work.” A good mutually negotiating (directly, or indirectly through inferencing) what “work” is going to mean for the people concerned, in this specific context, as well as in the larger context of their ongoing relationship. Furthermore, as conversations and indeed, relationships, develop, participants continually revise their situated meanings.

Words like “work” and “coffee” seem to have more general meanings than are apparent in the sorts of situated meanings we have discussed so far. This is because words are also associated with what, say, “cultural models.” Cultural models are “storylines,” families of connected images (like a mental movie), or (informal) “theories” shared by people belonging to specific social or cultural groups (D’Andrade and Strauss 1992; Holland and Quinn 1987).

Cultural models “explain,” relative to the standards of the group, why words have the various situated meaning they do and fuel their ability to grow more. Cultural models are usually not completely stored in any one person’s head. Rather, they are distributed across the different sorts of “expertise” and viewpoints found in the group (Hutchins 1995; Shore 1996), much like a ploy a story or pieces of a puzzle that different people have different bits of and which they can potentially share in order to mutually develop the “big picture.”

The cultural model connected to “coffee,” for example, is, for some of us, something like: berries are picked (somewhere? from some sort of plant?) and then prepared (how?) for other foods. Different types of coffee, drunk in different ways, have different social and cultural implications, for example, in terms of status. This is about the entire model I know, the rest of it (I trust) is distributed elsewhere in the society should I need it.

Cultural models link to each other in complex ways to create bigger and bigger storylines. Such linked networks of cultural models help organize the thinking and social practices of sociocultural groups. For example, taking a more consequential example than “coffee,” say, some people use a cultural model for raising young children that runs something like this (Harkness, Super, and Keeper 1992): Children are born dependent on their parents and then they go through various stages during which they often engage in disruptive behaviors in pursuit of their growing desire for independence.

This cultural model, which integrates models for children, child-rearing, stages, development, and independence, as well as others, helps parents explain their children’s behavior in terms of a value the group holds (e.g. independence). It is continually revised and developed (consciously and unconsciously) in interaction with others in the group, as well as through exposure to various books and other media. Other social groups view children differently (Philips 1974): for example, as beings who start out as too unsocialized and whose disruptive behaviors are not so much need for greater socialization within the family, i.e. for less independence (less “selfishness”).

From the discussion above, we can easily draw the conclusion, that is, discourse analysis is divided into five categories: structural analysis, cognitive analysis, social cultural analysis, critical analysis and synthetic analysis. Social cultural analysis regards discourse as interactional activities and emphasizes the social function of language. This method can not only analyze word and sentence expression form and meaning, but also analyze all kinds of social cultural factors related to discourse. The speaker, as an individual and one entity of a society, not only wants to transmit information or expresses thoughts, but also attempts to engage in certain social activities in different social situations and social institutions. Most discourse analysis concentrates on form, meaning, interaction and cognition, while social cultural analysis emphasizes the function of context besides the above-mentioned.

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An Application of Appraisal Theory to Teaching College English Reading in China

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Abstract—This paper attempts to apply a new theoretical framework-Appraisal Theory to the analysis and teaching of college English reading, with the hope of finding a new way of teaching college English reading, which will be helpful to solve the problems in the process of teaching English reading in China.

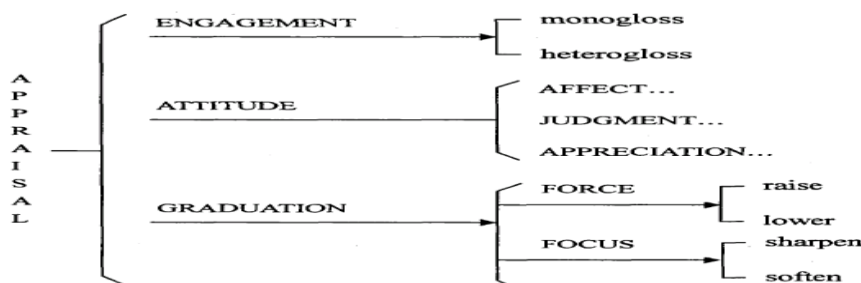
Index Terms—Appraisal Theory, college English reading, teaching in China

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading plays a very important role in teaching college English in China. Therefore, teaching of college English reading has attracted the attention of the language teachers and scholars for a long time. However, the present situation of college students' reading ability is not very satisfactory. This thesis attempts to apply a new theoretical framework-Appraisal Theory to the analysis and teaching of college English reading, with the hope of finding a new area of application for Appraisal Theory and a new way of teaching college English reading.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF APPRAISAL THEORY

Appraisal Theory, which was put forward by James Martin at the beginning of 1990s, is an extension of M.A.K.Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics. It provides an analytical tool for us to better understand the issues associated with evaluative resources and the negotiation of intersubjective positions, and opens a new area of interpersonal meaning. Martin examines evaluative lexis expressing the speaker's or writer's opinion on, very broadly, the good/bad parameter. The overall system of choices used to describe this area of meaning potential is called appraisal. The appraisal includes three categories. The main category or sub-system is affect, which deals with the expression of emotion. Related to this are two more specialized sub-systems: judgment, dealing with moral assessments of behavior, and appreciation, dealing with aesthetic assessments. The second one is engagement. Engagement is concerned with the ways in which resources such as projection, modality, polarity, concession and various comment adverbials position the speaker/writer engages with respect to the value position being advanced and with respect to potential responses to that value position-by quoting or reporting, acknowledging a possibility, deny, countering, affirming and so on (Martin & White, 2005:36). The last one is graduation. Graduation is concerned with gradability. For Attitude, since the resources are inherently gradable, graduation relates to adjusting the degree of an evaluation-how strong or weak the feeling is, that is, Force; in the context of non-gradable resources graduation has the effect of adjusting the strength of boundaries between categories, constructing core and peripheral types of things, called Focus.



An overview of appraisal resources (Martin&White, 2005:38)

III. PRESENT SITUATION OF TEACHING OF COLLEGE ENGLISH READING IN CHINA

Reading has been a prominent position in second language teaching and learning. It is always a major part of College English Teaching, and plays an important role in developing students' English proficiency. However, the situation is not very satisfactory. The main problems are as follow.

Firstly, some college students are content with getting the literal meaning of a text after overcoming vocabulary and

grammar difficulties. For them, reading English is still confined with language study, rather than for a thematic messages. Secondly, In China, the teaching of College English reading has been confronted with embarrassment for many years for falling to meet the ideal target of enabling students to master the foreign language flexibly. This is especially true with non-English majored college students who complain that they have made little progress except the vocabulary amount since graduation from high school. Thirdly, English teachers are confused by the discrepancy of reading discrepancy of reading competence among the students since they receive the same training and instruction. English teachers should make such questions clear as how students read in English, what difficulties they may encounter during their reading and how they respond to the difficulties.

IV. THE IMPLICATION OF APPRAISAL THEORY TO TEACHING COLLEGE ENGLISH READING

With the foregoing review of the appraisal theory and the problems of teaching of college English reading, the research methodology including subjects, instruments and materials and research procedures employed in the research is outlined now.

A. *Subjects of the Experiment*

The subjects of the experiment are 100 sophomore students who are non-English majors from Herbing Engineering University. They are randomly divided into two groups, the experimental group (EG) and the control group (CG) with each group 50 students in. The 100 sophomore students have passed the Band Four of College English Test, and their reading level is similar.

B. *Instruments and Teaching Materials*

The teaching material is a textbook of New Horizon College English published by Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

C. *The Design of the Experiment*

In this experiment two groups are used: one was an experiment group, which is taught in the way of adopting Appraisal Theory, and for the control group, traditional method are applied such as introducing background information, word explanation, sentence paraphrasing, text translation and so on. For each group, the hours allocated for each text is the same.

D. *The Design of Classroom Teaching by Using Appraisal Theory*

The test analyzed by means of Appraisal Theory, and there comes the issue of how the classroom teaching can be carried out. The following is a tentative design. The process of teaching is divided into three stages: comprehension of the text, explanation of the text and critical reading.

In the process of comprehension of the text, the teacher can help the students with the difficult words, phrases and sentences.

In the process of explanation of the text, the teacher takes control of the explaining process, asking students questions concerning a language point or sentence meaning every now and then to know whether the students have understood the literal meaning of the text. And then the teacher can also ask the students some comprehensive questions about the text to help the students know better about the text.

In the process of critical reading, the teacher can ask the students to comprehend the text from the following three steps:

Firstly, to understand the context of the text. Halliday argues that context should include two parts: one is linguistic context, including intratextual context and intertextual context; the other is non-linguistic context, which includes context of situation and context of culture. Language and culture are closely related; vocabulary, an important element of language, is bound up with culture. Words are loaded with cultural factors. Apart from learning the pronunciation, the spelling and the literal meaning of a word, students should master its cultural meaning as well to ensure their appropriate application of the words in any situation. So from the words the author chooses, the readers can know the author's real feelings, purposes and so on.

In situational context, we touched upon background knowledge a little, which is connected with the situation of the utterance or text. In reading a text, it is also necessary to be familiar with its related cultural background knowledge. So the introduction of the necessary background information of a text can help the students know better about the meaning beyond the clause (with texts in other words). Therefore, it is necessary to situate the analysis of discourses in the background of the contexts of situation and of culture in which these discourses are produced.

Secondly, to distinguish the author's attitudes and to discuss the underlying values and ideology. Different registers and genres require writers to use appropriate ways to signal their evaluation; thus certain disciplinary community has its specific styles to demonstrate evaluation. At the same time, the writer takes the readers into consideration in choosing the way to encode his opinion. So in this part, the teacher can ask students to make a list of sentences or phrases containing emotional words such as happy and unhappy or satisfied and dissatisfied, etc. Tell them to underline the subjects and objects of the emotions. And then give them some time to read the list carefully. Second, ask students to find out the sentences or phrases that contain words expressing evaluations. Words like positive and negative ones.

From the above steps, students can see more clearly the author's attitude. Moreover, students can find out the basic approach employed by the author more easily. This is concerned with various aspects of discourse organization, including the question of how people, places and things are introduced in text and kept track of once there; how events and states of affairs are linked to one another in terms of time, cause, contrast and similarity; how participants are related as part to whole and sub-class to class; how turns are organized into exchanges of goods, services and information; and how evaluation is established, amplified, targeted and sourced.

Thirdly, to encourage the students to speak out their views about the text. In order to make the appraisal knowledge connected with prior knowledge to consolidate the ability of finding out evaluative resources, the students are required, on one hand, to read the text intensively and they are given some time to generalize the whole text from the points of strategy and content on their own, on the other hand, to interpret the information, give their opinion and respond. In this way, they could develop their critical thinking skills and they are empowered to become independent, critical thinkers and readers. Consequently, the knowledge would be systematized and organized. Correspondingly, students could have a much deeper understanding of the text.

E. Experiment Results and Analysis

After 18 weeks' study (2 hours for each week), the two groups of students were given a quiz about reading comprehension. The quiz is from the Band Six of College English Test, which is the authority of the English language test in China. From the result of the quiz, we can know the mean scores of EG is higher than that of CG

F. Shortcomings of the Experiment

Owing to the limitation of time and other factors, only non-English major sophomores are chosen as the subjects. And the sample used is too limited in size. Therefore, this study only serves as a pilot for a larger scale study. In the process of the experiment, only the mean scores of the quiz is used, which is not enough.

V. CONCLUSION

The results of the present study indicate that the application of Appraisal Theory to the teaching of college English reading is very helpful for students in their reading comprehension. With the help of Appraisal analysis, students can have a better understanding of the reading materials. And this indicates that the Appraisal Theory can be used as an important strategy to develop their critical ability. Appraisal Theory can provide the Chinese English teachers with a new perspective to teach reading in English.

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An Analysis of College English Classroom Questioning

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Abstract—The analysis of classroom interaction is a very important form which classroom process research has taken. The present study focuses on college English classroom questioning. Through a detailed description and analysis of the collected data, types of questions and modification techniques are made clear and on the basis of which a few strategies for college English teachers are put forward by the author in order to improve college English teaching and learning.

Index Terms—college English, questioning, modification

I. INTRODUCTION

Since spoken language is “the medium by which much teaching takes place and in which students demonstrate to teachers much of what they have learned”(Cazden,1987, cited from Wittrock,1988),the application of discourse analysis to second language teaching and learning can reveal much about how teachers can improve their teaching practices by investigating actual language use in the classroom, and how students can learn language through exposure to different types of discourse . Nunan has pointed that “ If we want to enrich our understanding of language learning and teaching, we need to spend time looking in classroom”(Nunan, 1989:76). According to researchers of communicative teaching, “failed communication is a joint responsibility and not the fault of speaker or listeners. Similarly, successful communication is an accomplishment jointly achieved and acknowledged” (Jack C. Richards and Theodore S.Rodgers, 2000: 77); “It is the teachers’ responsibility to organize the classroom as a setting for communication and communicative activities”(Jack C. Richards and Theodore S.Rodgers,2000:78). In recent years, a much greater role has been attributed to interactive features of classroom behaviors, such as “turn-taking, questioning and answering, negotiation of meaning, and feedback” (Chaudron, 1988:10). In second language classrooms, “learners often do not have a great number of tools..., teachers’ questions provide necessary stepping stones to communication” (Brown, 1994a: 165). Questioning is reported as one of the commonly used strategies, as the success of a class largely depends on questioning and feedback.

The problem which is going to be mainly investigated here is types of teachers’ questions and teachers’ modifying strategies in a class. Because “two of the most common ways in which L2 teachers engage in interaction with learners is by way of asking questions and providing feedback, and these deserve some consideration” (Holland and Shortall, 1997:104), focusing on them can be expected to show useful findings which will contribute to deeper insights about the ways to improve L2 teaching and learning.

The context specified here is a college English classroom of non-English major. College English refers to English learned by Chinese college students whose major is other than English. The data are collected from three college English classrooms of non-English major at Qingdao University of Science and Technology. This study is significant in that it reveals the characteristics of classroom interaction that is most favorable for promoting learners’ English and has insightful implications for English teaching and learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Teacher’s Questions

1 Importance and necessity of questioning

Much of teachers’ talk relates to questions (Holland,R.and T.Shortall,1997:65)and substantial research exists demonstrating that questions can assist learners in improving their linguistic ability (McDonough and Shaw,1993:271-2). Chaudron (Chaudron, 1988:131) goes further, warning that poor questioning practice can be counter-productive. The importance of “careful framing of questions” according to Brown (Brown, 2001:169) sets a “learning climate for interactive teaching”. He considers a teacher’s questioning strategies (Brown, 2001: 173) “as one of the most important teaching behaviors to master”. Richards and Lockhart conclude that teachers’ questions “play a crucial role in language acquisition”(Richards and Lockhart, 1996:185). Ideally, questions should stimulate, interest, encourage, focus, help clarify, elicit, help check understanding, all positive achievements as stated in Richards and Lockhart (Richards and Lockhart, 1996:185).

2 Different taxonomies of questions

Teachers' questions are one topic that has attracted many researchers' attention these days (Nunan, 1989). Much that defines questioning lies in the features of questions and of their purpose in classroom interaction. "Much of the work, on questions has centred in developing taxonomies to describe the different types" (Ellis, 1994:587). Several ways of distinguishing on question types have been developed by researchers in the seventies (e.g.Kearsley, 1976) and eighties (e.g. Hakasson &Lindberg, 1988) and they are still being developed. One of the taxonomy is the framework of Long &Sato (Ellis, 1994). It has seven sub-categories under two headings of types; 1 Echoic Types: a) comprehension checks, b)clarification requests, c) confirmation checks, 2 Epistemic Types: a)referential, b)display, c)expressive, d)rhetorical. In fact, both Chaudron (Chaudron, 1988:126-7) and Nunan (Nunan, 1989:30) cited in their books a general taxonomy of question types, which is given in table 1.

TABLE 1
TAXONOMY OF QUESTION TYPES.

Question Type	Explanation	Noted by
Closed	have a short, fixed answer, for example "What day is it today?"	Barnes (1969)
Open	typically require a longer, less limited response, for example "What did you do yesterday?"	
Display	those to which the questioner already knows the answer and is merely testing the respondent's knowledge or understanding.	Brown (1994a: 165)
Referential	those to which the questioner does not know the answer and is genuinely seeking information.	
Procedural	relate to classroom, lesson and student control processes such as "Who is absent today?"	Richards and Lockhart(1996:186-7)
Convergent	often have short answers which "encourage similar student responses" and require low level thought processing, for example "Can you ski?"—"Yes, I can", "No, I can't".	
Divergent	necessitate more wide-ranging, longer responses with higher level thought processing for example " Why is the Beatles' music so popular in Japan?"	
Rhetorical	those which the questioner answers him/herself.	
Interaction	Comprehension: elicits assurance from the listener that a message has been received correctly.	Chaudron (1988:130-1)
	Confirmation checks: assume a positive response and "allow the speaker to correctly interpret reactions by the listener"	
	Clarification requests: similar to confirmation requests but with a more open answer.	
Instructional	Any question presented in the classroom. Presupposes that the question is intended to solicit learner production.	Van Lier(1988:223)
Conversational	Any question asked outside the classroom.	

Display refers to questions for which the teacher knows the answer and which demand a single or short response of the low-level thinking kind. Referential questions, by contrast, demand more thought and generate longer responses and for which the teacher does not know the answer in advance. Richards and Lockhart (Richards and Lockhart, 1996:185-187) divide questions into three useful categories: procedural related to classroom procedures such as "Do you know what to do?"; convergent, which requests a short answer around a specific theme such as "Do kids help out with the housework?"; divergent questions, the last, are like referential questions as in "Sally, what do you think?". Their categories differ from the simple display/referential variety in that convergent questions include those to which a teacher may not know the answer but which narrow the range of possible responses, most notably closed questions demanding a yes or no answer.

B. Modifying Strategies

Among others, Krashen (1982a: 33) quoted in Larsen-Freeman and Long (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:224) has coined the term *comprehensible input* and teachers often modify their speech on the assumption that this enhances comprehensibility. Chaudron (Chaudron, 1988: 55) argues that this heightened comprehensibility maintains communication. After that, other writers, such as Nunan (Nunan, 1991:134-9), Richards and Lockhart (Richards and Lockhart, 1994:182-4) and Larsen-Freeman and Long (Larsen-Freeman and Long, 1991:134-9) have based their own discussions on Chaudron's analysis. The chief work available which reviews and collates research on modification techniques is Chaudron (Chaudron, 1988: 54-86), who gives a taxonomy of modification techniques , including modified pronunciation, pauses, repetition ,rate of speech and so on.

But use of different measures or methods has often led to contradictory findings on the efficacy of modifications. For example, it is unclear whether modified length of utterance aids comprehension because utterances have been variously measured as words per utterance, sentence or T-unit (Holland and Shortall, 1997: 68 and Chaudron, 1988:73).

Research on repetition and rephrasing, the most commonly employed modifications (Chaudron, 1988:127), also appears to give little consensus. The former was found to aid immediate recall (Cervantes, 1983, cited from Chaudron, 1988:156), though immediate recall may not equate to comprehension. There are also doubts as to the efficacy of the

latter (Chaudron, 1988: 128). Chaudron (Chaudron, 1988: 157) concludes from his analysis that: Although more research is clearly called for, with more explicit tests of syntactic complexity in L2 listening comprehension, the current results do not look promising. The other factors involved in simplification of input, namely, elaborations by the way of redundancy - restatements, repetition, synonyms, and so on - need to be more extensively examined.

Wait-time is a type of pause in the teacher's discourse and research has found that increased wait-time can be beneficial. Firstly, learners have more time to process the question and to formulate a response (Chaudron, 1988:128). Secondly, more learners attempt to respond (Richards and Lockhart, 1996: 188). Also, "the length and complexity of the response increases" (Holley and King, 1971, cited from Nunan, 1991: 193).

III. DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

A. Data Collection

The data were collected in three college English intensive reading classes of non-English majors in Qingdao University of Science and Technology where the college English teaching and learning has always been the center of attention because of college English test Band 4. As a teacher of college English, the study of college English classroom questioning is of great interest to me in that I want to know what really goes on in our own classrooms and what I can do to improve college English teaching and learning.

The three classes which were observed and recorded from September to November were band 1 college English classes from different departments with about sixty students in each one. The majority of the students have studied English for 6 years although there is considerable difference in level because they came from different places with different level of English teaching. The three teachers in these classes had 5-6 years of teaching experience. The text book used was "New Horizon College English (I)" which is designed to train students' listening, speaking, reading, writing, translating ability with the reading ability as a priority. So the classes chosen here are all intensive reading classes.

Nunan (Nunan, 1989:76) said "there is no substitute for direct observation as a way of finding out about language classrooms", therefore in this study, the author came into the classroom personally to observe. The observation was conducted in six classes; about 5 hours (50 minutes for each class) were observed and recorded, 3 of which were transcribed and used for analysis, then allowing as many patterns of behavior and inconsistencies as possible to emerge. After class, the author had an interview with the students, knowing more about their ideas and feeling about their teacher and class. Consequently, in order to collect quantitative and qualitative data needed for the analysis, the method employed was that of ethnographic research, and audio recording and field notes were applied as well.

B. Data Analysis and Discussion

1 Analysis of types of questions

According to the taxonomy of question types mentioned above, questions were counted and multiple-coded. For example, "who is absent today" can be both procedural and referential. In addition, in one of the classes I observed, the teacher had one to one practice at the beginning of the class, so data for teacher's behavior during instruction and practice are presented separately to maximize the data's indicative power.

1.1 Results

The result of the data analysis is shown in Tables 2-6

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY AND ALLOCATION OF QUESTION TYPES IN CLASS ONE DURING INSTRUCTION

Question type	Frequency of use	Equivalent percentage
Open		
Closed	7	15.56%
Display	13	28.89%
Referential	6	13.33%
Convergent	18	40%
Divergent		
Rhetorical		
Procedural	1	2.22%
Interaction		

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY AND ALLOCATION OF QUESTION TYPES IN CLASS TWO DURING INSTRUCTION

Question type	Frequency of use	Equivalent percentage
Open	1	3.45%
Closed	5	17.24%
Display	8	27.59%
Referential	5	17.24%
Convergent	9	31.03%
Divergent	1	3.45%
Rhetorical		
Procedural		
Interaction		

TABLE 4
FREQUENCY AND ALLOCATION OF QUESTION TYPES IN CLASS THREE DURING INSTRUCTION

Question type	Frequency of use	Equivalent percentage
Open		
Closed	8	17.02%
Display	15	31.93%
Referential	4	8.52%
Convergent	20	42.55%
Divergent		
Rhetorical		
Procedural		
Interaction		

TABLE 5
FREQUENCY AND ALLOCATION OF QUESTION TYPES IN CLASS TWO DURING PRACTICE

Question type	To individual student					percentage
	No.1	No.2	No.3	No.4	No.5	
Open						
Closed						
Display		1	1	1		13.64%
Referential	2	1	1	2	2	36.36%
Convergent	1	2	3	2	3	50%
Divergent						
Rhetorical						
Procedural						
Interaction						

TABLE 6
TARGET OF TEACHER'S QUESTIONING

	Whole class	Individual		Total
		Volunteer	Roll call	
Class one	71.05%	0	28.95%	100%
Class two	85.7%	0	14.3%	100%
Class three	82.11%	0	17.89%	100%

(excluding one to one practice phase in class two)

1.2 Discussion

The above tables show that during instruction teachers used procedural, open, closed, display, convergent and referential questions. Appendix A gives examples of procedural, convergent use (Lines 1, 10 and 12 respectively). Lines 30 and 44 exemplify questions which are both closed and display because there is only one correct response and at the same time the teacher knew the answers. Several such questions appear, but in line with Chaudron (Chaudron, 1988: 173) generated only the briefest and simplest of possible responses, sometimes even no response, of which those seen in lines 31, 45 are highly typical.

Referential questions also account for certain percentage even if lower. Although referential questions may encourage students to try harder to respond (Nunan, 1989:30), counter to Chaudron (Chaudron, 1988:127), this additional effort does not necessarily lead to higher quality communication if the question is also convergent in appearance, yielding highly similar, brief, relatively undemanding responses, which can be seen in the following example:

(the teacher in class three is explaining the text)

T: In paragraph 2, there is "internet purchase supplier". Could you translate?

PP: (silence)

T: It means "wang shang gong huo shang (Chinese)". Ok, Do you think it's convenient to shop online?

PP: Yes.

T: Do you often shop online? (pause) Do you often shop online? Huangwei(Chinese name)

P1: No, I don't.

T: Yes, No, I don't shop online. Do you often shop online? And Huangwei(Chinese name) answered "No, I don't.". Please answer the same question. Do you often shop online?

Xiao shengzhuan(Chinese name)

P2: No, I don't.

T: No, I don't. The same answer. Couldn't you tell us more?

Obviously, the question "Do you often shop online?" is a convergent question in appearance, but in nature, it is also a referential question. The teacher attempted to generate more language from the student, but he failed.

This finding also illustrates how the multiple coding of questions can provide additional information and may be a useful tool in future research.

We have noticed that students are not active in responding to the teacher. Why students minimize responses when they may be capable of lexically or syntactically more complex answers (for example, "No, I don't shop online. I usually go shopping in the market.) is unclear. One clue came from the stimulated response interview (Appendix C) with the students which revealed their desire to provide responses using as much acquired language (presumably lexical and syntactic) as possible. They conceded however that this was not always possible due to a perceived time pressure and the desire to maintain the flow of communication.

In conclusion, the overwhelming frequency of convergent and display questions shown in tables 2-5 and the great amount of closed questions among them is remarkable. The numbers suggest teachers' questioning strategies are less "natural", and demand lower-level thinking and provide less comprehensible input to students than divergent questions would have. It can also be inferred that the teacher exercises a strong control over what and how much is being said.

But we also noticed in table6 that in one to one practice, type range narrowed exclusively to display, referential and convergent questions, such as "Could you explain in English " and " When are you often cautious?" (Appendix B). The fact that more referential and convergent questions appear during the practice phase compared with more display and closed questioned during instruction is unexpected, but it is still comprehensible. The difference may be largely accounted for by the questions' purpose. During the instructional phase questions were used to warm-up and to teach and check learners' understanding of the linguistic items they would need to complete the practice successfully. A systematic sequence of short answer questions could achieve this goal relatively quickly and effectively and the teacher perceived no need to enter into extended discourse to achieve it.

Conversely, questions during practice mimicked those of a communicative drama. Maybe the teacher believes Thornbury's (Thornbury, 1996: 281) proposal that referential questions dominate "real-life" situations.

This teacher is attempting to fulfill two apparently mutually exclusive objectives, namely:

- a) the need to teach the prescribed materials in preparation for written exams and
- b) a desire to create 'realistic' situations in which students can practice speaking.

The implication here is that when selecting the range and differential use of questions, teachers may need to compromise their personally held beliefs regarding language use with the objectives of the EF program.

In terms of target of teacher's questioning, as can be seen from Table6, whole class activities dominated in all these three classes. Choral response was a fairly frequent event in the classroom perhaps for the reason that all these three classes were large classes of about 60 students in which it was impossible for all the students to have an opportunity to speak in public. Thus teachers tended to ask the whole class to answer them together. When questioning was directed against individual students, they almost always kept silent, unwilling to respond to the teacher. Sometimes teachers gave answers by themselves; if teachers insisted on getting students' answers, then roll call was needed. We have also noticed that during the instruction, display and convergent questions dominated, even if there existed referential questions, they are not absolutely genuine questions which really seek information, because teachers mostly aimed at eliciting language from students, therefore in most cases answers are easy to find if students can devote themselves to the class, which can be shown by the fact that most of nominated students could give correct answers. As a result, the passive and unwilling phenomenon is probably because students' negative attitude toward speaking English in front of others due to the fear of making mistakes. From this point, teachers should take effective measures to encourage students and relax them, solving their psychological problem, then more interaction between teachers and students may appear in EFL classrooms.

2 Analysis of Teachers' Modification Technique

2.1 Results

According to the taxonomy of modification techniques mentioned above, data collected were analyzed. But one technique not classified is perhaps the most obvious: translation of speech into L1, which is also studied here. The result is shown in the following tables.

TABLE7
FREQUENCY OF QUESTION REPETITIONS DURING INSTRUCTION

	Frequency of repetition	Total numbers of questions	percentage
Class one	2	38	5.26%
Class two	3	23	13.04%
Class three	3	39	7.69%
Mean frequency of repetition			8.66%

TABLE 8
FREQUENCY OF QUESTION REPETITIONS DURING PRACTICE IN CLASS TWO

Frequency of repetition	Total	percentage
2	21	9.52%

TABLE 9
CODE SWITCHING DURING INSTRUCTION IN CLASS ONE

Domain	Frequency of use	percentage
Code switching for questions	2	5.26%
Code switching for other discourse	14	

TABLE 10
CODE SWITCHING DURING INSTRUCTION IN CLASS TWO

Domain	Frequency of use	percentage
Code switching for questions	3	13.04%
Code switching for other discourse	9	

TABLE 11
CODE SWITCHING DURING INSTRUCTION IN CLASS THREE

Domain	Frequency of use	percentage
Code switching for questions	3	7.69%
Code switching for other discourse	13	

TABLE 12
CODE SWITCHING DURING PRACTICE IN CLASS TWO

Domain	Frequency of use	percentage
Code switching for questions	1	4.76%
Code switching for other discourse	2	

TABLE 13
MEAN WAIT-TIME FOR QUESTIONS DURING INSTRUCTION

	Wait-time in raw data(seconds)	Mean wait-time
Class one	0,3,0,4,3,5,7,0,5,6,4,0,2,2,2,4,6,4,5,3,2,5, 2,4,0,0,4,3,0,3,0,5,2,2,2,3,2,4	2.71
Class two	5,4,4,7,3,3,0,4,0,2,0,3,5,3,4,2,0,3,2,5,3,2,2	2.86
Class three	4,2,2,4,5,0,2,2,4,3,6,2,2,6,2,4,5,4,3,2,2,0,4, 3,3,5,5,3,0,2,3,5,2,0,4,3,3,2,0	2.84

TABLE 14
MEAN WAIT-TIME FOR QUESTIONS DURING PRACTICE

	Wait-time in raw data(seconds)	Mean wait-time
Class two	0,2,4,2,2,4,2,4,0,2,3,0,5,0,2,3,3,2,2,4,5	2.43

2.2 Discussion

As can be seen in the above tables, techniques employed during both instruction and practice included repetition, code switching and pauses. During instruction, the mean frequency of repetition makes up 8.66%, while 9.52% during practice. The copious repetitions of “Do you often shop online?” were intended not only to increase comprehensibility but also to maximize the opportunities for students to produce English. With only 8.66% of questions being repeated, this was counter to Chaudron’s result of research (Chaudron, 1988:127) “predominant modification technique”. This was probably because (a) most of questions are very easy to understand, so it is unnecessary to repeat; (b) there is much work to do in class, and the teacher wants to save more time to complete the task.

A point of interest here is that the teacher also repeated very easy questions, such as “what does ‘enhance’ mean?”. This may have been a way of attracting students’ attention or a way of avoiding unwanted silence in classroom.

Code switching for questions during instruction is another modification technique, although its percentage is low, making up only 8.66% on average. In addition, as shown in tables 9-11 code switching for general utterance appears more frequent than that for questions (2 times in class one, 3 times in class two, 3 times in class three), with 14 times in class one, 9 times in class two and 13 times in class three. Obviously, by using code switching, teachers want to make sure that students understand his utterances, e.g. Do you know it’s antonym? Fan yi ci(Chinese)? “make cold” shi bian leng, leng cang(Chinese) etc.(Appendix A). It’s true that teacher’s translation of so many utterances into Chinese certainly aids comprehension, but at what cost? A disadvantage is that it seems to sanction use of L1 from students (Bruck and Schultz, 1977, cited from Chaudron, 1988:172 and Zilm, 1989, cited from Nunan,1991: 190), lines 30 and 31 in Appendix A being a case in point. The student replied in Chinese, even though they were almost certainly capable of the English equivalent. The implication for teachers is that they should attempt to maximize input in the target language wherever possible.

Code switching was less evident during practice, appearing only once for questions and twice for general utterances. The lower percentage (4.76%) is perhaps because all the required elements had been thoroughly drilled and students could understand almost all items the teacher planned to review and check.

Wait-times shown in tables 13-14 illustrate teachers' intention to give students more processing time for more difficult questions, for example, the question "could you express in English?"(Appendix A) waited for six seconds. But such long wait-time is very few as shown in tables 13-14, with 2.71 seconds in class one, 2.86 seconds in class two, 2.84 seconds in class three and 2.43 seconds during practice. Obviously, wait-times in these classes observed were shorter than in other teaching contexts (Holley and King proposed 5 seconds or more (Chaudron, 1988: 128)). The reason for this is perhaps that (a) teachers need more time to finish their large amount of planned work keeping pace with teaching plan.(b) just as we mentioned above, most of students were inactive when needed to speak English in front of their classmates, even if extended wait-time couldn't encourage greater learner production, which is in line with Holley and King (Chaudron,1988).Lines 20-22 in Appendix A is a case in point. The teacher's question "what does the sentence mean?" should be easy to answer for most of students, because the sentence "people applauded lively for the president's speech" is not difficult with the word "applaud" in the new word list. But five seconds later, students still kept silent. Since teachers knew their students well, long wait-time is unnecessary, and shorter wait-time in this study is then understandable. Nevertheless, one of our teaching purposes is to improve students' spoken English. Therefore in our English classrooms teachers should surmount difficulties and take effective measures, trying their best to activate students into communication instead of conniving at their keeping silent.

In a word, three types of modification techniques were employed here. The utilization of a narrow range of relatively simple modification is no indicator as to the teachers' ability in this area but may be a selective use from a larger scope of skills.

IV. INSPIRATION FROM THE PRESENT STUDY

Based on the study above, the following strategies are suggested for the college English teachers to refer to for the purpose of sustaining student engagement and communicative interaction in classrooms:

1) Asking "referential" questions and giving "positive" feedback.

The study result tells that referential questions accounted for only about 13.03% on average, showing teachers requested much more pseudo information (86.97%) than genuine information (13.03%) in asking questions, and it indicates that the communication between teacher and students was more of the pseudo-communication instead of real communication. Therefore, teachers should intentionally resort more to "referential questions" in which students have the opportunity of giving more information and talking more.

2) Maximize opportunities for students' participation

The above data analysis tells us it was the teacher who was dominating the classroom. The teacher did the most talk and controlled the topic. In this way the students were passive---they answered questions and got information passively from the teacher. The teacher should bear in mind that it is students who are learning language; therefore maximizing opportunities for students' participation to let them dominate the classroom is very necessary and important. Such target can be reached by such activities as role-play, story telling, debating, holding seminars and making presentations etc. In a word, enlarging students' portion in classroom and letting the learners dominate their own classroom, with the teachers only playing the role of a guide and an organizer is a challenging but beneficial aim, which is also the direction to which teachers in college English classrooms are working.

As a college English teacher, you can refer to these strategies to activate more students into communicative teaching activities in classrooms for the purpose of improving college English teaching and learning.

APPENDIX A

(The lesson in class one has just started and the teacher is taking the register)

I 1 T: Monitor, who is absent today?

R 2 P1: Zhangming.

I 3 T: Do you know the reason?

R 4 P1: Yes,他病了, 这是他的假条。

.....

I 10 T: Look at the second line in the first paragraph. Have you found the word "chill"?

R 11 PP: Yes.

I 12 T: Obviously, "chill" here is a verb, meaning "make cold",使变冷, 冷藏。For example, "chill the fruit plate before eating" Could you please translate?

13 PP: (silence)

.....

F 20 T: Ok, next paragraph. The word "applaud", for example "people applauded lively for the President's speech" [the teacher turned back and wrote it down on the blackboard]

I What does the sentence mean?

21 PP: (silence)

Ib 22 T: 张芳

.....

I 30 T: And also there is the word “remark”. What is its noun form?

Ib 它的名词形式是.....

R 31 PP: 原形.

Ib 40 T: Sorry, I can't. 刘沛, what about you?

APPENDIX B

(The lesson in class two has just started)

1 T: Ok, class begins. Last class, we finished learning Section A. Have you finished exercises in this passage?

2 PP: Yes.

3 T: Ok, good! Let's check to see how well you have done. Number one, in the first line in paragraph one, the word “cautious”, 赵满, what does it mean?

4 P1: 小心的

5 T: Yes, 小心的, 谨慎的. When are you often cautious?

6 P1: (silence)

7 T: When are you often cautious?

8 P1: When I walked in the street at night.

9 T: Good. You mean “When you walked in the street at night, you are cautious”. The second one, “portly”, could you find its synonym? 同义词? 杨凤英

10 P2: fat

11 T: Yes, fat. Do you like to be a portly girl?

12 P2: No, I don't. (laughter)

13 T: Why not?

14 P2: eh...

15 T: Certainly you want to be slim; you want to look pretty. Right?

16 P2: Right! (laughter)

17 T: Ok, Let's go on, the sentence “contriving as I did so to toss my keys”, 李永亮, “contriving to toss”, do you know its meaning?

18 P3: 努力扔掉

19 T: Good. 努力扔掉. Could you explain in English?

20 P3: manage to do; try to do

21 T: Good. You did well. But I'm sure you know the difference between “manage to do” and “try to do”. Right?

22 P3: Right, “manage to do”

23 T: Ok, That's right. Before our final exam, what do you plan to contrive to do? Especially with many new words in this book?

24 PP: (silence)

25 T: You should contrive to remember as many new words and phrases as possible. Do you think so?

26 PP: Yes!

T: That's true. Large vocabulary is very important for you, especially in the first year. Ok, next. “as if attached to unseen wires”, 孟雪梅, could you translate the sentence?

27 P4: 好像接在看不见的电线上.

T: Good. “be attached to”, “接在.....上”. Do you think it has other meaning?

28 P4: “依恋.....”

29 T: Good. “依恋.....”, for example?

30 P4: He is attached to his mother.

31 T: Very good. The last one “hold dear”, can you still remember this phrase? 姜雪莲

32 P5: Yes, 珍视, 重视.

33 T: In English?

36 P5: (silence)

T: “Value”. What do you value now most?

34 P5: Eh...

35 T: Do you think we should hold dear our present life?

36 P5: Yes. We should because peace is important to us.

37 T: Very good. Ok, next, Let's talk about Reading Skills in Section B.

APPENDIX C

(The interview was made in Chinese in the classroom. Later it was transcribed in English)

1 T: I was interested in the answers you gave in the class. Many students use very short answers, for example, the question “Do you often shop online?”, most of you answered “No, I don’t”. Can you give longer answers than that? Because it is not very difficult for you.

2 P1: I think I can use more English. I’d like to use more English but normally we use short answers, so I don’t like to give my opinion.

3 T: Ok, thank you. How about you?

4 P2: I think we can’t take so much time. The teacher is very busy and has lots to teach.

5 T: All right, What about you? Could you give more information when you answer a question?

6 P3: I think sometimes I can use more English but it would take longer. And I fear making mistakes because the more I speak, the less fluently I can speak. I feel embarrassed when I make mistakes.

7 T: How about you?

8 P4: I think so too.

9 T: Could you give me a longer answer now? Do you often shop online?

10 P4:[The student smiles and pauses for thought and replies in English]No, I don’t. I usually go to shops.

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He is “of Two Minds about it”—A Brief Comment on *Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening*

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Abstract—*Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening* is one of the most popular poems of Robert Frost. In this poem, in vivid description and beautiful language, the poet made the persona in a kind of dilemma between beauty (“*The woods are lovely, dark and deep*”) and obligation “*But I have promises to keep,*” which is a conflict between the enjoyment of beauty and the practical pressures of everyday for everybody. That partly explains why people like this poem so much.

Index Terms— persona, beauty, ambivalent

Robert Frost (1874-1963)---a poet of dignity, simplicity, and ambiguity---has proved to be one of the most popular American poets of the 20th century. A four time winner of the Pulitzer Prize, Frost received special recognition by Congress in 1960 and the following January, at age 86, had the honor of reciting at President John F. Kennedy’s inauguration.

At the outbreak of World War I, Frost went back to farming in New Hampshire. Thereafter, although he made many journeys and frequent visits elsewhere, he considered the farm his home and its activities remained the focus of his poetry.

Frost’s verse became part of a great tradition, shaped by Roman poet Vergil, of what is called bucolic poetry---poetry about farming. However, though he used farm situation in much of his poetry, he gave them a wide application. He might write about stepping on a rake and describe the feeling when it hit him, but he used the incident to show how life gives us bruises. Just as he wrote in the preface of his “Collected Poems”, a poem should “begin in delight, and ends in wisdom.” The following is a good example:

Stopping by Woods on a Snowy Evening

*Whose woods these are I think I know.
His house is in the village though;
He will not see me stopping here
To watch his woods fill up with snow.*

*My little horse must think it queer
To stop without a farmhouse near
Between the woods and frozen lake
The darkest evening of the year.*

*He gives his harness bells a shake
To ask if there is some mistake.
The only other sound’s the sweep
Of easy wind and downy flake.*

*The woods are lovely, dark and deep,
But I have promises to keep,
And miles to go before I sleep,
And miles to go before I sleep.*

This is one of the most popular among Frost’s popular poems. In the poem the persona who stopped by woods on a snowy evening and his feeling at the moment are vividly described. The horse felt puzzled when stopped at the moment, but he didn’t know it was the beauty and darkness of the woods that attracted the master. The persona (or the “I” of the poem) cherished a deep love for nature, and when surrounded by nature, he felt perfectly contented. Probably he longed to die there, being lost in the bosom of nature. Thinking of the promises to keep, he felt obliged to go, to cover the long

distance lies before him.

But if the reader believes that all this poem “says” is all the above, and nothing more, he will surely miss some of the power of the poem. In a poetry class, he might be asked, for example, what the owner of the house, the horse, and the promises contribute to the poem. The discussion of the poem that followed such questions would be sure to astound him. First of all, the reader might try to establish why the persona stopped; in abstract terms it could only be to enjoy the beauty of the scene (“*The woods are lovely, dark and deep*”). There might be the suggestion that this is a special kind of beauty—the transformation of the familiar—which would explain the persona’s mentioning that he knew, or thought he knew, the owner. Why is it important that the owner will not see the persona watching the woods fill up with snow? Surely he would not object merely on the grounds of trespassing. Perhaps because the owner, like the horse, would “*think it queer*” for someone to sit out in the cold and watch the snow. And that brings up the horse. He is the practical one; there is no sense to stopping far from a farmhouse on a cold dark night; his “protest”—the jangling harness bells—is the only sound interrupting the soft silence of the scene. Then there is another interruption—the recollection of the promises, the obligations, probably, of everyday affairs—and the practical recognition of the miles there are yet to go. So the “meaning” of the poem somehow involves a conflict between the enjoyment of beauty and the practical pressures of everyday life. But someone at this point would be bound to bring up the last clause, “*before I sleep*”, and that forces a re-examination of the abstraction “beauty”. It is obvious that the persona is not speaking about beauty in general, but about this particular kind of experience: the woods are not only “*lovely*” but “*dark and deep*.” (This is the kind of distinction we had in mind before when said that poetry was concrete and “ideas” abstract, so that poems could not be reduced to ideas.) There is a definite suggestion in the poem that “sleep” is somehow allied to this experience in the woods. It offers, of course, an escape also from everyday pressures, but there seems to be an even more complete identification (remember “*dark and deep*”), so that the beauty of this moment and the beauty of sleep are united. (Someone is even likely to say this is suggested in the sleepy repetition of the next to the last line.)

Is that all the poem about? Shall we stop our analysis here? If yes, we might still feel unsatisfied. Frost himself used to define poetry as what gets left out in a translation and I quite agree with him on the point that poetry is something more than a summary, a paraphrase, a translation. Much more. So let’s have a closer look and see if we can find something more in (and between) the lines.

In the first line—“*Whose woods these are I think I know.*”—Frost turns normal word order around. Ordinary word order would have us say something like “I think I know whose woods these are.” By moving woods to the start of the sentence, Frost gives it more prominence or power. In the second line, “*His house is in the village though;*” the last word makes no logical sense on the surface meaning because “*though*” should make some contradiction to the statement before. So *though* here qualifies something left out. As the stanza ends we learn something besides the speaker’s embarrassment; we learn his motive for stopping: “*To watch his woods fill up with snow.*” Frost’s language here is plain. Saying *fill up* contributes to the image made by the poet; his woods becomes a container which *snow* can fill.

In the second stanza, picking up the *here* rhyme, tell us that the *little* horse must think it queer. Consider the word *must* in the line. We only claim that something must be true if we don’t know it for certain. When Frost writes “*My little horse must think it queer;*” he uses the doubtful *must* because he knows a human cannot mindread his horse. The persona attributes doubts to his horse because he himself believes it weird or eccentric to stop one’s horse for no good reason out in the middle of nowhere to watch snow falling in the darkness. This man’s uneasiness shows in his self-mockery: even his horse *must* think he’s crazy. As the stanza continues, the poet gives us more information in images that carry feeling. The road, we learn, passes between *the woods* and the *frozen lake*. Sometimes an image informs us by what it omits. While frozen adds cold to the poem, the line also increases the solitude of the scene: the lane runs between wood and lake only, no houses or factories here, no inns or filling stations, just these cold and natural things, on “*The darkest evening of the year.*”

In the third stanza, the little horse does what horses do; he shudders or shakes, standing still in the cold night, and to the driver who still feels foolish pausing to gaze at snow in the woods, the horse’s jingling harness bells seem like the horse’s reproach. The jingling is another image—so far we’ve had images of sight (to watch), of touch (frozen lake), and of sound (bells)—and now the sound image multiplies: “*the sweep/ Of easy wind and downy flake.*” Notice that images often appeal to more than one sense. If frozen is an image of cold in frozen lake, it is an image of sight also, because we know what a frozen lake looks like. And the sweep is a swooshing sound, but it’s also a visual broom moving. By the end of the third stanza the poem has created a dramatic conflict, like a story or a play. The conflict lives in the mind of the speaker, who attributes one side of his feeling to his horse; of course, it is the persona who thinks it queer to pause where he pauses; at the same time it is the speaker who stops to gaze into the *lovely* beauty of the wood, exercising the other side of his feeling. According to an old saying, he is “of two minds about it.” In the final stanza, mind 1 writes the first line and mind 2 answers with the second, third and fourth; the mind with the most lines has the last word.

In our daily life, we are often ambivalent --- of two minds, sometimes of three or more--- about what we do. Often two desires are in conflict; the woods are lovely, but I have duties; the scoop of ice cream will taste good, but I will get fat; I want to see this movie, but I want to pass the test. Human beings are ambivalent by nature: we often find ourselves headed in two directions at the same time. In our deepest selves we are never one-hundred percent of anything, neither loving nor hating, and if we tell ourselves we are pure, we fool ourselves. That partly explains why people like this

poem so much.

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On Some New Models of Instruction for Overcoming Fossilization in English Learning

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Abstract—This paper expounds the implication and classification of fossilization and it focuses on presenting some new models of instruction for overcoming fossilization in the course of foreign language teaching so as to provide some guidance to college English teaching and learning.

Index Terms— fossilization, foreign language teaching, model of instruction

Fossilization has been one of the obstacles in the process foreign language teaching and learning. So it is necessary for language instructors and learners to lay emphasis on this issue.

I. WHAT IS FOSSILIZATION?

Fossilization, or the cessation of learning, which was coined by Selinker(1972), is recognized as a widespread phenomenon in second language acquisition for linguists and language learners have been aware that that it is extremely rare for the learner of a L2 to achieve full native-like competence.

“Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules and subsystems which speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep in their interlanguage relative to a particular target language, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the target language” (Selinker,1972). Later Selinker (1996) defined fossilization as “the process whereby the learner creates a cessation of interlanguage learning, thus stopping the interlanguage from developing, it is hypothesized, in a permanent way....”

Ellis (1985: 48) regarded fossilized structures as errors or as correct target language forms. He believes: “If, when fossilization occurs, the learner has reached a stage of development in which feature X in his interlanguage has assumed the same form as in the target language, then fossilization of the correct form will occur. If, however, the learner has reached a stage in which feature Y still does not have the same form as the target language, the fossilization will manifest itself as error.”

Zhao Hong-Han (2003: 99) analyzes fossilization from both cognitive and empirical levels: fossilization involves those cognitive processes, or underlying mechanisms that produce permanently stabilized interlanguage form; fossilization involves those stabilized interlanguage forms that remain in learner speech or writing over time, no matter what the input or what the learner does.

Brown holds the view that “... adults who achieve nonlinguistic means of coping in the foreign culture will pass through Stage 3 (of acculturation) and into stage 4 (adaptation / assimilation) with an undue number of fossilized forms of language, never achieving mastery.” (Brown, 1994: 180-1).

Brown’s definition of fossilization differs from that of Selinker and Ellis as he sees it as a reversible condition. He uses the metaphor of “cryogenation”; the process of freezing matter at very low temperatures; to depict the reversibility of fossilization. His concept of how fossilization may be reversed centers around Vigil and Oller’s (1976) ‘account of fossilization as a factor of positive and negative affective and cognitive feedback’ (Brown, 1994: 217). Brown’s summation of Vigil and Oller’s model is that fossilization may be overcome if the learner is given the necessary positive affective feedback, meant to encourage further attempts at communication, together with neutral or negative cognitive feedback which, Brown (1994: 218) states would:

...encourage learners to “try again”, to restate, to reformulate or to draw a different hypothesis about a rule.

Brown also points out, however, that Vigil and Oller’s model has been criticized for its reliance on extrinsic feedback and for not taking account of learners’ internal factors.

It can be seen that different researchers interpret the term fossilization from different perspectives. Fossilization is interpreted as a process, a cognitive mechanism, or as a result of learning. And it is necessary to find approaches to overcoming fossilization so as to help language learners achieve native-like proficiency in the process of language learning.

II. THE CLASSIFICATION OF FOSSILIZATION

According to Selinker, fossilization can be divided into two broad categories, namely, individual fossilization and group fossilization. Individual fossilization can be shown from two aspects. One is error reappearance in which certain errors that have been considered as corrected and ruled out occur repeatedly. The other is language competence

fossilization, that is, the fossilization of interlanguage in speech sounds, syntactic structures and vocabulary. Group fossilization refers to the emergence of a new dialect when the fossilized language competence tend to be universal and becomes a normal phenomenon of a society, such as Hinglish.

And fossilization can also be categorized as temporary fossilization and permanent fossilization on the basis of its nature. This distinction has immense significance in China's foreign language teaching for fossilization among Chinese foreign language learners, especially among non-English majors, goes to the first category, that is, temporary fossilization. So it is probable for such language learners to achieve greater proficiency if they can get access to optimal input (Krashen,1982) or can be exposed to natural target language environment.

The author of this thesis will come up with some models of instruction for overcoming fossilization in the course of foreign language teaching on the basis of the above-mentioned points.

III. SOME NEW MODELS OF INSTRUCTION FOR OVERCOMING FOSSILIZATION IN THE COURES OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING

There are five curriculum processes in the implementation of foreign language teaching, including needs analysis, curriculum design, material development, classroom instruction, and course evaluation. The author of this thesis presents a unique pattern of foreign language classroom teaching to overcome fossilization existing among students in terms of speech sounds, grammar and pragmatic sense on the basis of his own study. The pattern encompasses five operational aspects.

First, conducting needs analysis among the language learners. To understand the needs of students can be regarded as the primary task of the research of subjects in learning and as one of the fundamental starting points in the study of teaching strategies in College English. It can serve both the language instructors and the language learners. Knowing the needs of the language learners may enable language instructors to select appropriate teaching materials, to adopt corresponding teaching strategies and to make other relevant preparations. Language learners can have definite goals after they know their own needs and they can study with certain purposes so as to enhance their own autonomy of learning English.

Second, testing the language learners' proficiency of the target language. Proficiency tests may comprise speech sounds, syntax, pragmatics, and several other aspects. The main purpose of proficiency tests is to know the level of the learners, especially, their present problems in language learning. Language instructors may have clear targets in teaching and guiding language learners.

Third, fostering a positive learning attitude in language learner. In recent years, an increasing number of foreign language teaching studies have shown that the role of learner's emotional factors in foreign language learning can not be ignored. The emotional state of language learner's may directly affect the learner's learning behavior and the results. The positive attitude of language learners can be conducive to their learning, while the negative attitude of language learners may affect their learning potential. The majority of educators and experts reach the agreement that it is quite necessary for language instructors to motivate language learners in their inner steady impetus. Language learners may make steady progress if they learn a foreign language with positive attitude which is also beneficial for them to overcome fossilization in English learning.

Fourth, cultivating language learners learning strategies. Chamot(1987): Learning strategies are techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning, recall of both linguistic and content area information. It is the combination of attitude, style, approaches and techniques preferred and habitually employed by language learners. Learning strategies can be internal system of rules and external procedures and steps, and they can be certain conscious or unconscious actions. Learning strategies can be roughly classified into five categories depending on the level or type of processing involved: metacognitive, cognitive, social/affective, communication and resources strategies.

Studies show that successful language learners are those who can take advantage of learning strategies successfully. Thus more and more importance has been attached to the research of learning strategies in terms of foreign language learning. And it is crucial for language learners to learn to select certain strategies in their own study to overcome fossilization and make new progress.

Learning strategies can be instructed directly or indirectly from four aspects to improve students' language learning, that is, the students' meta-cognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, affective strategies and resources strategies. Different ways should be adopted for various individuals in terms of the development of English language learning strategies.

Fifth, developing language competence and pragmatic strategies among language learners. From the perspective of developing learners' language competence, learners are supposed to learn new knowledge of the target language without stopping. In order to cultivate learners pragmatic strategies, cultural knowledge of the target language should be introduced to enable learners to know the different ways of expressions in Chinese and English. And at the same time, certain communicative strategies and skills should be instructed in oral English teaching. Only in this way can language learners make steady progress in language learning and language use and consequently can they overcome fossilization to the largest extent.

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A Survey on English Learning Motivation of Students in Qingdao Agricultural University

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Abstract—A survey from students of both Advanced and Ordinary English classes in Qingdao Agricultural University shows that most of the students are motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. However, intrinsic motivation is more important than extrinsic motivation in contributing to English learning. There is no difference in anxiety between students in Advanced English class and in Ordinary English class and the attitude of students in Advanced English class is more proper than that of students in Ordinary English class. Therefore, they are more active in English learning than the students in Ordinary English Class are. The higher autonomous learning ability they have, the better the achievement they get.

Index Terms—motivation, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, English learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Motivation is one of the most important factors affecting foreign language learning. Spolsky (1989) said “the more motivation a learner has, the more time he or she will spend learning an aspect of a second language.” In one of the earliest statements on motivation in second language learning, Gardner defines motivation as referring to a combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitude towards learning the language.(Gardner 1985)

Williams and Burden mentioned that sometimes people do something because the act of doing it is enjoyable in itself. At other times, people are engaged in an activity not because they are particularly interested in the activity itself, but because performing it will help them to obtain something that they want. Therefore, Csikszentmihalyi and Nakamura (1989) provide a clear definition of these concepts. Very simply, when the only reason for performing an act is to gain something outside the activity itself, such as passing an exam, or obtaining financial rewards, the motivation is likely to be extrinsic. When the experience of doing something generates interest and enjoyment, and the reason for performing the activity lies within the activity itself, then the motivation is likely to be intrinsic.

Intrinsically motivated activities are ones for which there is no apparent reward except the activities itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward. Intrinsically motivated behaviors are aimed at bringing about internally rewarding consequences, namely feeling of competence and self-determination.

Extrinsically motivated behaviors, on the other hand are carried out in anticipation of a reward from outside and beyond the self. Typical extrinsic rewards are money, prizes, grades, and even certain types of positive feedback. Behaviors initiated solely to avoid punishment are also extrinsically motivated, even though numerous intrinsic benefits can ultimately accrue to those who, instead, view punishment avoidance as a challenge that can build their sense of competence and self-determination The intrinsic motivation is sometimes thought to relate to long-term success. Extrinsic motivation is thought more related to short-term success.

Many researches have different opinions about which motivation is more powerful. Maslow stated in 1970 that intrinsic motivation is obviously more powerful than extrinsic motivation. He believes that when one’s basic life, safety and social needs are secured; people make efforts to obtain self-esteem and sense of accomplishment, mindless of what rewards are.

Some researchers, most notably Susan Harter (1981), view “intrinsic” and “extrinsic” as the opposite ends of a continuum. From Harter’s studies, it is far more realistic to suggest that one form of motivation influences another, or indeed to see all the factors interacting to affect each other.

In order to know how motivations influence students’ achievement, and which motivation can contribute more to help students’ learning, the author investigates the students in Advanced English class and students in Ordinary English

class in Qingdao Agricultural University. The following are the survey and the results.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Subjects

In Qingdao Agricultural University, non-English major students are divided into two levels of English Classes---Advanced English Class and Ordinary English Class according to their English level. The achievement of students in Advanced English Class is higher than that of students in the Ordinary English Class. In order to find the reasons, an investigation was made between students from both Advanced English class and Ordinary English class. The survey was conducted on 24th September 2007. The participants are 50 students including 25 students in Advanced English Class and 25 students in Ordinary English Class.

B. Questionnaire

The English Learning Motivation Questionnaire contains 25 statements, which need to be answered “Yes” or “No”. The questionnaire is based on the English Learning Motivation Questionnaire written by Gaoyan. The purpose of the questionnaire tries to answer the following questions:

1. What type of English learning motivation do the non-English major students have in Qingdao agricultural university?

2. Is there a relation between the students’ learning motivation type and their learning achievement?

3. Is there any relevance between the students’ learning motivation type and their learning attitude?

A Food Science student helped me to distribute the questionnaire. He gave students in Advanced English class 25 papers and gave students in Ordinary English class 25 papers.

The participants were convinced that there were no right or wrong answers, and their responses had nothing to do with their English achievements. Furthermore, their responses would be handled without name.

These questions are divided into two parts. The first part is designed to investigate what type of English learning motivation. The second part is used to investigate the present situation of the students’ English learning motivation from three aspects: the students’ learning motivation, autonomous learning ability, learning anxiety and attitude.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Extrinsic Motivation

TABLE I
STATEMENT 1-5

Statement	Advanced English Class	Ordinary English Class
1. I learn English in order to pass various kinds of English tests.	12 (48%)	15 (60%)
2. I learn English in order to get the diploma.	9 (36%)	12 (48%)
3. I learn English in order to have the further two-year’s study in universities.	4 (16%)	11 (44%)
4. I learn English in order to go abroad.	1 (4%)	5 (20%)
5. I learn English in order to find a good job.	23 (92%)	19 (76%)

Table 1 is to investigate the students’ extrinsic motivation. In general, it shows that the students in Ordinary English class say more “yes” than the students in Advanced English class do. Compared to students in Advanced English class, there are more students motivated by extrinsic motivation in Ordinary English class.

As for statement 1, 48% students of Advanced English class and 60% students of Ordinary English class say ‘yes’, it shows that the purpose of more than half of students in Ordinary English class is to pass various kinds of English tests.

As for statement 2, 36% students of Advanced English class and 48% students of Ordinary English class say “yes”. It shows that less than half of the students have certificate motivation. They learn English not only for the diploma but also for the more practical purpose, such as find a good salary job.

Statement 3 indicates that most students both in Advanced English class and in Ordinary English class are not planning to take part in English–major postgraduate examination.

As for statement 4, 4% students of Advanced English class and 20% students of Ordinary English class say “yes”. This indicates that these students are very practical. In fact, not everyone can afford to go abroad. Going abroad needs a lot of money. It is a little difficult for most of the students.

As for statement 5, most students in Advanced English class and Ordinary English class say “yes”, even though the Advanced English class students’ percentage is a little higher than that of the Ordinary English class. The reasons may be analyzed as follows: with the reform and opening policy to foreign countries, our country has more frequent contract with foreign countries and the foreign company can supply us with more working post. So the foreign language talents are demanded highly. Besides, good salary and welfare stimulate students to learn English, so students are eager to learn

English well in order to find well-paid jobs.

B. Intrinsic Motivation

TABLE 2
STATEMENT 6-10

Statement	Advanced English Class	Ordinary English Class
6. I learn English because I like English.	11(44%)	9 (36%)
7. I learn English because I am interested in the culture of the English speaking countries.	8 (32%)	7 (28%)
8. I learn English because English is a world language, and I can know the world better.	18 (72%)	17(68%)
9. I learn English because I like English songs and films.	11 (44%)	10 (40%)
10. I learn English because I like the lifestyle of the English-speaking people.	3 (12%)	3 (12%)

Statement 6-10 is to investigate the intrinsic motivation. From the table Statement 6-10, it can be seen that there are more students motivated by intrinsic motivation compared to students in Ordinary English class. But less than half of the students in both Advanced and Ordinary English classes are motivated by intrinsic motivation, except for Statement 8. The reason may be analyzed as following “Firstly, in China, English is not used as a medium of daily communication. The student cannot have enough experience of communication with the native speakers or living in the English-speaking countries. Therefore, his motivation is not as high as the English majors who must learn to communicate fluently in the target language. Secondly, the non-English majors have their own major courses to learn. They can not spend all their time and energy in learning English as English majors who devote most knowledge concerning to it.” However, with the globalization, people need to communicate in order to know each other better. English is considered as an international language, as a student in the 21st century, almost every student have this consciousness. Therefore, we can find that 72% students in Advanced English class and 68% students in Ordinary English class say “yes” to Statement 8. They feel English is a world language, if they learn English well, they can know the world better.

From Table 1 and 2, it can be seen that most of the students are motivated both by intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. However, compared to students in Ordinary English class, there are more students in Advanced English class motivated by intrinsic motivation. While just as above mentioned, the achievement of students in Advanced English Class is higher than that of students in the Ordinary English Class. Therefore, it can be deduced that intrinsic motivation is more important in contributing to English learning compared to extrinsic motivation.

From the results of the survey, the author can conclude that types of motivation make difference in the students’ achievements. Compared to extrinsic motivation, intrinsic motivation is more powerful.

C. Autonomous Learning Ability

TABLE 3.
STATEMENT 11-15

Statement	Advanced English Class	Ordinary English Class
11. In English classes, I feel my time passes very slowly.	11(44%)	15 (60%)
12. After class, I seldom learn English voluntarily	12 (48%)	14 (56%)
13. when I learn I am not in the mood	5 (20%)	13 (52%)
14. I dislike spending more time learning English except finishing teachers’ assignment.	5 (20%)	12 (48%)
15. I often left it go when meeting troubles in learning English	3 (12%)	10 (40%)

Statements 11-15 are to investigate the students’ autonomous learning ability. If the students’ autonomous learning ability is too low, it refers to their learning motivation is weak.

Table 3 shows that students’ autonomous learning ability in Ordinary English class is low and his English learning motivation is too weak. However, most students in Advanced English class have high autonomous learning ability. It indicates that autonomous learning ability of the students in Advanced English class is higher than that of the students in Ordinary English class. It means that the motivation of students in Advanced English class is strong than that of students in Ordinary English class. It indicates that most students in Ordinary English class have some problems in learning autonomy. These students have trouble in taking charge of their own learning. It shows that their English learning motivation is not clear and proper. Their learning motivation is weak. If they adjust their English learning motivation properly, things will become better.

From the results of the survey, it can be concluded that the autonomous learning ability of students in Advanced English class is higher than that of students in Ordinary English class. It indicates that motivation of students in Advanced English class is stronger than that of students in Ordinary English class.

D. Learning Anxiety

TABLE 4.
STATEMENT 16-20

Statement	Advanced English Class	Ordinary English class
16. I'm always anxious about my poor English	20 (80%)	20 (80%)
17. I want to be the top student in English learning in class.	18 (72%)	21 (84%)
18. In English learning, I'm not just satisfied with finishing assignment.	15 (60%)	12 (48%)
19. In order to learn English well, I give up many favorite activities like doing sports, listening music etc.	3 (12%)	4 (16%)
20. I want to beat others in English contests.	14 (56%)	14 (56%)

Statements 16-20 are to investigate the students' anxiety in English learning. If the students' anxiety in English learning is too high, it means their learning motivation is too strong and their motivational intensity is high.

As for the statement 16, 80% of students both in Advanced English class and in Ordinary English class is anxious about their poor English. The reason may be analyzed that non-English major students are required to pass CET-4, if they failure, they cannot get the diploma in Qingdao Agricultural University.

72% of students in Advanced English class and 84% of students in Ordinary English class say "yes" to Statement 17. It indicates that most students are emulative. They desire to learn English well. But the more emulative the students have, the more anxious the students have.

In general, from the statement 16-20, there is no difference in students' anxiety in English learning for the students in Advanced English class and Ordinary English class. The conclusion is that most students in Advanced English class and Ordinary English class have high anxiety.

The relationship between anxiety and language learning is complicated. Until recently, research in the area of anxiety as it relates to second or foreign language learning has been inconclusive. However, one thing is certain that lower anxiety levels are related to successful second language learning. It seems that a student's evident manifestations of anxiety in the foreign language classroom will certainly impair the smooth performance of freer, learner-centered teaching of the target language, and simultaneously discourage the teacher to try new methods. Often there is enough evidence to show whether the students are anxious or not. If they are found to have such physical and psychological changes as fewer imitations of conversations, less participation in conversations or drill training, few instances of silence breakers, shorter speaking periods in front of an audience, distortion of sounds, and 'freezing up' when performing in communicative practice, they can be said to be experiencing pressure of anxiety. Therefore, teachers should induce in learners a relaxed and comfortable state of mind in order to maximize language learning.

From the results of the survey, learning anxiety of students both in Advanced English class and in Ordinary English class is high. However, high anxiety may affect their English learning.

E. Learning Attitude

TABLE 5.
STATEMENT 21-25

Statement	Advanced English Class	Ordinary English class
21. Although being stressed, I'm still confident in my own English learning	22 (88%)	14 (56%)
22. I'd rather like to finish all tasks in English learning.	17 (68%)	13 (52%)
23. In class, I often cooperate well with the teacher in class and after class. I have certain learning autonomy.	5 (20%)	8 (32%)
24. I'm really interested in learning English.	15 (60%)	11 (44%)
25. I have a strong desire to speak with foreigner when meet them.	11 (44%)	11 (44%)

Statements 21-25 are to investigate the students' English learning attitude. If the students' English learning attitude is not proper, it indicates their learning motivation is troubled.

The answers to statement 21 shows that students' confidence in Advanced English class is higher than that of the students in Ordinary English class is. Achievement can account for it. Achievements of students in Advanced English class are higher than that of students in Ordinary English class. Their higher achievements give their more confidence.

The answer to statement 22 indicates that the students in Advanced English class are more active than the students in Ordinary English class are. The students' efficiency in Advanced English class is higher.

As for the statement 23, less than half of students in both Advanced English class and Ordinary English class cooperate well with the teacher. Even though students' percentage in Advanced English class is lower than students' percentage in Ordinary English class.

As for the statement 24, more than half of students in Advanced English class are interested in learning English. However, less than half of students in Ordinary English class are interested in learning English. Their different motivation can account for it.

Generally speaking, Table 5 shows that the attitude of students in Advanced English class is more proper than that of students in Ordinary English class. The reasons can be related to their motivation type. Before we know the reason, we should acknowledge the relations between attitude and motivation.

Attitude and motivation related directly and closely with each other, which in turn is directly responsible for the success or failure of L2 learning. Motivation depends on attitude, to some extent, and attitude should be viewed as the motivational support, which only has an indirect impact on L2 learning. The relation of attitude to motivation is dependent upon the type of motivation.

Table 2 shows that the students in Advanced English class are more intrinsic motivation than the students in Ordinary English class are. In addition, table 5 shows attitude of the students in Advanced English class is more proper than that of the students in Ordinary English class. An intrinsic motivation can form a more positive motivation.

Many studies have suggested that attitudes toward learning a language would relate to achievement in the language learning. A study conducted by Jordan among 231 students demonstrated that attitudes toward learning a language are more relevant to achievement than attitudes toward learning many other school subjects. Studies have also indicated that attitudes toward learning a foreign language are quite probably affected by the students' previous achievement in learning the language. For instance, in China, as all the college students have had some experience of learning a foreign language by the time they enter college, their earlier success would promote positive attitudes in their college studies, therefore, in most cases, students who learn the foreign language well are those who were more successful in the language course in the middle school. There is no difficulty to see it.

As we have mentioned above, the achievement of students in advanced English class is higher than that of students in ordinary English class. When the non-English major students in Qingdao Agricultural University entered college, they are divided into two levels of class according to their English achievements. So it is easy to understand that achievement of most students in advanced English class is good in senior school.

IV. CONCLUSION

From the above analysis, the following is concluded:

(1) Compared to students in Ordinary English class, there are more students motivated by intrinsic motivation in Advanced English class. The achievement of students in Advanced English Class is higher than that of the students in Ordinary English Class. Logically, intrinsic motivation is more important than extrinsic motivation in contributing to English learning. Therefore, there is relationship between the motivation type and achievement.

(2) English achievement is concerned with autonomous learning ability. The higher autonomous learning ability is, the better the achievement is. The autonomous learning ability of students in Ordinary English is weak and their achievements are lower. So the autonomous learning ability of students in Ordinary English class needs to be enhanced.

(3) There is no difference in anxiety. Students both in Advanced English class and Ordinary English in Qingdao Agricultural University are full of anxiety.

(4) Generally speaking, the attitude of students in Advanced English class is more proper than that of students in Ordinary English class. Because of different motivation and relationship between motivation and attitude, intrinsic motivation presupposes a positive attitude towards the target language.

Based on the above theory, teachers are suggested to make the learners engaged in enhancing the students' intrinsic motivation, arousing the students' interest and curiosity, fostering learners' autonomy, building up a good teacher-student relationship.

Like all other studies, there are limitations in this study. The first one is the data collection. The number of the subjects is not big enough. The second problem is about the reliability of questionnaire. Some subjects might flatter the investigation in responding to the questionnaire or choose the opposite items on purpose. If permitted, the further research should investigate the more subjects representing the entire situation. The difference between students in Advanced English class and Ordinary English class need to be more apparent.

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Developing Language Teachers to Their Full Potential—Training and Opportunities

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Abstract—To develop language teachers' potentials, we can start from understanding and appreciating their talents which should be refined and shared among colleagues. Then cooperative development can be achieved through collaborative learning and peer observation. Training and monitoring are also needed to reinforce professional growth.

Index Terms—full potential, collaboration, training, professional development

Staff development is to bring about changes in teachers' instructional practices, students' learning outcomes and teachers' beliefs and attitudes, which requires us educational leaders to provide and facilitate as much opportunities and training as we can to develop our staff to their full potential. Actively using every valuable chance of formal and informal training programs is the first step for every staff to be their best selves.

I. KNOWLEDGE OF TEACHERS' STRENGTHS

In the same way that individual learners have different ways of learning at their best, we teachers each have our own, individual ways of being the best teacher that we can be. Each individual is unique and has distinctive talent. Therefore, the first step in developing the potential in others is to understand and appreciate these talents. Then cultivate these talents by providing inspiration, support and opportunities to teachers as they work toward refining and sharing their strengths.

A very important and effective way of helping the staff recognize their own strengths is providing opportunity for the individual to reflect or self-evaluate. This can take many forms, such as formal evaluation forms, professional portfolios, peer observation, interest group. A good evaluation form, which includes most of the important ingredients for effective teaching and professional development, will be a guide for the staff to their future grow and full play of their potential.

II. COLLABORATIVE LEARNING

Collaborative learning is designed to build collegiality among teachers to prevent isolation from one another so that they can share common problems and collective solutions. Teachers can develop collaboration relationship through interchanging with one another within the informal system of the school and college. Collaboration naturally complements autonomy. Freedom to direct one's own learning is a vital aspect of collaboration. Collegial groups must be flexible in their composition and purpose. They must form and disintegrate based on the needs of individual teachers. And it is teachers who must decide on the specifics of their collaboration.

Participation in cooperative collegial groups can expand teachers' levels of expertise by supplying a source of intellectual provocation and new ideas. A collaborative group can furnish the emotional support and encouragement teachers need to cope with the risk that is inherently involved in learning to teach well. Colleagues can demonstrate to one another that they value attempts at growth and reassure group members that the effort and pain are worth it.

A. Cooperative Development

Fortunately I had a chance to attend Julian Edge's workshops on teacher development at Macquarie University, Sydney. Co-operative Development offers an accessible but disciplined framework which teachers can use to draw on their own experience and understanding of their own situation. It is a style of interaction designed to allow two teachers to collaborate on furthering the ideas and plans of one of the pair. As such, it offers a practical way of working towards the widely accepted goal of autonomous development.

Attentive listening is the way to effective communication, to better solutions and to facilitating staff grow as well. We can encourage each other's professional development by learning to talk and listen to each other in a way that allow us to take the whole idea of evaluation (along with the exchange of comments, opinions, suggestions and advice) out of the equation altogether for an agreed period of time. This allows the person who needs sounding board the extra space in which to work on their own development in a way that facilitates the growth of their own ideas, while also encouraging an increase in collegial feeling among the language teachers involved.

B. Peer Observation

I always believe that even the finest teachers can still learn. Observing is a kind of exciting for me. As a vice-dean of the college, I greatly enjoy visiting other teachers' classrooms. Peer observation of teaching is of growing importance in higher education both for purposes of assessment and development.

Peer observation gives teachers an opportunity to learn from each other in a non-threatening environment. Observing other teachers' teaching can give us new ideas for our own teaching and illustrate techniques we might never have thought of on our own. Being observed by others from the committee and from the department also can give us ideas about how the class looks from the student's perspective, and about things we might try in order to increase the effectiveness of our teaching.

III. COACHING AND MONITORING

Teachers need training, follow-up and technical assistance provided by respected persons. They also need ongoing coaching and feedback by credible persons. Such training activities as seminars, workshops and conferences on the campus or off the campus are the most popular, in which diagnosing and prescribing, giving information and demonstrating, discussing application, practicing and giving feedback will be major parts. Apart from these formal activities, we can stimulate and reinforce teachers' professional growth through informal but focused communication and monitoring.

A. *Seed Planting*

Some positive facts or data on/off the campus can be used to introduce a new idea or concept to raise teachers' interest. For example, we can say: "I happened to be in someone's classroom the other day and I saw the most wonderful Cooperative Learning activity taking place. The students were so engaged in..." Teachers who use cooperative learning will feel reinforced and probably think I was talking about them. Teachers who have never heard of cooperative learning now at least have a seed planted regarding the terminology.

Informing teachers of all kinds of professional opportunities, such as situations, courses, lectures, books, language teachers and all manner of other things that will help them grow, through emails and announcements—providing bit of information about a program or encouraging a teacher's professional interests—are ways in which, through relatively small actions, can exert incremental influence on their teachers' development.

B. *Motivating*

Staff members will be pleased if their professional growth interest is appreciated. Disseminating professional and curriculum materials—duplicated and distributed articles, hands out curriculum materials, lend books to individual teachers and set up displays for their faculties in central locations—personal one-to-one follow-up seems to have a positive influence on teachers' responses to the activities.

Conversational inquiries soliciting teachers' opinions about a display or an article may have increased the impact of the disseminated materials by promoting teachers exposure to them. If the teachers have not read them, we can summarize some of the ideas or provide some questions. Some teachers, apparently motivated by the questions, will read the articles and then express their opinions.

C. *Encouragement*

You can never give too much encouragement. One of the key points in staff development is to convey support for the staffs in general attention as well as in informal conversation, which can guide and encourage language teachers to stretch them from their current reality towards their potential. Teachers in turn willing to experiment with new or innovative tech because they feel their dean is supportive and would not penalize them for experiments that failed. Any time when one learns something new and is excited about it, I'm really open to hearing about it, and trying it out if they want, e.g. try new textbooks. The attitude of the dean is crucial factor in the willingness of the staff to pursue new ideas and programs—opportunities for both personal and professional growth.

We are never too old to hear praise. Working very hard to find something positive as often as possible will be positive reinforcement which is a valuable tool for a change not only in the praised, but also in the others. What's more, it is also a powerful tool that can be good for the praiser, who will find it easier to help language teachers reach their full potentials. We should keep in mind that since language teachers are more pleased with compliments that are not glaringly obvious, we should praise something specific, that is, praise the language teachers for what they do, rather than what they are.

D. *Recognizing*

One way to help individual staff members to grow is to understand, appreciate and utilize their strengths. If we can recognize teachers' positive efforts with specific recognition, we can help them see specific areas of value. For example, acknowledging that a teacher did an effective job of using questioning skills during a class period that you dropped in to in informally observation can help reinforce this teaching style. At the same time, this kind of authentic praise will have impact on other teachers or can arouse their interest.

We can recognize individual teacher's achievements by publicizing teachers' successes by talking about them to parents, other teachers and other higher leaders. Also encourage teachers to seek info/assistance from successful

colleagues, which provide opportunities not only for instructional improvement, but also for increased self-esteem for the teachers whose special work was being recognized.

Most of us find ourselves in a position to help others achieve more of their potential than we realize. Sure, as leaders, we must be well qualified to help our staff reach their potential. I believe it is part of our purpose to serve others in this way—to encourage and support language teachers we care about in becoming their best selves.

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Analysis of Fictional Conversations Based on Pragmatic Adaptation

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Abstract—The present study will take pragmatic adaptation proposed by Jef Verschueren as its theoretical foundation to approach fictional conversations. According to the theory of pragmatic adaptation, every unique linguistic and extra-linguistic choice made by speakers in the process of conversation, whether consciously or not, will certainly make special stylistic effects. The pragmatic adaptation theory studying all levels of language provides a new perspective and framework to analyze the language of fictional conversations on the basis of social, cultural and cognitive contexts.

Index Terms—fictional conversations, pragmatic adaptation

I. INTRODUCTION

Fictional conversation taking language as its medium embodies the interpersonal communication in literary world which takes reality as the basis. In fictional conversation, language users or characters in fiction, like people in daily life, also have their different personalities, thoughts, psychological activities and so on. They live in the literary world, hold various professions, have their social interactions and are frequently affected by their surroundings when they are engaged in verbal communication with one another. In literary works, characters are performing the kind of speech acts that are appropriate to the specific situations with all the fictional felicity conditions as people do in naturally occurring conversations. When one reads a fiction, the speaker “I” is not usually taken as the author but as the one who lives in the created reality of the fiction. It frequently occurs to one that the differences between writing and speaking have so great impacts on the differences between written and spoken texts that many people tend to overemphasize the gap and ignore the commonness between them. But it is not the case on second thoughts. In fictional written conversations, pragmatic particles such as “you know” and “kind of”, repetition, hesitation and ungrammaticality occur frequently, which is similar to spoken conversations. Therefore, oral language and literary language are not mutually exclusive types. Therefore, the pragmatic approach to styles of fictional conversations is not only valid but also of great practical and theoretical significance. It enables analysts to approach texts as objects situated in the real world rather than as independent aesthetic artifacts. No account of literary work will be complete without an account of literary communication between fictional characters in context. A better understanding of the developmental processes of fictional plots can be obtained since the contextual elements which greatly influence plot development are fully considered. When pragmatic factors are paid due attention to, more systematic, more explicit and more convincing interpretations of the literary works as well as of the writers will be achieved. It also sheds light on the historical, cultural, social and mental states of the particular phase when the literary work was written.

Given what has been discussed above, the present study will adopt the theory of pragmatic adaptation to study fictional conversations. It concentrates on how different speakers choose various linguistic elements and adapt to various contextual factors in order to meet the communicative needs and achieve the ideal effects.

II. PRAGMATIC ADAPTATION

The theory of pragmatic adaptation is proposed by Jef Verschueren from a brand new perspective. He holds the opinion that “pragmatics does not constitute an additional component of a theory of language, but it offers a different perspective” (1999: 2). In other words, the study of language use can be situated at any level of structure including morpheme, syntax, semantics and so on. The pragmatic perspective is also closely related to cognition, society and culture. It can be specified that pragmatics is “a general cognitive, social, and cultural perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in forms of behavior” (1999: 7).

According to Verschueren, using language consists of “the continuous making of choices, consciously or subconsciously, for language-internal (i.e. structural) and/or language-external reasons” (1999: 55-56). That is to say, whenever a language user enters the dynamic process of verbal communication, he or she is under an obligation to make choices. Choices are made at every possible level both linguistically and extra-linguistically. And more often than not, choice-making at different levels is simultaneous. Speakers do not only choose forms, but also communicative strategies. That is, they can express a certain idea or perform a certain speech act through various linguistic forms, but they only choose to use the one that can realize their communicative needs in a specific situation to achieve the goal of

adaptation to context. Not only the speaker makes choices in the process of production, but also the hearer does in the process of interpretation. Both types of choice-making are of equal importance for the smooth flow of communication. However, not all choices, whether in production or interpretation, are made with equal consciousness: some choices are made consciously while others are made subconsciously. Therefore, due to the different degrees of consciousness, some choices are marked while others are unmarked.

III. PRAGMATIC ANALYSIS OF FICTIONAL CONVERSATION

A. Choice and Adaptation of Words

A word is a unity of sound and meaning (Lin Chengzhang, 1997: 51). The relationship between the sound and the meaning of the majority of words is considered to be conventional. In other words, why a word has this or that meaning is not prescribed but a convention. Obviously, traces of human thinking are deeply imprinted on meanings of words. There may be different terms to name the same thing, but every term will have its unique effects.

Common words accounting for the majority of English vocabulary refer to those that can be used on almost all occasions (Lin Chengzhang, 1997: 60). They belong to the basic word level of English words and can be used on either formal or informal occasions. Nouns such as father, mother, river, field or room, verbs such as see, let, live, go or drink, adjectives such as red, good, small, week or round and adverbs such as happily, quickly, quiet, rather or hard belong to this category.

Informal words are usually classified into three categories: colloquialisms, slang words and vulgarisms (Lin Chengzhang, 1997:60-61). The phenomena of ungrammaticality always go along with informal words on informal occasions. Formal words are usually used in books, newspapers, documents, serious speeches and so on. Obviously they are used on formal occasions between speakers whose relationships are not so close; however, under certain circumstances they will also appear in conversations between those who are in intimate relationships for certain purposes.

Two examples will be presented to explore how speakers choose common words, informal words and formal words in different contexts to suit different communicative needs.

Conversation one:

"Honey, I gotta talk to you."

"Sure. Is something wrong?" She put her book down.

"Well, sort of. Yes."

... ..

"Bob," she said with candor, "something in your voice scares me. Have I done anything?"

"No. It's me. I've done it." Bob took a breath. He was shaking, "Sheila, remember when you were pregnant with Paula?"

"Yes?"

"I had to fly to Europe----Montpellier----to give that paper..."

"And...?"

"I had an affair." He said it as quickly as he could.

... ..

"No. this is some terrible joke. Isn't it?"

"No. It's true," he said tonelessly. "I---I'm sorry."

"Who?" she asked.

"Nobody," he replied. "Nobody special."

"Who, Robert?"

"Her---her name is Nicole Guirin. She was a doctor." Why does she want to hear these details?

"And how long did it last?"

"Two, three days."

"Two days or three days? I want to know."

"Thee days," he said. "Does all this matter?"

"Everything matters," Sheila answered.

This conversation is an excerpt from the fiction *Man, Woman and Child* by Erich Segal. Robert and Sheila are a happy couple who are well educated. The physical context is that Robert who loves his wife deeply had a love affair with a French doctor several years ago. And the French doctor gave birth to a boy who is nine years old when the conversation occurs, which was told to Robert by a friend just now. Therefore, Robert is facing the dilemma of whether he should tell the truth to his wife because the boy is going to live in orphanage due to the death of the French doctor. At the same time, Robert does not want to hurt his wife who has always been loving him so deeply.

Words used in the conversation are very common, which is determined by the contexts, both physically and psychologically. The husband chooses common words in order to obtain forgiveness from his wife and the wife does so in order get the complete truth from her husband. In the beginning, Robert chooses "...gotta to talk..." rather than "...have to talk..." for two reasons. Firstly, the relationship between them is husband and wife, so there is no need to be so formal. Secondly, Robert tries his best to create the easy atmosphere and put both of them at ease. Then, the wife

asks “Is something wrong?” in stead of “Is anything wrong?” This is because that “something” implies the wife’s expectation. To put it in another way, the wife expects something will happen. The husband uses the phatic word “well” and the vague phrase “sort of” to make a reply in order to mitigate the seriousness of the matter. The conversation moves until the husband tells his wife about his “affair” rather than “love affair”. The choice of the word “affair” and the omission of “love” show the husband’s guilt to Sheila and the pain resulted from his extra-marital affair. After Sheila’s temporary shock, she clearly and definitely chooses one word “who” to seek the absolute truth of the matter. Finally, when the husband tells her it only lasts “two, three days”, she again continues to go after the definite answer by repeating the word “days” in “two days or three days”. It can be clearly seen that all these common words are not chosen at random but influenced by their mental world and physical context. The couple constantly adapts their choices to their needs to achieve their own purposes.

Conversation two:

“Noblest—dearest—tenderest wife!” cried Aylmer, rapturously, “Doubt not my power. I have already given this matter the deepest thought—thought which might almost have enlightened me to create a being less perfect than yourself. Georgiana, you have led me deeper than ever into the heart of science. I feel myself fully competent to render this dear cheek as faultless as its fellow; and then, most beloved, what will be my triumph, when I shall have corrected what Nature left imperfect, in her fairest work! Even Pygmalion, when his sculptured woman assumed life, felt not greater ecstasy than mine will be.”

“It is resolved, then,” said Georgiana, faintly smiling,--“And, Aylmer, spare me not, though you should find the birth-mark take refuge in my heart at last.”

This conversation is an excerpt from Hawthorne’s story *The Birth-mark*. The husband in the conversation is a devoted scientist proficient in every branch of natural sciences and the wife is beautiful and submissive to her husband. Apparently, the majority of the words chosen intentionally by the husband belong to formal ones. Adjectives like “noblest”, “tenderest”, “fully”, “competent”, and “beloved”; nouns like “triumph” and “ecstasy”; and verbs like “enlighten” and “render” all give the sense of elegance and formality. These formal and big words serve perfectly to show the rigidity and preciseness of a scientist. The birth-mark on the cheek of the scientist’s wife does not obscure her beauty. But the husband, out of his devotedness and commitment to natural science, is determined to do experiment to remove the birth-mark considered as a stain by him, regarding his wife as the testing object. Even he himself could not guarantee the success of the experiment. Naturally the experiment is finished at the expense of the death of the wife. Readers may wonder why the insignificant birth-mark deserves so many grand and elegant words from the husband after first reading. It is just by the deliberate choice of these “beautiful” words that the darker side of human beings is displayed. The pursuit of natural sciences is given priority over the priceless life of a person. It also reflects the alienation of human beings in that period of history.

Literary authors are one of the groups working with language and they often take advantage of the fuzziness or vagueness of language to reinforce certain effects in their works. Vague words can be classified into various kinds. There are words suggesting approximation such as “about”, “around”, “so”, “or”, or “around”; quantifiers such as “loads of”, “a mass of”, “some”, “many”, “several” or “few”; and words referring to something indefinite such as “anything”, “something”, or “nothing”(Joanna Channell, 1994: 42-157). In daily life, a lot of adverbs such as “very”, “extremely” or “quiet” are, to some degree, also vague words.

People hold different attitudes towards vague language. On the whole, there appear to have been two contradictory points of view. One is that vague language is a bad thing and the other is that it is a good thing. Neither of the two views have done justice to vague language. Vague words may appear to be imprecise and indefinite, although they perform their functions in various contexts. The use of vague language may just give the right amount of information, deliberately withhold information, show the power or politeness of speakers or reflect the atmosphere. The following examples will show how speakers choose vague words in different situations and will give a comparison of the different effects of the choice of vague and precise words.

“Oh! my dear Mr. Bennet,” as she entered the room, “we have had a most delightful evening, a most excellent ball. I wish you had been there. Jane was so admired, nothing could be like it. Every body said how well she looked; and Mr. Bingley thought her quite beautiful, and danced with her twice. Only think of that my dear; he actually danced with her twice; and she was the only creature in the room that he asked a second time. First of all, he asked Miss Lucas. I was so vexed to see him stand up with her; but, however, he did not admire her at all: indeed, nobody can, you know; and he seemed quite struck with Jane as she was going down the dance. So, he enquired who she was, and got introduced, and asked her for the two next. Then, the two third he danced with Miss King, and the two fourth with Maria Lucas, and the two fifth with Jane again, and the two sixth with Lizzy, and the Boulanger ---”

“If he had had any compassion for me,” cried her husband impatiently, “he would not have danced half so much! For God’s sake, say no more of his partners. Oh! that he had sprained his ankle in the first dance!”

“Oh! my dear,” continued Mrs. Bennet, “I am quite delighted with him. He is so excessively handsome! and his sisters are charming women. I never in my life saw any thing more elegant than their dresses. I dare say the lace upon Mrs. Hurst’s gown ---”

This conversation which is an excerpt from *Pride and Prejudice* occurs between Mrs. Bennet and Mr. Bennet after the ball in the Netherfield Park where Mr. Bingley resides. Mrs. Bennet is happily relating what have happened in the ball

to her husband. Obviously, most of the modifying words used by Mrs. Bennet belong to vague ones. At first, she uses the word “most” twice to modify “delightful” and “excellent”, but the general word “most” can not exactly show the degree of delightfulness and excellence. When she wants to express that Jane, her daughter, is admired by other guests at the ball, she just uses the word “so”. The word “quite” occurs twice when Mrs. Bennet relates Bingley’s feeling towards Jane. The first time is that “Mr. Bingley thought her quite beautiful” and the second occurrence is that “he seemed quite struck with Jane”. After her husband replies her impatiently, she continues to choose the word “quite” to express how she is delighted with Bingley whom she wants to be her son-in-law. After that, there appear such general words like “excessively”, “charming” or “thing” in Mrs. Bennet’s utterances. The so many vague words used by Mrs. Bennet are not chosen without motivation. On the contrary, these choices are made due to the need of character portraying. These words are chosen, on the one hand, to show that Mrs. Bennet lacks good education, on the other hand, to portray Mrs. Bennet as a vulgar housewife who is empty-headed and who likes to exaggerate. They also lead the readers to think what the kind of life would be to live with such a wife and mother.

B. *Choice and Adaptation of Sentences*

As far as fictions are concerned, sentences are combinations of lexicons according to grammatical rules by the authors with certain motives and purposes. Therefore, the writers’ psychological states, understanding of language and their creativity are deeply involved in the choices of sentences (Liu Anhai, 1995: 22). In literary discourse, the formation of sentences does not necessarily agree with grammatical rules due to the authors’ pursuits of aesthetic effects. Writers can, and do, play tricks when combining words into sentences in literary creation (Laura Wright and Jonathan Hope, 1996: 93). In the fictional conversations, sentences of various types will occur and will reflect the dynamic progression of literary communication among characters.

The length of sentences in literary works, on most occasions, will catch the attention of stylistic analysts. Generally speaking, the occurrences of short sentences are more frequent than those of long sentences in the fictional conversations. Short sentences give the impression of directness, brevity and forcefulness. The effect is especially obvious when a series of short sentences are used one after another. However, the frequent use of short sentences is likely to make the interaction incoherent.

Long sentences are usually used for special purposes if they do occur in conversations. They can make statements or opinion clear and explicit with no room for misinterpretation. But they may also strike readers with a redundant, repetitious or monotonous effect if the conversation is cluttered up with long sentences. The following examples will illustrate the communicative effects produced in the fictional conversations due to the choices of short and long sentences.

“I wish I hadn’t told you,” he said.

So do I, she thought. “Why did you tell me, Bob?”

“I don’t know.”

“You do, Bob. You do!” Her fury was erupting. Because she knew now what he wanted from her.

“It’s the child,” she said.

“I—I’m not sure,” he said. “Yeah,” he admitted. “I do. I can’t explain it, but I feel I should do something to help. Find an alternative to—you know, sending him away. Maybe if I flew there...”

“To do what? Do you know anyone who’d take him in? Do you even have a plan?”

“No, Sheila. No, I don’t.”

“Then what’s the point of flying over?”

.

And then she staggered him.

“I guess there’s only one solution, Robert. Bring him here.”

He stared at her in disbelief. “Do you know what you’re saying?”

She nodded. “Isn’t that really why you told me?”

He wasn’t sure, but he suspected she was right. Again. “Could you bear it?”

She smiled sadly. “I have to, Bob. If I don’t let you try to help him now, you’ll blame me someday for allowing your—your child to be put in an orphanage.”

“I wouldn’t...”

“Yes, you would. Do it, Bob, before I change my mind.”

This conversation is a continuation of the first example in *A. Choice and Adaptation of Words*. The love affair between Robert and the French doctor produces a boy whom is being talked about between Sheila--Robert’s wife, and Robert. Throughout the conversation, all the sentences used by both Sheila and Robert are comparatively short except for the one sentence chosen by Sheila. But in choosing short sentences, the husband and the wife are preoccupied with different beliefs and ideas. Also these short sentences will help the communicators to find the solution of how to deal with the child as soon as possible. The length of the sentences in this conversation echoes the urgency of the matter concerned.

Sheila has completely been informed of the love affair by her husband so far. At present she gets the upper hand in the flow of the conversation. She keeps it in mind that Robert should not leave her and the problem of the child should be dealt with immediately. So she resolutely tells her idea to Robert. Every short sentence makes her intension clear-cut

and explicit. The three consecutive short sentences---“To do what? Do you know anyone who’d take him in? Do you even have a plan?”---efficiently compel her husband to abandon the thought of flying to France. When she has made the final decision concerning the problem, she chooses a three-word sentence---“Bring him here”. The brief sentence almost makes it impossible for the husband not to agree with the wife. The wife also uses one long sentence, that is, “If I don’t let you try to help him now, you’ll blame me someday for allowing your—your child to be put in an orphanage.” This is an explanation for why the wife wants Robert to bring the child home. It is necessary to enable Robert to understand that Sheila still loves him and that she does not intend to split with him. So the long sentence provides sufficient information concerning Sheila’s love to her husband.

At the same time, Robert also chooses short sentences in the dialogue. It is because he is at a loss as to what to do with the child. He is turning to his wife for suggestions. Meanwhile he feels guilty for his wife and also sorry for the child. The more he says, the more trouble he might bring to the family as well as the child. For him, finding an immediate solution to the problem is the foremost thing he should do. So it is better to say less than to say more for the husband. The sentences used in this conversation are the best choices to adapt to the social world, the physical world and the psychological world of the wife and the husband. In other words, they are chosen for the purpose of achieving the goals of the couple and fulfilling their communicative tasks.

IV. CHOICE AND ADAPTATION OF CONVERSATION BUILDING PRINCIPLES

A. *Introduction to Conversation Building Principle*

Utterance building involves not only choosing linguistic units such as words or sentences and speech acts but also choosing utterance building principles (Jef Verschueren, 1999: 134). Utterance building principles are similar to strategies and methods adopted by speakers in order to make their interactions coherent and relevant. In the framework of Jef Verschueren’s pragmatic adaptation, three types of utterance building are proposed: sentential utterance building, suprasentential utterance building and utterance clusters building (1999:136-143). The first type involves the arrangement of given and old information, and theme (or topic) and theme (or comment); the second type involves the establishment of discourse topics; and the third type involves the sequence of conversational moves and exchanges.

The integration of the three types of utterance building is, in fact, the process of conversation building. In verbal interactions, speakers have to pay attention to their communicative strategies in order to, on the one hand, make their utterances correctly interpreted, on the other hand, make the conversation flow smoothly. Various aspects will play their role in the process of conversation building. The paper will study from the following two angles: perspective taking and turn taking.

B. *Perspective Taking*

Perspective is originally a spatio-visual concept meaning the art of representing objects as they appear to an observer seen from a particular vantage point (Wang Shaohua, 2004: 2-3). This term is often used in language production and interpretation, the process of which involves the subjectivity of language users, as the process of observation does. Perspective is an object of negotiation in the process of conversation building because speakers and listeners, who repeatedly switch roles, must establish a mutual understanding of what the discourse is about and what the utterer’s standpoint is.

Perspective taking is not done once and for ever. On the contrary, utterers constantly take one perspective at this moment and shift into another perspective at another moment. They make appropriate adaptations when their designed utterances fail to work for their purposes. Wang Shaohua lists three factors influencing conversationalists’ perspective taking: their knowledge of differences in perspective, their ability to see things from the partners’ point of view, and their motivation (2004: 82). Among the three factors, motivation is the most important one. Speakers may not be willing to shift their perspectives even if they know their partners’ perspectives and are able to adapt to them, depending on their goals. In literary works, the goals in communication do not only include those of the characters but also those of the authors.

“Bon soir, Monsieur Duval,” Dan said, “Excuses-nous de troubler votre sommeil, mais nous venons de la presse et nous savons que vous avez une histoire intéressante à nous raconter.”

The stowaway shook his head slowly.

“It won’t do no good talking French,” Stubby Gates interjected. “Henri don’t understand it. Seems like ‘e got’ is languages mixed up when ‘e was a nipper. Best try ‘im in English, but take it slow.”

“All right.” Turning back to the stowaway, Dan said carefully, “I am from the Vancouver Post. A newspaper. We would like to know about you. Do you understand?”

There was a pause. Dan tried again. “I want to talk with you. Then I will write about you.”

“Why you write?” The words-the first Duval had spoken- held a mixture of surprise and suspicion.

The above conversation is selected from Arthur Hailey’s fiction *In High Places*. The adaptation of the journalist’s perspective is shown through his choice of code and syntactic structure. At first the Australian reporter, Dan, speaks French to the stowaway whose name is Duval because the stowaway is allegedly supposed to be a Frenchman. The knowledge of the stowaway’s alleged nationality, the ability to speak French and the motivation to be polite and friendly make Dan choose French and take the stowaway’s position into consideration in the interaction. But it proves that the

preliminary perspective fails to get the response from the stowaway, so Dan switches into English after being suggested by the sailor, Stubby Gates. The introduction to himself, the first person plural form “we” and the polite request “We would like to...” suggest that Dan shifts his perspective from the stowaway’s side into the Vancouver Post’s side. When Dan again fails to achieve his goal, he adopts the informal tone and simple sentences to speak to the stowaway. His perspective switches to the stowaway once again and it successfully elicits a response from Duval. The changes of his perspective are determined by his intention to interview Duval and obtain the desired information. The process of dynamically taking and shifting perspectives finally realizes the communicative ends of the journalist.

C. Turn Taking

The basic unit of the conversation is the turn which is taken alternatively by speaker and hearer in the process of conversation (Jacob L. Mey, 1993: 139). In normal conversation, speakers do not speak at the same time: they wait for their turn. That is to say, conversationalists take turns to participate in the interaction. The research of turn-taking is the central issue in conversation analysis. A better understanding of conversational turn-taking can not only help us further our knowledge of conversation analysis, but also help us to apply theories concerning it to practice so as to get a better communication result (Zhang Tingguo, 2003: 23). Turn-taking analysis is one of the methods adopted in literary work to not only reveal power relations and characters’ personalities, but also help to further push the development of the plots (Li Huadong and Yu Dongming, 2001: 30).

“Now,” said Monks, when they had all three seated themselves, “the sooner we come to our business, the better for all. The woman know what it is, does she?”

The question was addressed to Bumble; but his wife anticipated the reply, by intimating that she was perfectly acquainted with it.

“He is right in saying that you were with this hag the night she died; and that she told you something—”

“About the mother of the boy you named,” replied the matron interrupting him. “Yes.”

“The first question is, of what nature was her communication?” said Monks.

“That’s the second,” observed the woman with much deliberation. “The first is, what may the communication be worth?”

“Who the devil can tell that, without knowing of what kind it is?” asked Monks

“Nobody better than you, I am persuaded,” answered Mrs. Bumble.....

“Humph!” said Monks significantly, and with a look of eager inquiry; “there may be money’s worth to get, eh?”

“Perhaps there may,” was the composed reply.

“Something that was taken from her,” said Monks. “Something that she wore. Something that—”

“You had better bid,” interrupted Bumble, “I have heard enough, already, to assure me that you are the man I ought to talk to.”

Three participants are involved in the conversation from *Oliver Twist*: Monks, Mr. Bumble and Mrs. Bumble. Only Monks and Mrs. Bumble get the turns to speak; while Mr. Bumble is allocated no turn. The first question raised by Monks shows that the current speaker, Monks, has selected Mr. Bumble as the next speaker; however, the turn is taken by Mrs. Bumble who replaces Mr. Bumble to talk about the vicious deal with Monks. The behavior of Mrs. Bumble shows that she is in the controlling position before her husband. In the process of the conversation, Mrs. Bumble interrupts Monks before he finishes his turn. The violation of the turn-taking rules is caused by Mrs. Bumble’s impatience. The money-driven woman intends to wrap up the deal and get the money as soon as possible. These interruptions also put Mrs. Bumble in an advantageous point: she is the person who controls the flow of the conversation and who gets the upper hand in the deal.

V. CONCLUSION

Applying pragmatic theories to the research of fictional conversations provides a new perspective to approach literary works. The pragmatic explanation of the styles of fictional conversations will result in a more systematic, more explicit and more convincing interpretations to the works as well as to writers. Through pragmatic analysis of literary conversations, the psychological states, social world and physical contexts of writers and fictional figures can be revealed. It also helps literary critics to approach fictions more profoundly.

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The Location of Literature Curriculum under the Condition of Modern Educational Techniques

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Abstract—Multimedia teaching has become an important branch of reform in 21st century education already. A great deal of defects and deficiencies in the traditional literature teaching have been overcome and remedied in multimedia teaching. But because its acceptance and using have to go through a long time and many teachers are low-level in the computer application, it has brought about a great deal of questions in teaching. How to make an accurate location of multimedia teaching has become a question we must face. We must define that modern educational techniques is the complementary means of teaching. We should use modern educational techniques rationally, lead students to study omni-directionally, promote the results of learning, and stimulate students' independent learning ability.

Index Terms—literature curriculum, modern educational techniques

Multimedia teaching has become an important branch of reform in 21st century education already. The blackboard is replaced by the screen projection, which is completely subversive for traditional classroom structure of platform, chalk and blackboard. Especially during the teaching process of literature curriculum, students are really strong sense of the digital information of modern high technology from slide transition through the modes of propagation of modern teaching media. A great deal of defects and deficiencies in the traditional literature teaching have been overcome and remedied in multimedia teaching. Meanwhile, the utilization of modern educational techniques can well solve the sharp contradiction between the vast course content in literature curriculum system and the hours that the literature courses are being compressed constantly at present, and improve teaching quality effectively within limited time. The literature course teaching under modern educational techniques has made a prominent effect in training students' innovation ability and developing their individual character etc.

However, multimedia teaching, as the supplementary means of good teaching, has not been utilized abundantly effectively in realistic teaching process. Some even use it wrongly and reduce the actual teaching result instead. It should be our basic principle of making multimedia courseware to pursue the depth, aesthetic feeling and the high efficiency, but in the course of using the multimedia actually, a lot of teachers make it simple. For example, some teachers think that multimedia teaching is a simple form of the application of PPT. They input their lecture into computer and substitute traditional lecture notes with PPT. Some teachers utilize the resources of the network to download some network coursewares to give lessons briefly, which have lost original due ideological content and artistry of literature course of the beginning while lightening their workload. Some teachers use the only technological diagram literature content of the modern sound briefly in order to attract students. Such vulgar products lead to fawn on customs and become superficial which is that literature object to all the time. It gets half the result with twice the effort. A lot of teachers are not suitable to give lessons with multimedia because of their limited PC skills at all. As the new developing result, modern teaching technology is accepted and even become one of the evaluation indexes of discipline extensively. But because its acceptance and using have to go through a long time and many teachers are low-level in the computer application, it has brought about a great deal of questions in teaching. How to make an accurate location of it is a question we must face. As the new developing result, seldom pay close attention to the location of literature course teaching under modern education skill.

Present university students have tremendous difference with traditional students. They attach importance to utility value and ignore quality. They study for the material gain but not for humanism. But we must know that literature and culture have enormous potentiality in the process of moulding people. As teachers of literature curriculum, we should hold our ground of aesthetic value and spiritual orientation on the practical basis. The application of modern education skill can relieve this question to a great extent. A lot of abstract contents will be direct and simple in the teaching of literature by using multimedia, which is propitious to the students' accepting. Picture, melodized sound, excellent video cartoon with abundant color, can improve students' study interest. If we want to make it come true really, we should use modern educational techniques in the teaching, and make a correct course presentation.

First, we must define the primary and secondary relation between modern educational techniques and teacher's teaching.

We should make clear the localization that modern educational techniques is the complementary means of teaching, otherwise just put the cart before the horse. In any case, it is the base of our teaching that knowledge should be taught and students' innovation ability is trained. The application of modern educational techniques helps to realize this

purpose. We can't only try to please students' ears and eyes in teaching by simple technicalization teaching, which lead to that students make temporary satisfaction and ignore the fundamental thing. So, every teacher should define that our teaching is to rely mainly on teaching knowledge. We must define the localization of course.

Second, use modern educational techniques rationally, lead students to study omni-directionally, and promote the results of learning.

Using modern educational techniques can show abundant content and aesthetics result of literature and language. Literature courses are important courses of training student's language ability and estheticism. Multimedia teaching terms can make learn-for-learn student become voluntarily passively. It can avoid students' trouble of recording the note, solve the focal point, and break through the difficult point, which strengthens the teaching result and improves teaching quality. Using modern educational techniques to carry on teaching rationally, can make the picture and text, seeing and hearing combine, and strengthen student's understanding, memory ability. While using modern educational techniques, it adopts tableau vivant of sound and draw and luxuriant, the means combined in seeing and hearing, and set up different literary language teaching situation modes, which can help students to accelerate perceiving and understanding the process of the literary language, get up students' many kinds of sense organs participate in the network teaching activity. Thus they study more swiftly, and remember firmer.

Third, use modern educational techniques rationally, and stimulate student's independent learning ability.

Literature curriculum has very abundant content, but at present its course times has been compressed constantly to adapt the innovation of Chinese higher education. In this case, using modern educational techniques can solve the sharp contradiction between tremendous course content of literature courses teaching and limited time. Under the condition of modern educational techniques, literature course can offer the abundant, utilized conveniently literary language material which have avoided teacher's uninteresting and dull spoon-feed teaching. Student can take issue into think or listen to dub in background music recording and read aloud, enter situation of the literary language directly, and many sense organ can be exposed to literary language. Among large linguistic context, they have a taste of Chinese and foreign literature, aesthetic feeling of culture unconsciously joyfully and happily. It can stimulate students' problem consciousness and enthusiasm of study, make students correct the attitude towards study, and train the habit of student's independent study. Under the condition of modern educational techniques, we should instruct students how to list the studying, creative study goal timely, carry on creative research study, and pay close attention to students' research learning method, and train their ability of making study. At the same time it can train their ability of working alone, cooperating with others and searching, choosing, summing up the ability of information, etc.

Modern educational techniques can offer rich, colorful, lively, concrete and visual thinking material for literature courses, which can be expected to widen the space-time of the traditional classroom demarcation line, increase the amount of information of the classroom, accelerate the rhythm of the classroom, widen the student visual field, and further improve teaching quality. Meanwhile, assisting the teaching means of multimedia to activate the literature classroom and pay attention to the teaching ideas to upgrade, absolutely not replace office coaching that should be excellent with the information technology. It should be clear for every teacher engaged in literature courses.

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No Man's Land: a Variation on Harold Pinter's Theme of "Menace"

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Abstract—Though being one of the representative works in the second phase of Pinter's writing in the 1970s, *No Man's Land* is more an extension of than a departure from his early comedies of menace. To a certain degree, the central motif of the play is still a variation on the theme of territory fight explored in such plays as *The Caretaker*. What makes his play unique is that the major conflict is no longer a fight for the "room" in the sense of existential significance, but for a much more private "territory" of the innermost soul embodied by the past and memory.

Index Terms—*No Man's Land*, memory, intrusion, territory fight

I. INTRODUCTION

Among Harold Pinter's plays, *No Man's Land* (1975) has a special position. It is one of the representative works in the second period of Pinter's dramatic writing in the 1970s—it may be said to mark the end of this phase. After *No Man's Land*, Pinter's creative efforts began to shift to screenplays and plays on the political motifs. Although some critics have studied *No Man's Land* by focusing on its language, its use of symbolism, its exploration of the themes of identity and that of the "dark inevitability of the future...of death in life," this play still impresses many audiences as a riddle-like work that "resists satisfactory interpretation."¹ Almost all critics have noticed Pinter's fascination with the motif of memory in this stage of writing. But as to the question of what specific role memory plays in *No Man's Land*, it still invites further explorations. So, in *Harold Pinter and the New British Theatre*, Keith Peacock, after stating tentatively that this play "could be about death or about the onset of artistic impotence," concludes that *No Man's Land* "is mannered, capriciously structured, confusing, and thematically as static as the no-man's-land of its title."²

The fact is that *No Man's Land* is almost as clear as Pinter's first masterpiece *The Caretaker* in plot. There are only four characters in this work: the reserved house owner, Hirst (a poet and a literary critic), the tramp, Spooner, and two servants, Foster (who also claims himself as a poet) and Briggs. Spooner is clearly another Davies³-like figure, who suffers much of the bitterness of snares in life and is desperate to find a peaceful shelter of "room". Hirst, a successful poet like Pinter, is trapped in his "no man's land" of art. Significantly, simple as it seems to be in plot structure, *No Man's Land* is one of the most difficult plays written by Pinter because of its profundity and ambiguity in meaning caused by his special use of memory.

Due to Pinter's special employment of memory, many critics found in this play a dramatic change of styles in Pinter's writing. In fact, if we put the smoky dramaturgy of memory aside, *No Man's Land* is more an extension of than a departure from early plays of menace. For all its difference from Pinter's early works, this play is but a variation on the same theme of intrusion explored in such plays as *The Caretaker* for the most important thing here is still about menace and a resistance to it. What makes *No Man's Land* difficult and unique is but the role played by the memory of the past in the action of the present, and the change it brings to what the characters fight for. Differing from early works, the major conflict in this play is no longer a fight for the "room" in the sense of existential significance, but for a much more private "territory" of the innermost soul embodied by the past. What "no man's land" refers to in the title is a person's most vulnerable, truthful, and mysterious world of alienated soul, a realm of sanctuary that forbids any external intrusion.

II. MEMORY WORLD AS ANOTHER KIND OF TERRITORY

In the course of Pinter's career, the 1970s was a period of frustration and restlessness. The turbulence in his domestic life as well as his suffering from suppression of political emotion in the previous decade made him feel so struck that he fell into temporary blocks now and then in writing. About this, Peacock once made such a record:

¹ Keith Peacock (1997), *Harold Pinter and the New British Theatre*. Westport: Greenwood Press. p.115.

² Ibid.

³ Davies is a famous character in Pinter's first acclaimed work *The Caretaker*. The whole play is built on what happens among two brothers, Aston and Mick, and Davies, the tramp that Aston brings to the flat. *The Caretaker* is traditionally seen as a comedy of menace in which characters fight for their territory and tensions arise with the arrival of an intruding figure from outside. The moment Davies is brought to the room, he begins to covet it as a source of security. In this play, the image of the old tramp fighting desperately for the "bed" and "room" shows vividly the hardship of a man ensnared in permanent sense of insecurity in life.

In an interview with Mel Gussow in 1971, he [Pinter] admitted that his inability to write for the stage was becoming ever more depressing. He had declared after *The Homecoming* that he could no longer "stay in the room with this bunch of people who opened doors and came in and went out" and that his writing must take a new course...he explained that "I'm not at all interested in 'threatening behavior' anymore...."⁴

Just like what Stephen H. Gale says, one key to understand Pinter is the realization of the fact that the content and styles of his drama have undergone a constant evolution and developments.⁴ But as Pinter expresses here, it is a hard work to start a totally "new course" or explore a new territory: "you're always stuck. You're stuck as a writer. I am stuck in my own tracks, whatever they are—for so long."⁵ What happens in *No Man's Land* suggests that Pinter is indeed "struck" to a certain degree in his tracks—he feels bound by his former "idiosyncratic dramatic style" that has become "a cliché"⁶ in him. Although "memory, time and the nature of reality intermix to become the focal point of his [Pinter's] interest"⁷ in this stage of his writing, Pinter's dramatic framework in *No Man's Land* is not wholly out of the former track of intrusion and menace. What makes the play unique is that the intruder's action is diversified into two types: the former Davies-type of intrusion that audience are familiar with; and the subtler yet more dangerous memory-type as what happens between Spooner and Hirst.

According to Guido Almansi, *No Man's Land* is a "backward step in the direction of the early two people in a room' plays."⁸ To some extent, he is justified in this conclusion because one line of the play—what happens between Spooner and the two menservants, Foster and Briggs—runs indeed as a repetition of Davies' story. When the play begins, Spooner, like what happens to Davies in *The Caretaker*, is brought into the house by Hirst, the house owner. Only one minute later, Spooner has been looking about the "room," secretly taking it as an attractive territory to enter. Since then, entering that room and obtaining the post of secretary have become his aim, while on the other side, maintaining their power in the household and ordering Spooner's hands off "the home of a man of means"⁹ become the purpose of the two servants.

In this conflict between Spooner and the post-holders, the fighting strategy in language featured with the early plays can still be seen here, in which characters try to overpower each other orally. But even in this old battlefield, new weapon is used. The former pattern of discourse like "Sit down" in *Caretaker* is replaced by long monologues of tales about their "past" through which all the characters intend to defeat their rivals by creating a powerful identity for themselves.

But as the title of the play *No Man's Land* suggests, the game between Spooner and the menservants is not the ultimate concern of the work. The real focus lies in Spooner's intrusion into Hirst's private sanctuary of his "no man's land." It is his bold intrusion in this world that makes Spooner a dangerous and repellent figure in the eyes of the poet-host and eventually has himself kicked out.

Maybe the most difficult problem that audience meets in watching the play is the characters' willful twisting of the traditional factual conception of the past and reminiscences. As Guido Almansi says, in the play, "it is just as impossible to distinguish between genuine reminiscences, memories modified by the process of time, and recollections stultified for strategic purposes."¹⁰ As early as in 1962, Pinter had stated his unique understanding of time, expressing a new definition of the past and the present. As he says,

...we are faced with the immense difficulty, if not the impossibility, of verifying the past. I don't mean merely years ago, but yesterday, this morning. What took place, what was the nature of what took place, what happened?...What's happening now?...we won't know then, we'll have forgotten, or our imagination will have attributed quite false characteristics to today. A moment is sucked away and distorted, often even at the time of its birth.¹¹

When Pinter puts this idea of time into his plays, the result is disastrous to many traditional viewers whose accustomed firm ground of time is made sandy and gets challenged and collapsed. But it is just in this uncertain and shifting realm of the past that Pinter finds a new world to explore his characters. It is truthful that the characters' tales of the past may not necessarily be what really happens in their memory. Nevertheless, the key point is that a lot about their present are expressed through their dialogues of their past and memory.

III. FIGHT FOR TERRITORY IN THE FORM OF MEMORY

It is in this territory of memory that a fight is started between the two protagonists in the play. If Spooner covets a material shelter in life, Hirst is seeking, like Aston in *The Caretaker*, for emotional warmth to melt the icy silence in his

⁴ Ibid., p.87.

⁴ Stephen H. Gale (1996), "Harold Pinter," *British Playwrights 1956-1995*, ed. William W. Demastes. Westport: Greenwood Press. p.316.

⁵ Harold Pinter, in his interview with Mel Gussow, seen in Keith Peacock's *Harold Pinter and the New British Theatre*. p.87.

⁶ Ibid. In the book, Peacock states that "He [Pinter] was painfully conscious that his idiosyncratic dramatic style had become something of a cliché: 'I wish I could write like someone else, be someone else.'"

⁷ Gale, p.317.

⁸ Malcolm Bradbury and Christopher Bigsby (ed.) (1983), *Harold Pinter*. London: Methuen. p.88.

⁹ Harold Pinter (1975), *No Man's Land*. London: Eyre Methuen. p.50. Subsequent documentation of quotations from this play will be in-text notes within parentheses.

¹⁰ Malcolm Bradbury and Christopher Bigsby. *Harold Pinter*. p.88.

¹¹ Harold Pinter (1998), *Various Voices Prose, Poetry, Politics*. London: Faber and Faber. p.17.

exclusive privacy. The whole play presents three rounds of Hirst's attempt to find a safe contact with Spooner, but they all fail because of the latter's unscrupulous intrusion and trample on the private sanctuary of Hirst's inner world.

To ingratiate himself into Hirst's house, Spooner takes the road of claiming himself to be a qualified and even patronizing sharer of Hirst's past and memory. The fatal mistake Spooner commits is that he not only intrudes deliberately into Hirst's most private world, but also, neglecting Hirst's protest to his intrusion, deconstructs the verification of the existence of Hirst's tale and reduces it to the naked picture of disgraceful reality. The bitter irony of this fight is that Spooner's intrusion proves to be a double-edged journey of destruction: while he dislocates and overpowers Hirst in the "past" by deconstructing Hirst's ability of playing the game of memory, Spooner also ruins his own chance to stay in the house.

Like Davies in *The Caretaker*, Spooner shows a defect of self-pride in his character. On the one hand, he covets the peace and security in the house, which he needs desperately. But on the other hand, he follows unwisely a superior attitude towards the host from the very beginning. As soon as Hirst offers him a drink in the house, Spooner assumes the role of a man of intelligence and perception who is capable of sticking a needle through any "calculated posture" (16)—a "twig-peeper" who can observe a great deal and see through twigs of the "most clumsy construction" (18). And he tries to make a virtue of every quality in him. For all his poverty, he implies that the material poverty only makes his spiritual wealth more admirable—"All we have left is the English language" (18), which, he says, makes him both a poet and a free man. Besides this, he makes a virtue of his failure to be loved: "From this I derive my strength" (26). He also declares that he is a man of knowing the virtue of decent distance between people for "To show interest in me or, good gracious, anything tending towards a positive liking of me, would cause in me a condition of the acutest alarm" (17). He even makes a virtue of his modesty to Hirst by identifying himself with the Hungarian émigré in the bar whose uniquely calming influence he says he admired and to whose "unmoving table" he had stumbled with his pint. By linking Hirst with the figure in his "past" whose way of sitting "has remained with me all my life" (25), Spooner almost succeeds in winning the trust of the latter who is, for a moment, willing to join him in a whisky and even to share the same experience of "Tea on the lawn" (29).

But the audience as well as Hirst soon discovers that Spooner's so-called modesty is but a smoky screen of self-pride, and a strategy to enter Hirst's past. As soon as Hirst says, "I did the same" [giving tea on the lawn], Spooner immediately jumps up to this sign of a possible kinship with Hirst. He cries to him: "What happened to our cottages? What happened to our lawns?... You've revealed something.... We share something. A memory of the bucolic life. We're both English" (29). Here Spooner's desire to claim a piece of land in Hirst's world of past is so urgent that Hirst instinctively sniffs out the smell of danger, and retreats to his highly guarded castle by shifting his topics and refusing to share any intimacy with Spooner. So, instead of following the topic of the "cottage", he begins to talk about the village church where "all who die unmarried" are honored with the white flower of a blameless life. Here Hirst's images of the village church and the white flower for the unmarried not only suggest a deliberate difference to Spooner's picture composed of the cottage, wife and young admirers, the image of the holy land of purity unblemished by any form of "marriage" also implies a firm denial of any possible connection with Spooner.

As the story goes on, Spooner gradually overpowers Hirst by deconstructing Hirst's ability of playing the game of memory (and by extension, his ability in everything), and exposing Hirst's private world nakedly. In Act I, when Hirst can not give a story of "his wife" as Spooner suggests, Spooner tells Hirst: "It is my duty to tell you you have failed to convince. I am an honest and intelligent man. You pay me less than my due.... I begin to wonder whether truly accurate and therefore essentially poetic definition means anything to you at all.... I have seriously questioned these propositions and find them threadbare" (31). Here speaking like a literary authority as he always claims himself to be, he throws doubts on the accuracy of Hirst's tale and his failure to give a satisfying narration to make his past convincing. When Spooner says that "Good lord, good lord, do I detect a touch of maudlin?" (31), audience finds that he is actually approaching the most vulnerable spot in Hirst's heart, i.e., a despairing state of failure hidden beneath the surface of success. As Hirst himself admits a minute later, "my friend... you find me in the last lap of a race... I had long forgotten to run" (32). Hirst's admittance of his Spooner's correctness in perception makes the latter even bolder in his intrusion: assuming the tone of a literary adviser and patron, Spooner first points out to Hirst his lack of the essential quality of manliness and his impotence, and then offers himself to Hirst as a boatman, a helping hand and a friend of rare quality. But his tone in addressing to the host is not so much an offer as a threat: "Think before you speak.... Remember this. You've lost your wife of hazel hue, you've lost her and what can you do, she will no more come back to you, with a tillifola tillifola tillifoladi-foladi-foloo" (33-4). By stressing ruthlessly the never returning of Hirst's "wife," a symbolic evidence of Hirst's failure in manliness, Spooner is actually taking advantage of the poor man's despairing situation of "tillifola tillifola" indecently, to prove that he is the last chance of Hirst's salvation.

Treating Hirst like this, Spooner has reduced him to one of the young "lads" that are said to rely on his guide. It is against this background that the title image of "no man's land" appears for the first time: "no man's land... does not move... or change... or grow old... remains... forever... icy... silent" (34). This is a desolate picture of decay and death where nothing changes or moves, and where one is stuck by the icy silence of loneliness. So far, Spooner's intruding needle has succeeded in sticking in the inner world of Hirst's which is hidden behind the shifting fragments of his tales of reminiscence. In this way, the first round of the fight ends in Hirst's defeat: he crawls drunkenly and disgracefully out

of the door, while Spooner lyrically tunes a Prufrockian (Prufrock is the speaker in T. S. Eliot's poem, *The Love Song of J. L. Prufrock*) line and looks at the room triumphantly like a conqueror.

In the play, Hirst appears three times, and every time he appears, he tries to give himself and Spooner a new identity through a tale of the past, in that way drawing a new starting line of campaign. When Hirst appears for the second time, the first step he takes is to obliterate the failure experience that took place a few hours ago by saying that he has forgotten everything in it—time, people and events. Instead, he replaces it with a dream in which someone has been drowning in water. Interestingly although Hirst declares the person drowning in the dream is "Not me. Someone else," he is playing again the game of hiding the truth with the false "twigs". Because he is the very person that is drowning there—he feels drowned in the total alienation of this "no man's world," in the uncertainty of the past, and in the "gap in me" caused by this uncertainty. This explains why Hirst has been drinking whisky and vodka throughout the play—drinking in order to forget his suffocating loneliness in the "no man's land" of truth. Hirst's feeling to the "no man's world" is a mixture of pain for the lonely desolation there and emotional attachment to it.

The long monologue spoken by Hirst might be the best illustration of Pinter's idea of the past. To Hirst, all his past is like the photograph album from which "My true friends look out at me," and where all his youth and love lies, but where all experience has become ghost-like shadows transformed by the changing light of time. So he says: "it never existed. It remains. I am sitting here forever...this night or the next night or the other one, the night before last" (46). It is in this world of dead silence of alienation and uncertainty of his identity that he is drowning.

As a high-skilled player of the game of memory, it is impossible for Spooner not to notice the real meaning of the dream. But instead of showing any sympathy to it, he behaves as he bragged at the beginning—"I myself can do any graph of experience you wish, to suit your taste or mine" (20). He seizes Hirst's dream as a chance and interprets it cruelly to his own advantage. So he interrupts Hirst unexpectedly and says "It was I drowning in your dream" (47)—this sentence immediately sends Hirst to a second collapse. speaking like this, Spooner is actually intruding further into Hirst's innermost world: this time, he is not merely a sharer of Hirst's past, but a dominant protagonist in his memory game. He even declares that he has the perfect qualification for this intrusion because, he says, "He [Hirst] has grandchildren. As have I. We both have fathered"(47). So when Hirst tells Spooner in his dizziness that "I know that man"(52), the audience understands that Spooner has won the second round of the fight once again: Hirst has accepted the intruder as part of his memory.

But it is in the third round of the fight that Spooner gets eventually rejected and defeated: he has overrun the propriety in his intrusion into Hirst's inner realm so deep that the latter would rather choose the insolent servants, Forster and Briggs, rather than sharing his private sanctuary of the past with Spooner.

When he re-enters in the morning in Act II, Hirst seems revived from the defeating experience of the previous night with the arriving of the daylight. This time he calls Spooner Charles, a supposed name of a former friend. And their earlier pattern of dialogue—of Spooner's long monologue and Hirst's silence in the opening scene—is also reversed here. Not giving Spooner a chance to speak, Hirst immediately imposes a new story of the past on Spooner, in which he tries to get an upper hand over Spooner with a tale of a "former" love affair with Spooner's "wife". How much Hirst's stories and Spooner's are really reliable?—this is not important. The important point is that Hirst's so-called "past" gives him a temporary identity of strength. For a moment, Spooner seems to be dazzled. But his silence only lasts a few minutes, he soon recovers his sense and launches a counter-blow to Hirst by mentioning the names of another two women, Stella and Arabella, and declaring that he is not only very fond of the two women, but also enjoys the friendship of Stella's brother's and the trust of Arabella's father's. And when Hirst tries to overpower Spooner by declaring an affair with Arabella, Spooner once again turns to virtue as his weapon: he accuses Hirst of his betrayal to the women he loved and of his sexual absolutism and scandalously corruptive relation with his former friends at Oxford. This blow of morality turns the whole world Hirst weaves for himself upside down: no wonder he cries to Spooner, "This is outrageous! Who are you? What are you doing in my house?" (78)

Here Hirst's last defense is broken under Spooner's ruthless attack on his vulnerable spots of the past: like his previous image of climbing out on his belly in Act I, he is reduced in this act to a pitifully impotent image of Prufrock in Eliot's poem. In act, the play's frequent allusions to Eliot's poem not only foretell the failure of Spooner's adventurous journey of invasion, but also imply the Prufrock-like impotent nature in Hirst's personality and his wasteland of reality. Being cornered by Spooner like this, Hirst is now like a pitiful gambler who has been deprived of everything. He tells the bullying invader that he can spare anything in the external world, the "library," "pen" and even his "photograph album," but he can't let Spooner trample insolently over his most vulnerable part of the past, i.e., "the good ghosts" there. Here the ghosts trapped in the icy desert of the album reveal a true picture of Hirst's situation. This is why throughout the play the flashing picture of the "no man's land" haunts Hirst now and then. The meaning of the "no man's land" becomes clearer when Hirst tells Briggs that "I have too many things to do. I have an essay to write. A critical essay. We'll have to check the files, find out what it is I'm supposed to be appraising. At the moment it's slipped my mind." (83) Being a famous writer, he surely always has "a critical essay" to write. But his trouble here is that "At the moment it's slipped my mind." This sentence eventually betrays his sense of helplessness and his despair to cope with his failure alone. This is what Hirst has tried to hide in all the smoking screens of the tales—a world of "no man's land" that he feels so ashamed of that he can never allow any one but himself to enter. Therefore, when Spooner offers his "nose of a ferret" to his piles of files, Hirst tells him "There are places in my heart...where no living soul...has...or can

ever...trespass" (84). In *No Man's Land*, Hirst safeguards this privacy of his inner world as Pinter's other characters do to their "rooms" in the previous plays.

To a certain degree, Hirst's room in this play stands also as an embodiment of his private world of the past. In the play, for several times, Hirst draws the curtains aside, looks out briefly, and then lets the curtains fall. When for the last time he gives order to close the curtains, he says: "The light...out there...is gloomy...hardly daylight at all. It is falling, rapidly. Distasteful. Let us close the curtains. Put the lamps on" (86). This scene of closing the curtains shows vividly Hirst's determination of locking his private world of self in the flux of memories because it gives him a feeling of safety and relief. So at the end of the play, Hirst chooses the social insolence of the two servants in daily life rather than the ferret-like Spooner. In the middle part of Act I, Foster once pictures an image of a man walking in the desert carrying two umbrellas. Obviously the two umbrellas symbolize the menservants: although they are burdensome to Hirst with their demanding dominance in the daily life of the house, at least they promise Hirst the safety of a shadow world under the "umbrellas," and never bother themselves with the "names" of the faces in their host's albums. So it is to them that Hirst eventually turns and claims a bond of steel.

IV. CONCLUSION

To Pinter, everyone has a private world belonging to no one else but himself, which is the core of one's experience. Maybe to the dramatist, writing itself is just like this. He said in 1970 that :

I have a particular relationship with the words I put down on paper and the characters which emerge from them which no one else can share with me. And perhaps that's why I remain bewildered by praise and really quite indifferent to insult. Praise and insult refer to someone called Pinter. I don't know the man they're talking about. I know the plays, but in a totally different way, in a quite private way.¹²

The playwright's feeling toward the words he writes is quite like Hirst's feeling toward his tales of the past in the sense of privacy and sanctity. Their difference lies in that Hirst's past is a world that he can neither share nor will share with anyone else, while the playwright's writing is a world that he is willing to share with others but few people can share with him.

To a certain degree, the dramatist's writing world might also be said to be a "no man's land." In his 1970 speech "On Being Awarded the German Shakespeare Prize in Hamburg," Pinter made such an answer to the question of "What am I writing about?": "I was writing nothing and can write nothing. I don't know why. It's a very bad feeling, but I must say I want more than anything else to fill up a blank page again, and to feel that strange thing happen, birth through fingertips. When you can't write you feel you've been banished from yourself."¹³ This feeling of the dramatist's—"I was writing nothing...but...When you can't write you feel you've been banished from yourself"—can be found in Hirst's emotions towards his reminiscence of the past. That is to say, anyone who wants to find a shaped idea there will be disappointed—because the words weaving that world are so unreliable, so elusive, and so evasive that no one else but the memory-teller can really understand them. But just beneath the surface of the "nothingness", something essentially and exclusively belonging to Hirst alone lies there.

In a similar relationship may the dramatist stands to his plays: all of Pinter's original impulses to write his plays lie hidden among the flux of words and haunts the lines invincibly like Hirst's nameless ghosts in the album—only the dramatist alone knows what is in it, and in as highly private way. Any attempted interpretation to his works with such labeling words as "Pinteresque" will be a barbarous and futile intrusion to the sanctuary of his dramatic experience. This is why Pinter states that there is "nothing" in his writing (i.e., nothing of what they think in it), yet he will feel exiled from himself if he does not write.

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A Brief Analysis of Teacher Autonomy in Second Language Acquisition

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Abstract—By examining the concept of teacher autonomy, the author intends to analyze its definitions, characteristics, and its relationship with learner autonomy so as to offer some insight to learner autonomy and facilitate the second language acquisition(SLA).

Index Terms—teacher autonomy, definitions, characteristics, relationship

I. INTRODUCTION

With the increasing prominence of learner autonomy in second language acquisition(SLA), teacher autonomy as a new concept in understanding learner autonomy has been paid more attention to. The discussion of teacher autonomy has already become a major emerging concern at various conferences about learner autonomy such as the 1999 AILA Scientific Commission on Learner Autonomy Symposium in Tokyo and the Symposium in Singapore in December 2002. Therefore, the analysis of teacher autonomy will be of great help to the understanding of learner autonomy and the facilitation of SLA.

II. TEACHER AUTONOMY

A. Definitions

Little(1995) first defines teacher autonomy as the “teachers’ capacity to engage in self-directed teaching.”¹ After that, scholars have been trying to define teacher autonomy from different aspects. Aoki’s (2000) offers an explicit definition of teacher autonomy, suggesting that this involves ‘the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one’s own teaching’². According to Richard Smith(2000), teacher autonomy refers to “the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in cooperation with others.” Benson (2000) argues that teacher autonomy can be seen as “a right to freedom from control (or an ability to exercise this right) as well as actual freedom from control”.

Nevertheless, these definitions focus on the ability of teachers, failing to point out the dynamic relationship between the teacher and learners. The ability of these learners may influence the teacher’s capacity of managing their knowledge, skills and even attitudes, and vice versa. Therefore, the author puts forward her point of view on teacher autonomy. It means the capacity of teachers in managing knowledge, skills, and attitudes in the students’ acquisition of a language with regard to learners.

B. Characteristics

Researchers have been analyzing teacher autonomy from different dimensions. McGrath (2000) illustrates the characteristics of teacher autonomy from two dimensions, “as self-directed action or development; as freedom from control by others.”³ When teachers act in a self-directed manner, they are not guaranteed to learn from the experience. Because their professional development of autonomy could be considered as one form of professional action, but their action and development of autonomy do not necessarily mean the same thing. When teachers make use of their freedom, allowance needs to be made for a distinction between capacity for and/or willingness to engage in self-direction and actual self-directed behavior. In China, for example, some college teachers have the capacity to engage in self-directed activity but refuse to do so for the sake of personal responsibility.

Smith (2001) summarizes six very comprehensive characteristics of teacher autonomy as follows:

- A. Self-directed professional action
- B. Capacity for self-directed professional action
- C. Freedom from control over professional action
- D. Self-directed professional development
- E. Capacity for self-directed professional development
- F. Freedom from control over professional development

This summary has analyzed almost every aspect of teacher autonomy. However, it fails to pay due attention to an important element in teacher autonomy, that is teachers’ attitudes. The subjective element as teacher’s attitudes

determines the successful application of teacher autonomy. Therefore, the author analyzes the divides teacher autonomy from three dimensions, that is the capacity and freedom in knowledge, skills and attitudes. As a result, positive attitudes is the prerequisite to the adoption of teacher autonomy, the capacity and freedom of knowledge is the basis, and the of skills are the necessary tools and guarantees of successful application of teacher autonomy.

C. Teacher Autonomy and Learner Autonomy

It is of vital importance to understand the dynamic relationship between teacher autonomy and learner autonomy. They are interrelated and interactive. To put it specifically, in order to understand and instruct learners, teachers become involved in various activities, asking questions which are helpful in increasing students' awareness of autonomous learning. Smith (2001: 43-4) explains explicitly their relationship.

"Teachers also need to constantly reflect on their own role in the classroom, monitoring the extent to which they constrain or scaffold students' thinking and behavior, so as to engage students in autonomous and effective learning"⁸. According to different circumstances, teachers' management of autonomy vary respectively.

However, as Little (1991) points out that learner autonomy does not mean "learning without a teacher (at home, with a computer, in a self-access centre, etc.), and/or that it does away with the need for a teacher"⁸. Instead, learner autonomy concerns a capacity (for taking control of learning) which can be cultivated and explored in a number of ways and situations, especially in the classroom with the help of teacher autonomy. Voller (1997) notes that "if students are to learn to 'take control', the teacher may need to learn to 'let go', even as she provides scaffolding and structure."⁹ Therefore, scholars become more aware of both the importance of developing teacher autonomy in structuring or scaffolding reflective learning and of the complex, shifting interrelationship between teacher and learner roles in the advocating of learner autonomy. As a result, teachers are required to get fully prepared for teacher autonomy

Besides, as Carey emphasizes, teacher autonomy is wrongly "coupled with uniformity"¹⁰. Take China for example, even when teachers are permitted to vary tremendously within the classroom, the bureaucratic evaluation has been demanding restrictions on the teachers' potential of full autonomy. Thus, teachers tend to adopt uniform teaching in order to meet the existing standard of teacher evaluation. Consequently, teacher autonomy has been linked to the same pattern of teaching. Accordingly, Tholin (2009) observes that "The focus here is both on teachers' freedom to redirect their teaching towards self-directed learning and on how their own experiences as autonomous language learners can give character to the teaching that they themselves carry out."¹¹ Therefore, in order to avoid such uniformity teachers' freedom should be taken into serious consideration.

III. CONCLUSION

In short, it is of great necessity to investigate into teacher autonomy if teachers intend to engage successfully in advocating learner autonomy in second language acquisition. As a result, this brief analysis of the definitions and characteristics of teacher autonomy is very helpful to understand learner autonomy and thus to facilitate SLA by consciously developing teachers' capacity and freedom in knowledge, skills and attitudes.

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Translation of Governmental Publicity— Enlightened from the Translation of “Five-dimensional Chongqing Construction”

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Abstract—With the rapid development of Chongqing Municipality directly under the People’s Republic of China Central Government, Chongqing Municipality is more and more focused and well-known all over the country. And the construction aim of “wu ge Chongqing” arouses the interest of more people and is widely discussed. However, to internationalize Chongqing Municipality and to attract more foreign people’s eyes, the publicity is crucial and first and foremost. To attract more foreigners, the translation of materials of publicity is decisive and pivotal. Consequently, in this article it is to analyze English translation of “wu ge Chongqing”, and discover the principles and approaches in translating materials of governmental publicity, so as to advance the translation practice of governmental publicity translation and to improve foreigners’ awareness and understanding of governmental publicity.

Index Terms—“wu ge Chongqing”, governmental publicity, principle, approach

I. INTRODUCTION

The translation of “wu ge Chongqing”, which means literally “five” (wu ge) and “Chongqing” (a municipality directly under the People’s Republic of China Central Government), therefore it is combined literally as “Five Chongqing”, which can be found from the publicity or news from the paper or websites related to Chongqing. In addition, the detailed “Five Chongqing” are “yi ju Chongqing”, “chang tong Chongqing”, “sen lin Chongqing”, “ping an Chongqing” and “jian kang Chongqing”. They are translated as livable Chongqing, smooth Chongqing, green Chongqing, safe Chongqing, and healthy Chongqing respectively according to the publication (Picture 1). “Livable Chongqing” is also translated as “liveable Chongqing”, and “green Chongqing” sometimes is also translated as “forest Chongqing”.^① How about these translations? And what can it enlighten the following translation of governmental publicity?



Picture 1 Publicity outside of the Chongqing Airport Square: wu ge Chongqing and their English translation

^① All the translations are easily found from public sign in Chongqing. The readers can also find relative information from such websites as: http://cq.cqnews.net/dt/swjb/200911/t20091105_3747387.htm; http://concreteaccessories.blog.hexun.com/39813789_d.html; <http://www.sourcejuice.com/1275802/2009/11/16/Xilai-met-anti-heroes-cherish-every-moment-life-not/>; http://www.cisco.com/web/KR/scc/pdf/Session1/Panel_Session_Wang_Jiguang.pdf.

II. ANALYSIS OF THE TRANSLATION OF “FIVE-DIMENSIONAL CHONGQING”

A. Translation of Title of “Wu Ge Chongqing”

Originally, “Five Chongqing” is a developmental aim of construction of Chongqing Municipality, however the translation “Five Chongqing” is just from the literal meaning of “wu ge Chongqing”, while in fact it means five aspects of constructing Chongqing Municipality, that is, it is to build Chongqing as a city suitable to live, a city of convenient transportation, a city with a large area of forestry, a city of low-level of crime and a city with healthy living environment. In the five aspects, there are overlapping, while each one lays particular emphasis on certain prominent problems. Grammatically, the translation “five Chongqing” of “wu ge Chongqing” will make foreigners confused, as the readers do not understand the semantic or grammatical structure of “five Chongqing”. According to traditional grammar, a plural form of a noun is followed after the number “five”, so the translation “five Chongqing” is not grammatical, which is easy to be thought as a wrong expression of “Five Chongqings”. As a result, from the aspect of literal translation, it is not a proper translation. On the other hand, the translation does not tell the readers especially foreigners the five aspects of constructing Chongqing. From this aspect, the translation is not a good translation. According to the five aspects of “wu ge Chongqing”, its English version should at least contain the information of “five-aspect”; therefore it is better to be translated as “five-aspect Chongqing construction” or “five-dimensional Chongqing construction”, which can facilitate readers to understand its essence easily. Compared with each other, the former is clearer, while the latter is more literary, therefore it is better to choose the latter as its English translation of “wu ge Chongqing”.

B. Translation of Five Aspects of “Wu Ge Chongqing”

As the “five-aspect Chongqing construction” or “five-dimensional Chongqing construction” just gives the readers general information, but what are the five aspects or dimensions? The translators in some cases should add some details on it. The first one “yi-ju Chongqing” is to make the city more convenient and more comfortable to live in, with good living surroundings, self-contained public facilities, and perfect urban functions, which can satisfy those living in the city and those visiting this city. It is translated as “livable” or “liveable” Chongqing. How about this translation? According to an online dictionary, livable (also liveable) means “suitable to live in; habitable”^②. From its Chinese original meaning, “yi ju” means livable, suitable to live, or a best place to settle down, and “yi ju Chongqing” is an adjective-noun phrase which refers to that Chongqing is a desirable place to live. Therefore, livable contains the semantic meaning and connotative meaning “a desirable place to live” of “yi ju Chongqing”, while the word “livable” also contains a pragmatic meaning that the Chongqing government encourages anybody to come to visit and settle down in Chongqing. Therefore from the aspects of semantic translation and functional translation, the translation is a perfect transformation of the original expression.

The aim of second aspect “chang tong Chongqing” is to build a higher-speed city transportation system and to open more passageways outward, such as roads, highways and airlines. “Chang tong” in Chinese means no blocking, and no traffic congestion, therefore it is translated as “smooth Chongqing”. Smooth refers to “free from or proceeding without abrupt curves, bends, etc”, or “allowing or having an even, uninterrupted movement or flow”, and its collocation can be as “a smooth ride or driving” and a sentence of its collocation can be “That road is smooth”. Based on this analysis, the translation implies that Chongqing government focuses on good infrastructure construction especially in traffic, which shows the semantic meaning and the aim of constructing “chang tong Chongqing”. According to Skopos Theory [1], the shape of TT should above all be determined by the function or “skopos” that it is intended to fulfill in the target context. From the translation of “chang tong Chongqing”, the function or skopos of constructing a high-speed city transportation system is occurred to target readers. While the foreigners can easily understand the content and aim of this aspect of Chongqing construction, and the translation is tested among foreigners with good responses. From aspects of semantic translation, Skopos Theory and readers’ reception, the translation fulfills its function.

Originally the Chinese version of “sen lin” is a noun phrase referring to forest, while in this case of “sen lin Chongqing” it is used as an adjective phrase meaning “with forest”. According to Chongqing governmental publicity, the aim of “sen lin Chongqing” is to plant as many trees as possible so as to build Chongqing as a “city of forest” and to make the city as a “oxygen bar” of forest with a high forest coverage. Therefore it is not only related to planting trees, but also concerned with greening and afforestation. It is generally translated as “green Chongqing” or “forest Chongqing”. Forest is a noun with meaning of “a large tract of land covered with trees and underbrush”. “Green” refers to “covered with herbage or foliage; verdant” or “characterized by the presence of verdure”. Whereas by comparison with the two expressions, “green” covers more information than “forest” does, as it is related to environmental concerns but not only forestation, consequently green Chongqing is more suitable to its Chinese version from perspectives of semantics, function translation and readers’ reception.

“Ping an” in Chinese is a common adjective to refer to safe, and the aim of “ping an Chongqing” is to crack down on illegal speculation and profiteering, illegal lawbreakers, so as to build a safe city. It is to attract more foreign investors to invest in Chongqing securely. Thus it is translated as “safe Chongqing”. Safe is “free from hurt, injury, danger, or risk”, or “involving little or no risk of mishap”, which is equivalent to its Chinese counterpart semantically, in addition

^② All the definitions of words “livable or liveable, smooth, forest, green, safe and healthy” are from the website: <http://dictionary.reference.com/>.

it represents the aim of the Chinese version, and will make it understandable and acceptable for foreigners. From aspects of semantic translation, Skopos Theory and readers' reception, the translation fulfills its function.

"Jian kang" refers to healthy in Chinese, and the aim of "jian kang Chongqing" is to establish more public exercise facilities, to build more average sports ground for the public and to increase the rate of the national physical conditions. In this situation it is more related to the construction of public physical and mental health. "Jian kang" is an adjective with the meaning of "healthy", so it is translated as "healthy Chongqing". "Healthy" refers to "possessing or enjoying good health or a sound and vigorous mentality", or "pertaining to or characteristic of good health, or a sound and vigorous mind". From its collocation, it is easy to find that it is generally used with somebody, and when it is used as "Healthy City", it is a set expression related to the WHO Healthy City Project among some developing countries. As the project mainly focuses on environmental improvements, the translation is interpreted by foreigners in a survey as good fresh air and water supply, enough doctors, hospitals and medicine etc. From this analysis, the translation does not make foreign readers clear understand the aim of "jian kang Chongqing", though its literal meaning is the same, in addition, it embodies the essence and function of construction of "jian kang Chongqing": to build a city with healthy living environment for those dwellers.

From these analysis, "wu ge Chongqing" is better to be translated as "five-dimensional Chongqing construction: liveable/livable Chongqing, smooth Chongqing, green Chongqing, safe Chongqing and healthy Chongqing". The semantic meaning and function or aim of the original is achieved in this translation from the perspectives of equivalent theory, Skopos Theory and readers' reception, and this translation also can make foreign readers understand its essence.

III. PRINCIPLES OF GOVERNMENTAL PUBLICITY TRANSLATION

It is not possible to discuss or evaluate the translation of publicity translation without considering its translation principles. Therefore in this part it is mainly to discuss the principles in the translation of publicity, especially governmental publicity. Firstly it is necessary to make clear what governmental publicity translation is. In modern international communication, for more famous and more attractive to foreigners, a government has to provide some persuasive information about the city to others. In this process, the original texts have to be translated to foreign texts to make foreigners easily get to know them and understand them clear. As this activity is sponsored by the government, and it is to give the government and relative activities publicity to other people, the translation process is called governmental publicity translation. Consequently, governmental publicity refers to the governmental publication of information related to governmental activities, announcements, developmental directions and steps or others relating to the publicity of relative city or government. For the discussion of principles of governmental publicity translation, it is essential to consider the elements and considerations of governmental publicity translation.

The first element is the information itself. Any governmental publicity text contains its contents, idea and semantic meaning. From this view, the translation of governmental publicity should take the semantic meaning of the original text into consideration. The second element is the aim of text. Governmental publicity text is to enlarge its international recognition and influence, to make more people get to know it and attract more people come to visit or invest, and to win the city an international fame. Therefore, this kind of text is function-oriented, and in translation it is necessary to pay much attention to its function. The third consideration is the acceptance of target readers. As the government publicity will realize its value and influence only when it is widely accepted by readers. Since the governmental publicity translation is to attract foreigners' attention, its translation should pay main attention to foreign readers, as a result the valuation of governmental publicity translation should focus on the response of foreign readers.

As the translation activity is sponsored by government, and its aim is also restricted by the aim of publicity, the translation has to abide by some principles. Enlightened from the English translation of "wu ge Chongqing", in translation of governmental publicity, it is necessary to consider the semantic meaning of original text, its function or aim and its acceptance of target readers. This is the first principle. Secondly, texts of governmental publicity are "appeal-focused" texts, which should achieve the non-linguistic purpose of its message and provoke a particular reaction on the part of the hearers or readers, inciting them to engage in specific actions. [2] Therefore, translation of governmental publicity is "goal-oriented", that is, to appeal others' attention, so in translating these kinds of texts its aim is of priority. This is the second principle. The third one is that all the translation should be tested and verified by target readers, as the purpose, skopos or aims of the governmental publicity is to attract foreigners attention, the foreigners' response and acceptance is of course of paramount importance. From this aspect, the translation principle is accordant to Venuti's "domesticating" [3] to target readers, or as Schleiermacher's choice that "he (the translator) leaves the reader in peace, as much as possible, and moves the author towards him". [4] In other words, it is to translate according to its functions, meanings and target readers' reception, and among of them, the function is of priority.

IV. APPROACHES TO FOREIGN-ORIENTED GOVERNMENTAL PUBLICITY TRANSLATION

From these principles, the translation of governmental publicity is foreigners-oriented, which is to arouse foreigners' attraction and interest, to realize the functions of the materials of governmental publicity, and to attract more and more foreign readers understand and get to know it. Therefore, for the purpose of preserving the semantic meaning, in translating materials of governmental publicity the translators should try to express the content and ideas of the

materials, which is often called literal translation. For the majority of translating materials of governmental publicity, literal translation is the basic approach in practice, for instance the translation of “yi ju Chongqing, chang tong Chongqing, ping an Chongqing and jian kang Chongqing” as “livable Chongqing, smooth Chongqing, safe Chongqing and healthy Chongqing”. In practice, the government institutions or organizations are generally literally translated such as Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, Ministry of State Security of the People's Republic of China, Central Committee of the Communist Party of China and so on.

Considering the aim of governmental publicity, the translators should pay more attention to the purpose of materials in translating, as a result the translation should be functionally equivalent to its original. From this point of view, sometimes for those materials in which the literal meaning is not so important as its functions, the approach of translation can be free translation, that is, the translation is greatly different from its semantic equivalent of the original. The translation of “sen lin Chongqing” not as “forest Chongqing” but as “green Chongqing” is a good example, which is usual translation approach for those “appeal-focused” texts [5]. To satisfy foreign target readers, in translating texts of governmental publicity it is to adopt the strategy of domesticating—conforming to target discourse types and adopting a fluent, natural-sounding target language style.[6] For the translation of “wu ge Chongqing”, as the original in Chinese is grammatical and understandable for Chinese ordinary readers, while its literal translation as “Five Chongqing” is ungrammatical and incomprehensible to foreign readers, in translating it is changed as “five-dimensional Chongqing Construction”, which can facilitate the foreign to clear grasp the essence of “wu ge Chongqing”, and accordingly to grasp the details of the aim of Chongqing construction.

V. CONCLUSION

According to the analysis of translation of “wu ge Chongqing” and its details of five aspects, it is to conclude that the translation of “wu ge Chongqing” is not grammatical and incomprehensible, therefore it is not a good translation. From the requirements of translation of governmental publicity, in translating it is necessary to pay much attention to the semantic meaning and functions or aims of original texts, at the same time the translation should take target readers' reception into account. Based on these requirements, it is easy to get the principle and approaches in translating materials of governmental publicity. Enlightened from the analysis on translation of “wu ge Chongqing”, the translation of materials of governmental publicity is to focus more on function of original “appeal-focused” texts, on the acceptance of target readers, and in the basis of original semantic meaning and essence of original texts. Enlightened from this article, in the translation of foreigner-oriented text, such as governmental materials, governmental websites, and governmental press conference materials and so on, the translation principles and approaches are good examples for them.

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